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Chicago Public Schools March Off to War: Participation of the City Public Schools in the Second World War: 1941-1945

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When the news of the attack on Pearl Harbor reached Chicagoans on December 7, 1941, everyone was stunned. For months they had followed the events occurring in Europe. American factories had been producing war-related items through lend-lease arrangements.

In October 1937, at a ceremony dedicating the Outer Drive Bridge, President Roosevelt warned of Japan's expansionism. He reiterated by saying that this sweep of Japanese control over other nations was dangerous to the free world.

On August 7, 1941 the Chicago Service Men's Center opened at 176 West Washington Street. On October 20, the Daily News disclosed that Northwestern University's Abbott Hall was becoming the "Annapolis of the midwest." By December 20, the city of Chicago had removed all sirens from police and fire vehicles so they would not be confused with air raid sirens. As the year of 1941 comes to a close the city begins organizing civilian defense blocks. Everyone felt the dangers that threatened the preservation of the democratic ideals of the American people. Victory was the end result whether the activity was found in the home, the community or at school.
The impact of World War II on education was more comprehensive and extensive than during World War I. It influenced not only institutions of higher education, especially those engaged in the preparation of teachers, but also elementary education to some degree and secondary education to a greater degree. As a result of the large numbers of mothers who entered war industries, arrangements had to be made for the care of their children. Due to the disruption of home life, as a result of this conflict, as well as other factors, increase in juvenile delinquency gave rise to another set of problems. Finally, a serious and ever-widening crisis was caused by the withdrawal of teachers from schools for war service or for war industries.

The war imposed new demands upon educational institutions. Secondary schools found themselves threatened with the disappearance of the traditional academic studies, except those which appeared to be needed for winning the war. The normal programs of secondary schools had to give way to a large extent to programs of "Education for Victory" and to vocational preparation. At the elementary level, the basic programs of reading and mathematics were enhanced and physical education classes were introduced.

The people of Chicago were alarmed to learn of the large numbers of young men who had been rejected by the Selective Service either because of illiteracy or because of physical deficiencies.
The large numbers of teachers who, whether for patriotic or other reasons, left the profession to enter the war industries, directed the attention of the community to the fact that salaries paid to teachers were not commensurate with the great ideal of education for American democracy. The teacher who remained in the Chicago Public School system found herself volunteering many long hours well after the school day had ended.

As the war comes to a close in 1945, Chicagoans joined the rest of the United States in celebrating victories over Germany and Japan. The returning G.I. looked to Chicago for work and a place to live. Many ex-G.I.'s needed to complete an education that had been interrupted by the 'near damndest thing--World War II" as stated by President Roosevelt. The Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 saw the largest influx in post-secondary education in the history of this country. This bill would change the course of higher institutions as well as its graduates.

In this study I shall examine how the Chicago Board of Education and the Chicago Public Schools initiated the intertwined tasks of stimulating patriotism and promoting Americanization during World War II.
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CHAPTER I

U.S. AND WORLD WAR II --- THE HOMEFRONT AND EDUCATION

The Direction and Purpose of the Study

In December, 1941, the United States entered the Second World War and so did the public schools. These institutions of learning became vital channels of communication to all Americans. The schools initiated programs that encouraged patriotism, generated popular support for the United States’ war effort and trained for the defense of the country. The public schools were places to acquire these desired skills and understandings.

The purpose of this study is to examine the war effort in Chicago Public Schools during the Second World War. We will study several challenges this system faced during the war years. America’s schools, including Chicago’s, were asked to fight a two-front war: (1) to encourage patriotism, and (2) to support the war policies among students and their parents. In order to better understand the difficulties that arose for the schools, we shall briefly review selected events relative to World War II and the United States.

Boom To Bust

Speculation, margin and crash --- these words recall the Great Depression. How could it have happened? The years between the Wall Street crash of 1929 and the
surrender of Japan on the battleship Missouri in 1945 were filled with historic, domestic and international events.\textsuperscript{1} As good as the 1920s had been to American families, the 1930s brought calamity after calamity. This era closed in war; an involvement that pitted the United States and its Allies against Japan, Germany and Italy.

In retrospect, the period of 1929 to 1945 seems to separate an older society inherited from the nineteenth century from one that ushered in a new technological world.\textsuperscript{2} The basic values of the old order had developed during three centuries of relatively free enterprise applied to great natural resources in an environment seldom troubled by world problems.\textsuperscript{3} Initially, America’s economy was primarily agrarian, but then industry grew and supplanted farming as the nation’s major occupation. In this milieu, business became the great avenue to success. During the 1920s, the economy was prosperous, with low unemployment, stable prices and sustained economic growth. Many nations envied American accomplishments. The United States seemed to be a country oriented to business and economic opportunity. The total demand for output suddenly slumped in the late 1920s, however, and this slump resulted in the Great Depression. The potency of the Great Depression dramatically destroyed the popular image of this society. Banks failed and businesses collapsed. The country was on the eve of economic destruction. The early 1930s were a
period of falling prices, rising unemployment, declining international trade and diminishing gross national product. Never in the economic history of America had the achievements and leadership of business been more respected than in the 1920s. However, by the mid-1930s, respect of American industry and trade had plummeted.

To be more specific, the weaknesses that caused the Depression might be listed as: (1) a distribution of income that gave too much to those at the top of the scale and too little to those in the lower part; (2) unsound holding companies in the corporate structure; (3) the large number of weak banks and of bank loans with common stocks as security; (4) a foreign financial balance dependent on continued American lending; and (5) the inadequacies in economic intelligence.

As the nation continued to struggle through its economic hardships in 1932 and 1933, Henry Ford warned: "This is not a cycle of hard times from which we will return to bigger panics....This is not a breakage to be patched up so that we can resume our reckless course again. This is the end of an era." The Depression affected every family, the wealthy, the poor and those in between.

The Depths of The Depression

In his battle against the Depression, President Hoover assumed greater responsibilities than any predecessor had done in a similar economic situation. Unfortunately, by the
spring of 1932, conditions in this country reached what seemed to be an intolerable impasse. Still the situation continued relatively unchanged for some nine months and then grew even worse.

In the past, economic recovery had come about from seemingly natural causes. A slower output of consumer products led to the assimilation of excess goods, while decreased principal charges and cheaper raw material reduced the unit cost of new production. Both consumption and employment were thus invigorated and business began to grow again. Not only the continental frontier, but the foreign export market had in former times invited such renewal, as did the steady multiplication of consumers due to the high birth rate and immigration. Now the whole world faced economic crisis. American industrial and technical productivity seemed to be near its limits. In this time of material, social and moral depression, there were few real threats of revolution or radicalism towards the American government. The American cultural traditions of self-help and individual responsibility seemed, for the most part, to make the sufferers feel guilty and perhaps sullen and resentful, but not ready to rebel and fight for a new order. Or perhaps, the thinking was that any disruption might come from an influential group with an authoritative leader and a controlling plan. In Germany, another great nation to suffer from the Depression, such an organization
existed, and its leader, Adolf Hitler, was able to seize power. In this country, no radical group that sought revolutionary change was strong enough to become a united voice for the disgruntled.

**International Dimensions of The Depression**

Those in the United States who could lift their eyes from the bleak domestic picture to scan the international horizon drew at least some solace from the proverbial fellowship. By the spring of 1929 or slightly earlier, the economies of Australia, Brazil, the Orient, the Near East, Argentina, Canada and Poland were showing symptoms of decline, while Germany's chronic post-World War I depression deepened.

In December of 1930, President Hoover told Congress that the major causes of our continuing depression lay outside the United States. He was partly correct. Many European governments were reeling from the consequence, of the First World War. Much of Europe had looked to the United States to lend them aid. By 1930 the president found it necessary to stop this practice. Adding to European woes was the Hawley-Smoot Tariff, which sharply reduced American markets for foreign imports. From abroad, the Hawley-Smoot Act was interpreted as a declaration of economic war on many foreign countries. Individual countries struggled; many enmeshed in their own difficulties.

England, a small, fiercely proud nation, was suffering
from a faltering economy. Her economic strength had been drained by World War I debts. This situation found many Britons reappraising the responsibilities they assumed as a world power. Because of the loss of foreign markets, many responsible Britons now had to face the fact the tenuous ties of tradition and sentiment, instead of sheer economic and naval might, would have to hold the British Empire together.\(^\text{12}\) By September of 1931, the British economy was driven from the gold standard.

In addition, France was beginning a gradual reorganization of its own economy. Its enactment of a 40-hour week, minimum wage levels, and the right to collective bargaining, although welcomed by workers, proved to be profoundly unsettling to owners of small, conservative-run business.\(^\text{13}\)

The Hoover administration stood by while Austrian and German banks failed in May and June of 1931. By 1932 countless small factories and businesses were in ruins, more than 6,000,000 Germans were unemployed, and farmers, devastated by a sharp drop in commodity prices, were losing their lands in forced sales.\(^\text{14}\)

On June 20, 1932 after consulting with the leaders of both houses, Hoover faced the fact that the Depression was crippling Europe. He declared a one-year moratorium on payments of governmental debts owed to the United States.\(^\text{15}\)

Since this made it more likely that some payment could be
made on private debts, Hoover's move was widely applauded in worldwide financial circles. But this "bold gesture," unaccompanied by any positive aid to German and Austrian finance, was not enough to check the downward spiral. Thus, in Germany, under the presidency of Paul von Hindenburg, the Republic continued on a course of international poverty and stagnation that ended in 1933 with the election of Adolf Hitler. Although Hoover continued to pursue the repayment of European debts, the structure to obtain these debts was never sufficiently re-established.

From Rags to Riches

Life during the Depression, when it was not painful, could certainly be monotonous. Daily activities in the cities across the United States centered around the routine tasks of providing for the basic family needs. As early as 1926, the unemployed were estimated at 1,500,000; by 1929 their numbers had swelled to upwards of 2,860,000. Without income or housing to hold them together, families disintegrated. Older siblings and jobless spouses started drifting around the country, presumably looking for work, but perhaps really seeking some sort of escape from the plight of being destitute. The unemployed habitually read or listened to the radio late into the night. They slept late each morning to delay the start of another long, dreary day. Some applied for and received aid. However, unperceived by the optimists, joblessness and poverty had
come to be chronic social problems ... neither a passing crisis nor one readily met by the efforts of private charity.\textsuperscript{18} To many Americans, the United States had entered its darkest economic decade. Many turned to their government leaders for help.

It has been written that President Hoover believed in preserving American traditions. Because of his Quaker upbringing, he continued to adhere to his theory that the primary obligations for relief to individuals rested upon the family, the neighbor, the landlord, and the employer—in that order.\textsuperscript{19} When these methods failed, the major burden of relief fell first on private donors, then on such charitable organizations like the American Red Cross, the Community Chest, and the Salvation Army, then finally on the government. Consequently, the ratio of private to public funds for such purposes was diminishing, as public relief expenditures gradually mounted.\textsuperscript{20}

The homeless and the hungry were everywhere. In many rural communities the over abundance of apples was sold to the unemployed on credit. Jobless men and women could be found on many street corners, hawking apples for a nickel. The apple became the most memorable symbol of the great unemployed. By 1932, people in New York were reported to be "sick of apples."\textsuperscript{21} In Chicago, peaches were distributed to the homeless compliments of farmers from Michigan. Because of these hard times, sacrifices had to be made.
Many of these families with declining incomes changed their way of living: they cut down their expenditures, moved to quarters with lower rent, had telephones removed, denied themselves luxuries, and in many cases applied for and received relief. To help offset these terrible social and economic times, many cities created diversions to help their citizens cope. In Chicago, the 1933 Century of Progress Exposition was where one went to spark excitement in Depression weary families.

The Century of Progress Exposition opened on Chicago's lakefront in 1933. Many corporations pooled their resources to sponsor this extravaganza. In return, their exhibits promoted interest in and sale of their products. Unlike the glorification of Old World culture in the exposition of forty years earlier, this occasion featured native achievements in invention and engineering and its Hall of Science drew the largest number of visitors. The Fair celebrated the centennial of the founding of Chicago, and one hundred years of industrial growth. This exposition drew about 10 million admissions in its first season. Because of its enormous success, the Fair was held over another year. Throngs of people thrilled to the Midway with its rides, side shows and celebrities. The Fair was comprised of a carnival, a sales promotion and an outdoor museum all rolled into one. It also provided the exhilarating outing that many families so badly needed.
impact of this severe and long depression upon daily life could be observed everywhere. Another agency of society hit hard during these times was the educational system.

A Crippled School System

The Chicago Public Schools at the beginning of the 20th Century was often in dire straits. Between 1915 and 1926, the Board of Education shifted from cash in hand to credit by sale of tax warrants, and in doing so exhausted almost eleven years of tax income in ten years. The tax assessing system was a haphazard, politically manipulated affair. Various unhealthy economic strategies reduced tax collections to a point where the amount of funds available for Chicago's schools was substantially less than the amount allocated in the Board of Education's budget. The Board had reached the end of the line on "creative" bookkeeping and faced with the fact that there must be a sharp increase in it tax rate, more money contributed from the state, or a higher assessed valuation of taxable property. Although Chicago's situation was extreme, it was not an unfamiliar scene for cities with massive economic disabilities and deflated tax systems. Those employed as city workers at least had jobs. Unfortunately for Chicago Public School teachers, they sometimes did not always get paid. As submissive and steadfast as they seemed, their patience was running out. Margaret Haley was a crusader who fought to advance the cause of public education and to improve the
well-being of teachers of Chicago. She conducted research concerning the collection of city taxes, or rather the lack of it. Her probing of records showed the mishandling of city funds and sights the monetary problems of the schools before the Stock Market Crash of 1929.

Towards the end of the 1920s, the Executive Secretary of the National Education Association, John W. Crabtree was recounting the effects of World War I on American educational system. He expressed hope that this country would not abandon the schools and leave itself unprepared for war. Crabtree studied and audited financial balance sheets, looking for revenues for schools. Locally, Margaret Haley found herself working with a tax lawyer, trying to reassess the property taxes of commercial buildings in the city. She applied her keen business sense to the analysis and of tax laws. However, the professionals of the National Education Association did not share her interest in locating revenues for the Chicago Public Schools. Her hope was to besiege the large companies in the downtown, Loop area. She wanted to shift the tax burden from the homeowner to the wealthy downtown corporations. Unfortunately, her timing was off. Many of the corporations had successfully failed to pay taxes on the property they owned.

The information Haley received was prepared in 1926 and calculated for the 1927 tax year. In that fiscal year, corporations submitted their property tax assessments with
tremendous irregularities, thus this taxation was declared invalid by the court. Shortly thereafter, a judge ordered a new assessment; as a result the 1928 taxes were not collected. After the 'Crash of '29' much of this revenue became uncollectible, especially monies from the utility companies which speculated heavily in the stock market. The problems were greatly accentuated by the high rate of unemployed which resulted from the depression. Thus, Haley's attempt to collect revenues for a financially strapped school system had failed.\textsuperscript{28} The only way the local government could get money to operate was to sell tax anticipation warrants to the banks - which were far from eager to buy them.\textsuperscript{29} The quadrennial reassessment, which should have been legally completed by the end of 1931 - four years after 1927 - had not even been started by August 30 of that year. Thus, tax bills for 1930 had not been sent out as ordered by the legislature. The tax machinery had again, come to a grinding halt. The teachers experienced their first "payless" pay days in April, 1931.\textsuperscript{30} Help was sought from an outside agency.

\textbf{The Strayer Report}

The chair of the Emergency Commission of the National Education Association (N.E.A.) was George B. Strayer of Columbia University. Strayer had a strong sense of mission as he took over the N.E.A. Many individuals felt that this organization was moving in the direction of demanding
federal involvement in education. First, however, it wanted to assure teachers that it was now committed to salary increases. The N.E.A. would become a lobbying effort for teachers nationally. It was a novel concept, one that came directly from the new leaders in the N.E.A. The citizens of Chicago eagerly looked to the N.E.A. for financial advice to aid their school system.

Thus, when George Strayer was invited to conduct a complete survey of the Chicago Public School system during the 1932-33 school year, the bulk of his survey addressed itself to school expenditures, not to school revenues. He recommended retrenchment, refinancing of school debts and suggested the end of school expansion. Thus contractors were forced to discontinue the construction of seven high schools - DuSable, Lane, Rembrandt, Senn, Steinmetz, Verdi and Wells. In 1934, the builders completed Lane, Senn and Steinmetz; DuSable and Wells were finished in 1935. Subsequently, Rembrandt and Verdi were completed in 1939. Strayer pioneered in school budget analysis: though his investigation of the budget was thorough, his plan for increasing income was weak. He felt Chicago alone should not shoulder the burden of financing so large and economically weak a school system.

Strayer sincerely endorsed the idea that Illinois modify its tax laws, especially with regard to "intangible" assets, because he felt this type of property was too
difficult to identify. Haley, on the other hand, pursued the identification of "intangible" property through the taxation of the utilities' monopoly franchise rights, and "intangible" but taxable assets. Further, Strayer did not even consider the 99-year lease agreements on land, which Haley claimed to be robbing the schools of millions. This agreement started in 1895. He felt that the general property tax was the worst tax known in the civilized world. Furthermore, his committee placed little hope that the Illinois Commission would study and try to "modernize" Chicago's obsolete tax system. The committee also empathized with the citizens of Chicago, by noting that the Depression had hit other school systems in the same manner. Thus, Strayer and his committee had very little to recommend when it came to increasing school revenues.\textsuperscript{33} The Survey committee attempted to alter the financial problems of the schools by recommending the reduction of all school expenditures and initiating all practical means to collect the revenues which were due under Chicago's system of taxation.\textsuperscript{34} Chicago was confronting a fiscal problem which also challenged other municipalities throughout this nation. Due to the economic state of the city, the leaders of Chicago looked to Washington, D.C. for help.
Reconstruction Finance Corporation

On December 7, 1931, President Hoover asked Congress to enact a comprehensive legislative program aimed as stimulating economic recovery. One part of that plan was the Reconstruction Finance Corporation (R.F.C.). It became an independent agency of the United States government. The objectives of the program were classified in three distinct categories:

1. Allocation referred to the process by which the total resource use was divided among different goods and services, this is, the composition of total output.

2. Distribution pertained to adjusting the distribution of income and wealth to assure conformity with what society considered to be a "fair" state.

3. Stabilization, a policy tool, used to prom full employment, stability, economic growth and balance-of-payment equilibrium. The President was concerned with stabilizing the economy. He hoped this operation would stimulate the country to full employment. Thus, the R.F.C. began to lend two billion dollars to banks, insurance companies, building and loan associations, agricultural credit organizations, railroads and similar enterprises. The President felt that strengthening the nation's credit structure would indirectly
benefit everybody. What Hoover wished to avoid was payment of dole; cash relief to the able-bodied unemployed. Dole was held to be a certain destroyer of character and self-respect.\textsuperscript{37}

By the summer of 1932, the bleak economic picture in the United States had not improved. Fear mounted. Not only had the people continued to suffer, but uncertainty that important business institutions such as banks, insurance companies and railroads might not be able to survive another dismal fiscal year. John N. Garner, the Speaker of the House of Representatives, demanded that federal loans be given to needy men and women. The American Federation of Labor sought appropriations to pay teachers in bankrupt cities. Other individuals urged revival of the federal employment service, defunct since World War I and the creation of a national system of unemployment insurance. President Hoover felt compelled to accept a relief bill by levying $2,122,000,00 upon the Treasury, of which $1,800,000,000 could be lent by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to states and municipalities for relief and public works, with the remainder earmarked for federal construction.\textsuperscript{38} This standard set a precedent for the New Deal.

The summer of 1932 marked the renomination of Hoover for president by the Republican party and the nomination of Franklin Delano Roosevelt by the Democratic party. The
platforms and campaigns of the two parties were naturally at odds about the Depression. The Republicans following Hoover’s lead, stressed its international roots; non-repayment of loans by foreign countries to the United States, world-wide unemployment and the collapsing of many foreign banks. While the Democrats and Roosevelt blamed the Depression on domestic causes; an uneven spread of wealth throughout the country, high unemployment, weak banks and farmers unable to market their crops, thus losing their farms.\(^3\)

On March 14, 1932, Americans witnessed the first inauguration of Franklin D. Roosevelt as President of the United States. The war on the Depression had shifted from defense to attack.\(^4\) A day later, the National Socialist (Nazi) Party’s candidate won enough of an edge in the last free election of Germany’s fragile democracy. Adolf Hitler was elected Chancellor. These two charismatic and authoritative leaders would dominate the world with wielding power.

It is felt by many writers that most of Roosevelt’s recovery program started in the Hoover administration. Both leaders took unprecedented responsibility for lifting the nation’s economic mechanism back onto the track of prosperity by attempting to raise farm prices and underpin wages, create jobs and prime the pumps by public works, spread employment by fostering shorter hours and regulating
the value of the dollar. Though most Americans were unaware of it, the Hoover administration had not left them helpless. The New Deal’s swift response to the financial panic was generally possible only because the Hoover administration had already paved the way for the Emergency Act of 1933. There were five titles to this Act. Title III authorized the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to purchase the preferred stock or capital notes of banks and trust companies in many cities, proved them with long-term debts to the RFC. Chicago, still reeling from the effects of the Depression, hoped to receive economic assistance. In order to understand the importance of this Act to Chicago, it will be useful to recall the mayoral reign (1931-1933) of Anton Cermak. He is credited with setting the Democratic Machine in motion.

In February of 1933, Mayor Cermak appealed to President-elect Roosevelt for emergency funding. The mayor hoped to receive aid from the RFC to pay teachers of Chicago. He traveled to Florida to visit Roosevelt who was on vacation. During this visit, an assassin’s bullet struck Cermak and spared the life of the newly elected president. Cermak died of complications to his wounds three weeks later. During his campaign, he opened his door to teacher organizations. Margaret Haley, President of the Chicago Teacher’s Federation, endorsed him. Mary Herrick, vice-president of the Women’s Federation of High School
Teachers, believed he talked common sense to the teachers. They campaigned effortlessly for Cermak. He was very concerned with the plight of the city's schools.

In August of 1932, Chicago started an economy drive that put more city employees on relief. Over one thousand municipal jobs were eliminated at an annual savings of about $2.5 million. By September only fifty-one of the city's 228 banks were operating, the others had become insolvent. In November, the federal government assisted Chicago with a series of loans from the Reconstruction Finance Corporation for public works improvement. It is felt by many that Mayor Cermak had much to do with getting these monies. This series of loans lessened the stress between the banking community and the teachers of Chicago. However, the school's financial woes were not solved by this move. With recommendations from the Strayer Report in mind, the board "adopted a plan to meet the emergency by making important changes throughout the school system in its administration and operation."47

A Scuttled School System

The economic program that the board proposed in 1933 caused a multitude of problems for teachers, students and their parents. On July 11, 1933, Illinois Governor Henry Horner signed an amendment which staggered the school deficit over a period of six years. However, big business wanted to punish the teachers for raising issues over the
Board's leasing of school property at extremely low rates to banks and other large companies. Most of the people of Chicago backed the teachers on their efforts to get equitable taxation. The Board was confronted with trying to pay thirteen thousand teachers and nearly five thousand other school employees. This weekly payroll of nearly one million dollars was difficult to meet. By July 1, 1933 the Board owed them nearly twenty-three million dollars. Unfortunately, the Board's credit with the banks had ceased and only the city would help by purchasing all the school's vouchers that the legal experts would endorse. Estimates of the deficit in 1933 were between $10 million and $35 million depending on which financial authority had the correct figure. The Board took drastic measures and cut the school system down to "bare bones." They not only reduced services and programs throughout the system, but cut deeply into the organization and daily operation of the schools. The following measures were adopted by the Board on July 1, 1933: a shortened academic year from ten to nine months; a longer school day; the closing of the experimental junior high school programs, sending seventh and eighth grade students back to an elementary school setting, this increased the number of buildings now available for high school students; the closing of Jones and Winchell Continuation schools, thus transferring these students to Washburne; the dismissal of special subject teachers;
elimination of deans and vocational guidance staff. They also announced that elementary school principals would now manage two schools; a reduction in kindergarten staff; a reduction in the purchase of textbooks, musical instruments and materials; reduced membership in special schools; reduction of salaries for engineers by 24.8 percent and operating employees by 24.3 percent; abolishing the Special Schools Bureau; the elimination of household arts and manual training subjects in grades seven and eight; substitution of higher paid teachers with household arts teachers to supervise the lunchrooms and finally the dismissing of fourteen hundred teachers. The changes were listed in the Board's booklet, "Our Schools Must Not Close." This 'Board' had been selected by Mayor Kelly. Many of them were "coal dealers and other small businessmen with little education themselves(sic) and only a few days of service on the Board of Education." The Board voted for these cuts. The parents, teachers and other individuals present at this meeting were very upset by the Board's action.

That night teachers and various civic groups formed the Citizens' Save Our Schools Committee. On July 21, 1933, a mass rally of more than thirty thousand gathered at the Chicago Stadium to protest these cuts. Petitions were distributed, more than 350,000 signatures were collected. They were sent to the state capital. While fourteen hundred teachers were losing their jobs, the city added seven
hundred political appointees. Meanwhile help came to the schools from an unlikely source, the state. Because of the large amount of Illinois school districts in financial distress, the General Assembly in February, 1934 was called to help the schools. The first "pegged levy" bill of 1935 which became a law, provided $43 million for Chicago schools and legalized raising the assessed valuation of property to a tax rate needed to raise the money. The school system used this "pegged" tax successfully for many years for needed funding. By 1934, the teachers had received their checks on a regular basis, except for a brief incident in 1937 (and again in 1979). Chicago was not the only school system to falter financially during the 1930s. Financial difficulties for many school districts were evident nationwide.

Across the country, twenty-six hundred schools, many located in rural sections, ceased to exist by the beginning of 1934. They shut their doors and shortened their terms affecting nearly 10 million students. As the economy of this nation mended, this condition improved. As the economic structure of the Chicago Public Schools strengthened, many programs and services cut from the 1933 budget were gradually restored. In April, 1936, another change occurred in the school system, William H. Johnson became the General Superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools. Johnson would hold this position until 1946, the
years of World War II.

Although the Depression threatened education, it gave new purpose and incentive to the movement for "progressive" education. This undertaking was a rebellion against mandatory instruction with traditional learning that did not interest or stimulate the child. Johnson noted the new trends in education across the nation. He wanted the Chicago curriculum to reflect this tendency. He added staff to implement programs to provide opportunities to develop self-reliance, independence, resourcefulness and leadership in the pupils. Some progressives felt that the confusion and demoralization following the Depression was a signal for the schools to educate the whole child.

Progressive Education

In elementary education the "child-centered" instructional mode of the twenties yielded to the "community-centered" school, fostering more projects built about social and economic themes.54 This movement meant the abandoning of a more traditional curriculum. In some instances, the student was able to choose what projects he/she would like to undertake. Unfortunately, the atmosphere of the classroom became more chaotic, not as disciplined or structured as before.

George S. Counts, a Columbia Teacher's College professor, addressed the annual convention of the Progressive Education Association (P.E.A.) on "Dare
progressive Education Be Progressive?" Counts would later combine this address with two others, to form the pamphlet, "Dare The School Build A New Social Order?" Answering in the affirmative, he criticized the PEA for its emphasis on the individual student and its lack of a social program. Counts called on the schools, especially the teachers, to reach for power in order for schools to become centers to reconstruct society.

In high schools, progressiveness led to a curriculum developed to enhance the knowledge of daily living skills and the practical welfare of mankind. Although there was less emphasis on some traditional methods of instruction e.g. memorizing, gathering of factual information, many college-bound students in this era appear to have done better than who followed a more traditional curriculum.

In many instances, high school students found it best to stay in school. School was a place to go each morning, and it beat looking for a job that did not exist. While some youths hoped to go to college, others learned trades to improve their employment possibilities. During this "progressive" period, schools altered their study programs to meet the needs of all students. Many students found themselves in the dilemma of being a burden to their families while remaining in school and being unable to find employment upon leaving school. As of 1935, an estimated 4,200,000 youths between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four
were unemployed. Educators became increasingly aware of the need to study the problems of students and to provide the means whereby youth might be better able to come to grips with these problems. A number of people looked to the educational system as one of the prime institutions for building a better society. The students learned about the values of the "American" way of life and then went home to unemployment, poverty and despair.

The New Deal

The term "New Deal" referred to the domestic reform program under the administration of President Roosevelt. This program consisted of two main parts. The first included temporary measures, designed to provide relief and to counteract the effects of the Depression. These efforts included the regulation of agriculture and business, relief from inflation, stabilizing prices and recovery for public works. Congress established several emergency organizations under this phase of legislation. The National Recovery Administration aimed at stimulating the economy. It helped each industry draw up a code of fair practices. Another was the Civilian Conservation Corps. Still another was the Emergency Banking Act, which pledged to get banks back on their feet.

The second phase of the New Deal included permanent measures designed to rehabilitate and stabilize the national economy so as to prevent the recurrence of severe economic
dislocations. The Social Security System was initiated in 1935 as part of this reform package. As programs were being developed, some Congressmen and Legislatures studied them. Questions were raised; debates and litigation followed.

A number of New Deal measures were invalidated by the Supreme Court. It felt that the National Recovery Administration Act to be unconstitutional. The Court stated the president had no authority to approve business codes. Although the country was starting to emerge from the depths of its economic woes, certain individuals questioned some of its methods at attaining this goal.

The New Deal, which had received the endorsement of agrarian, liberal and labor groups, was now starting to receive criticism. It was attacked by conservatives as being destructive of private enterprises and individual initiatives; it was defended by its partisans as a balancing mechanism which would eliminate the recurrent economic booms and depressions of capitalist production and ensure an equitable distribution of wealth and opportunity. It should be remembered that New Deal reforms, were reforms rather than radical changes.

The New Deal brought a major change in American labor relations. In spite of the growth of unions in western Europe and the British Empire, mass production industry and nearly all trade and service in the United States remained
virtually nonunion. Only the skilled crafts, chiefly in mining, transportation and the building and clothing trades, had achieved organization and won limited recognition from employers. Refusal to deal with unions representing the rank and file of the workers became an accepted tradition of big, industrial business.

Recurrence of this tradition was challenged by the National Labor Relations or the Wagner Act of 1935. This Act not only compelled collective bargaining with unions representing a majority of the workers, but sought to protect the right of unions to carry on organizing activities. Some large companies refused to comply, sit down strikes made big headlines in the 1930s. Instead of workers walking picket lines, they went into the factories and sat at their stations. They stayed until the strike was settled. Unions across the nation used this tactic. Management and labor bargained until both sides felt they had won.

Dictators and Neutrality

By the summer of 1938, more and more Americans were getting news from the radio. Every evening millions of families gathered in front of the wireless to learn what had happened that day. Many times the news reports were beamed directly from a world capital. Such newscasts were fresh proof of how small the world had become. The radio beamed news accounts of how troublesome world events could be. The
news from Berlin was nothing to take lightly. Middle and Eastern European nations struggled with each other to avoid combat. As World War I had already shown, a conflict in Europe could threaten peace around the world.

Americans did not listen to these events with any pleasure. Yet, they were in no mood to fight another war. Twenty years after World War I, many citizens felt that the United States had been drawn into the conflict by mistake. The majority felt that the United States should isolate itself from the conflicts erupting on both sides of the ocean.

Threats of war continued around them. Hitler ignored the Treaty of Versailles and marched into Germany's neighboring states. Japan expanded her conquests in Asia. Mussolini dreamed of a Roman Empire in Italy and North Africa. Congress passed the Neutrality Acts to try to prevent the United States from getting into another world war. Individual Americans were warned not to travel on ships of warring countries.

In January, 1939, President Roosevelt warned Congress that "events abroad have made it increasingly clear ... that the dangers within are less to be feared than dangers from without." Soon Czechoslovakia, China and Albania fell to the Axis powers. France and Great Britain finally declared war on Germany in September, 1939 following Hitler's invasion of Poland. President Roosevelt spoke to the nation
on the radio, "This nation will remain a neutral nation, but I cannot ask that every American remain neutral in thought as well." With Europe in flames, American neutrality could only be temporary. In the late 1930s, Americans engaged mostly in political debate rather than action.

Towards War in Europe

With Hitler's brutal conquest of Poland in September of 1939 and the fall of France in June, 1940, America was shocked out of isolation. In September, 1940, Roosevelt declared a state of emergency. Our government realized it had to help Great Britain or all of Europe would be lost to Hitler. The United States supplied England with fifty overage destroyers in exchange for American leases of British bases from Newfoundland to British Guinea. This strengthened Britain's faltering navy while shoring up America's defense posts. On March 11, 1941, the Lend-Lease Act permitted direct shipment of arms to Great Britain. These weapons were to be paid for or replaced at the end of the war. Finally, after repeated Nazi submarine attacks, American merchant ships armed themselves while traveling through dangerous waters. The unofficial preparation for war lasted longer than the conflict itself.

Back in the United States, companies prepared to convert to war production. This was difficult at first. Most firms had geared their production schedules to the slow economy of the Depression. This soon changed. Factories
expanded and doubled their shifts as war contracts poured in. Every industry prepared for war, America became the "arsenal of democracy." 62

Young men between twenty-one and thirty-six began to be drafted into the Armed Services in November, 1940. This was the first peacetime draft. While cities and states created civilian defense organizations, Americans began saving scrap metal. They were also instructed on how to protect themselves and their communities in the event of an enemy attack. The war still seemed far away, and many Americans wondered why these measures were being taken. By late 1941, America was well prepared for war with Europe, but the attack came from an Asian enemy.

Japanese military leaders planned to destroy America's Pacific fleet anchored at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, to prevent interference in their conquest of Asia and the Pacific. On December 7, 1941, the first wave of Japanese planes struck American ships anchored in the harbor.

The blow was devastating! Eight battle ships were sunk or badly damaged, 188 American aircraft destroyed, 2,403 people killed and countless people wounded. 63

Americans were shocked and enraged by the attack. Congress declared war on Japan on December 8. Three days later, Germany and Italy, Japan's allies, declared war on the United States. Peace had exploded into war.

When the schools across this nation closed on Friday,
December 5, they had many purposes and they followed many roads to achieve these ends. But, when the schools opened on Monday, December 8, they had one dominant purpose - complete, intelligent and enthusiastic cooperation in the war effort.\textsuperscript{64}

The Chicago Public School system, criticized by business and community leaders and victimized with financial problems, would rise to the cause.
CHAPTER I ENDNOTES


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5. Ibid., 2.
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A World Gone Mad - Chicago Marches Off To War

The "phony" war had ended. Talk of isolationism, fascism, quandaries over a slow recovery, the depression and concerns about Europe's economic, social and political problems came to a head.

The time for discussions, arguments and opinions about the war in Europe had passed. The American way of life was being threatened by the war raging in Europe because of the ideological thinking of the invaders. It was a clash of ideas - totalitarian versus democratic. There was a widespread realization that what was taking place in the Pacific and Europe was a direct challenge to democratic beliefs and institutions. The United States was now drawn into a conflict threatening democracy. Our nation's educators recognized that the supreme task of education was to direct its attention to the dissemination and appreciation concerning the meaning of democracy.¹ The citizens of Chicago answered the challenge to defend America's freedoms. Chicago's civic, cultural and community leaders gathered in unison to answer the call.

The leaders of Chicago's schools strongly supported
their government. They believed that any opposition to the war to be treasonous. Not surprisingly, educator's sought to teach their students to act and believe as they did. The very existence of free schools depended upon this achievement.

The defense of democratic ideals, was indeed, one of the major preoccupations of educators across America. While the essential work of schools was "education as usual," this group of individuals felt that it was neither possible nor desirable to simply maintain the status quo. Although every activity in the schools was related in some way to the war effort, the Chicago Board of Education had to decide not only what was important, but what action to take first. Priorities had to be established among educational activities.

The child-centered, Chicago-style, educational philosophy was being threatened by the activities occurring worldwide. Due to this, the Chicago Public School system redoubled its efforts to foster citizenship, personal responsibility and achievement through administration, supervision and instructional programs, designed to enhance the democratic principles of civic and social action. The Chicago Board of Education looked to the Educational Policies Commission of the National Association for Elementary and Secondary Education for additional help in strengthening its system to meet instructional needs during
the war years. The Board recognized that curricular and instructive adaptations were required. Many aspects of education needed to be strengthened and extended. Very important peacetime aspects, curricular and co-curricular, were redirected or otherwise modified in order that the total expanded efforts of wartime education could be applied to the points of greatest need.4

Institutionalizing the State of War in the Schools

In February, 1942, two months after Pearl Harbor, the Commission attacked the problems which confronted the educational system in a pamphlet entitled, A War Policy for American Schools.5 The educational leaders of Chicago directed the efforts of the schools toward the following ten groups of activities:

- Training workers for war industries and services
- Producing goods and services needed for the war
- Conserving materials by prudent consumptions and salvage
- Helping to raise funds to finance the war
- Increasing effective man power by correcting deficiencies
- Promoting health and physical efficiency
- Protecting school children against war hazards
- Sustaining the morale of children
- Teaching the issues, aims, and programs of the war
- Maintaining intelligent loyalty to American democracy6
Each of these behaviors was given serious consideration. The Chicago Board of Education encouraged teachers, students and citizens in each neighborhood to participate in these activities. They felt that each Chicagoan should be "informed of the local programs and policies on matters in which they are, or may learn to be, competent."\textsuperscript{7}

**Preparing for Total War**

Long before the war, the Chicago Public Schools were busy stressing the American principles of good citizenship and the democratic way of life. In a report to the Board of Education, Superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools, William H. Johnson, stated that "the schools are prepared to share responsibility and guidance in building and preserving our great nation, and insuring the future of the young people entrusted to our care."\textsuperscript{8} In essence, the school system had rededicated itself to the task of defending America's freedoms, for the victory and peace that followed. The high energy and interest levels of the students were overwhelming. The schools used these forces to help the students adjust their social and personal life skills to serve the war aims and the needs of the nation. Because of the conflict engulfing the world, the Chicago school children were exposed to new academic interests and topics. Besides studying the core curriculum, the word 'defense' had an ominous meaning. The students soon learned that to study for 'defense' meant studying for total war.
In school, the students constructed thousands of model airplanes which the Navy used to teach aircraft identification to recruits. At home, the students became very familiar with the industrial world, due to family members working in the defense plants and other war related work sites. Some of these sites where the Dodge-Chicago complex on South Cicero Avenue, the Chicago Roller Skate Company which turned out nose sections of bombers and the manufacturer of Radio Flyer wagons which modified its stamping machines to fashion five-gallon gasoline "blitz cans." Many of the students knew the economic situation facing each household. The family income was balanced between funds for the home and funds for the war. There was a liaison between the lessons learned at home about the war and those being taught at school.

National Defense Training

Although World War II is justifiably remembered for its battlefield and shipboard heroism, it was also a research experience, a scientific victory, and a technological boom of enormous proportions. Many individuals were needed to produce the variety of complex war goods manufactured in Chicago. Engineering know-how was useless without a core of skilled workers to make the detailed drawings, create the tools, run the machines and pack and ship the goods. A nationwide program for training war production workers was financed by the federal government. This cornerstone of
re-training adults was carried on locally in the Chicago
public School system. 11

Months before Pearl Harbor, the machinery necessary for
the re-training of workers for the war plants was operating
efficiently in the Chicago Public Schools. Thus, increasing
the number of trainees required very little adjustment.
Eleven high school buildings and numerous pieces of
equipment were placed at the disposal of government
agencies. These programs operated without interfering with
the regular day high school program. The hours of operation
started at the close of the school day and continued, in one
instance, at Tilden, to 6:30 A.M. the following morning.
The majority of classes, though, ended by 10:30 P.M. The
high schools that participated included: Lane, Schurz and
Washburne on the north; Austin, Crane and Harrison on the
west; and Chicago Vocational, Dunbar Vocational, Englewood,
Lindblom and Tilden on the south. 12 In addition, the
following elementary schools - Bancroft, Burr and Spry -
were used by various U.S. government agencies to teach
communication and radar skills to civil service employees.
The result proved to be the largest and most intensive
technical education effort in America, as well as, Chicago’s
history. 13 The school system shifted to an around-the-
clock, seven-day-week production schedule. The war created
an enormous demand for technical, secretarial, skilled
workmen, craftsmen, journeymen and clerical workers.
During 1941, approximately sixty percent of these trainees came from the Works Progress Administration Program (W.P.A.) and forty percent of the workers were from the United States Employment Service. One major change imposed by the war was the gradual closing out of the W.P.A. This program, initiated during the Depression, conducted a broad program of public works and community services. The administration had a range of objectives in relationship to the W.P.A. which included: providing relief for the unemployed by creating federally funded jobs, stimulating the economy, restoring hope that the possibility of work existed, and setting up many projects, ranging from construction to the arts. Much of the work focused in the field of public works and construction. Railroads, libraries, playgrounds and storage dams were just a few of the projects completed by this program. The W.P.A. also sponsored many cultural activities including art, theater, music and writing projects. But as wartime jobs opened up, the W.P.A. experienced an abrupt decline in membership, losing two-thirds of its clientele by 1942, a year after Pearl Harbor. By January, 1943, approximately 68,000 trainees had completed the classes and were prepared for employment. Those enrolled in the program learned office procedures, blueprint reading, radio, radar, and aircraft construction, shipbuilding, culinary skills, nursing and basic machinist skills. Because of its success, the program
was then expanded to provide classes for various industrial plants throughout the city.

It was customary to encourage industrial firms to avail themselves of the school facilities for training purposes. In some instances, because of the complexity of the product, it became advisable to carry on specific training for groups in the plants, where the trainees worked. In many situations, instruments identified as 'classified' were being built. Thus, training was given on site, by using private manufacturing equipment.\textsuperscript{17}

During the fall of 1942 it became evident, that in order to meet the demands of the industrial program, large numbers of women, would replace men entering the military service, in the industrial work force. By the end of the war, thousands of women had completed training provided by the Chicago Public Schools' national defense classes.\textsuperscript{18}

Some of the companies to use the services of the Chicago Public Schools for training during the war included - the Pullman Co., Johnson Fare Box Co., Union Special Machine Co., Jensen Radio Co., Quality Hardware Co., Electro Manufacturing Co., Linn Manufacturing Co., Rock-Ola, Bendix Corp., Osborn Glove Co., Belmont Radio Co., Stewart-Warner, and Signoid Steel. By July 1, 1943, three years after the inception of the program in Chicago, over 97,000 persons had been prepared for employment.\textsuperscript{19} These federally financed programs of vocational training saw the
ranks of the unemployed dwindle during the forty-four months of the war. Just as the Chicago Public Schools assisted with the training of workers for the war plants, the system also aided with food production.

**Victory Gardens**

Scarcity of certain vegetables due to shipping difficulties caused by the war and the need of increasing amounts of all foods for the armed forces, stimulated the planting of victory gardens.²⁰

The gardens were located in various sections of the city. Plantings could be found in vacant school lands, on grounds not seeded for lawns and those not cindered for playgrounds.²¹ Whole neighborhoods took part in caring for them. Free permits were issued from the Chicago Board of Education to cultivate school lands not previously taken on the basis of first come, first served. The Board also renewed permits to individuals who had established such gardens. By 1943, 2,107 applications for permits had been requested by Chicagoans covering six million square feet, or about 1,200 acres.²² The Chicago Park District also permitted elementary students to use plots of land in public parks. Throughout the parks there were 14,000 school gardens.²³ The school system recognized the need to get students involved in activities. In the summer of 1942, more than three thousand students over the age of sixteen registered for summer work on farms. In keeping with the
theory of 'life adjustment education,' educators felt gardening was a way of intertwining a hobby with science, biology and chemistry. The concept of the school garden as a home garden fell into this idea.

Together with their science teachers, the students carefully studied the selection of seeds, prepared the soil, discussed the best methods of planting, fertilizing, cultivating and watering of plants. Through this activity the students expanded their study of plant growth, chemistry of the soil and the elimination of weeds and pests. Not only did the students raise vegetables in these victory gardens, thus assisting in a utilitarian war project, but many beautiful flowers were grown as well.\textsuperscript{24}

Further, the planting of victory gardens created more interest than ever in the plant world. The importance of evergreen trees in war industries and the use of plywood for planes and boats became very apparent. Plants, from which milk can be extracted to replace the latex from rubber trees, and those which were useful in the production of rayon, cotton, and vegetable oils were looked upon with new interest.\textsuperscript{25}

The vigorous interest of the students in their gardens soon reflected the many neighborhood victory gardens. Parents and friends were inspired by the pupil's gardening skills. They joined them in creating more productive gardens thus raising many healthy vegetables and fruits.
On a historical note, amateur gardening was not new to Chicago. During the late 1800s, settlement houses and charity workers had encouraged the needy to cultivate vacant plots in crowded slum neighborhoods. The raising of fruits and vegetables occupied idle time, gave a sense of self-worth and provided a measure of self-sustenance that reduced dependence on welfare.  Also, in addition, during World War II many 'victory gardens' were cared for by individuals who did not want to stand in line for fresh produce.

Victory gardening succeeded for several reasons. This activity adapted itself to the many diverse neighborhoods and lifestyles throughout Chicago. Many communities came together to work on this project. Some even put up stands to sell their excess produce. Pamphlets distributed by the Office of Civil Defense listed where gardens should be planted, based on the size of the plot and the amount of sulphur in the air. It also suggested the crops which would best prosper in the city, basically those of the underground root variety.

By the end of 1944, the interest in victory gardening in the neighborhoods had declined. However, the students in the Chicago Public Schools continued to plant seeds for vegetable harvest and flowering plants as school projects. These activities were a means by which the schools helped with the production of food for our country during the war. As busy as the schools seemed to be with this activity, they
became equally involved with another. Because many of the women entering the work force needed assistance with caring for their school-aged children, the Chicago Public Schools opened centers for these children.

**War-Time Child Care Programs**

The war impacted on the role and status of women throughout this nation. Many women not only ran their households during the war years, but also assisted in the national defense effort. These employment opportunities affected the traditional manner in which many young children were being raised. With the liquidating of the Work Projects Administration Program, Federal funds under the Lanham Act became available to the Chicago Board of Education for the War-Time Child Care Program. It was composed of two divisions - Nursery Schools and School-Age Groups.²⁷

In December, 1942, a survey was sent to all elementary schools. The Board was interested in locating the areas of the city that needed nursery care for young children. In this survey over 16,200 children of employed mothers were listed as needing care: 3,600 from ages two to five and 12,600 aged six to thirteen.²⁸ This study was a joint venture between the Child Care Committee of the local Office of Civilian Defense and the Board of Education.

Through contacts with various agencies across the city, the Board was able to gather information regarding the work
sites that had war contracts and then indicate the number of personnel at the plant who would need the services of a nursery school and/or extended services for school-aged children. The aim of the Board was to provide day care for the small children of working mothers and afternoon recreational programs for their older children.

In February, 1943, the Board of Education submitted an application to the Federal Works Agency, War Public Services, for federal funds appropriated under the Lanham Act for community services. The funds requested were to provide for thirty-eight nursery school units, averaging forty children each, in eighteen locations, for six days a week, for ten to fourteen hours a day. By May, 1943, ten locations had been operating.

The nursery centers were intended to free mothers for wartime employment, enabling them to pursue their tasks without unnecessary worry regarding their children, thus reducing absenteeism. The program also promoted the mental welfare of the children, ages two to six, through supervision of play, rest, diet and hygiene.

The local elementary school also helped in the care of young children. Some principals had reported that girls' clubs had taken on the project of acting as mother's helpers to assist out-of-school care of children in large families or in homes where mothers were engaged in war work. Money earned from this activity was usually invested in war saving
The School-Age Group Programs started in August, 1943. The students were supervised before and after regular school hours each day, all day Saturday and on school holidays. By December, 1943, there were ten programs in operation throughout the city. Many working mothers were extremely grateful for this assistance. These programs continued until the end of the war. This program helped demonstrate another way in which the Chicago Public Schools helped in the war effort. As the war continued, and the work force increased, many factories found they needed raw material to manufacture these war-related items. As the need for these goods were requested, the Chicago Public Schools answered this call. Scrap drives were started in the schools to help with this deficiency.

Scrap and Salvage Drive

On May 20, 1941, President Roosevelt established the Office of Civilian Defense (O.C.D.). The O.C.D. stressed conservation of property and materials. One of its major urban areas was Chicago. Mayor Edward J. Kelly, who had assumed the local leadership role of O.C.D., had already created the Chicago Commission on National Defense to carry out several tasks, one being the collecting of scrap aluminum and salvage. The school children throughout the city joined their parents and neighbors in collecting salvage.
This was a home and school affair. At home, the children listened to radio talks given by Mayor Kelly and Superintendent William H. Johnson. In school, assemblies were held giving further information on the campaign. The students were further rallied by speeches given by classmates and colorful posters displayed throughout the schools. The children collected paper, tin, rubber, radios and other scrap material. More than one hundred thousand pounds of scrap metal were collected in the first week of the drive. The students searched everywhere - attics, basements, garages and open fields. They considered nothing too large to tackle. Big steel boilers, furnaces, old autos, and trucks, stoves, refrigerators, safes, cabinets, steel beams, bath tubs, bird cages, baby carriages and bed springs were happily piled up in the school yards. Discarded scrap was brought to school by hand, in toy wagons, in wheelbarrows, in family cars and even in trucks. The Student Council of each school planned and carried out the drive under the direction of teachers, the principal and the engineer. The school employees supervised salvage depots, as the drive continued and the piles of salvage grew. Neighbors made daily requests for children to pick up scrap which had been collected by residents. The progress and success of the campaign brought press photographers to the schools to take pictures and reporters to interview the young scrap collectors. Each day the newspapers would
print the amount of scrap collected by each school. This city-wide contest was an added incentive to work harder, to collect more.

In the special schools, many of the handicapped students participated in the salvage drive as well. Although these students did not attend a neighborhood school, they collected their material from the homes and businesses in the communities of the schools they attended. In one school, the bulk of the scrap was brought in by streetcar.\(^{35}\) The students of Chicago not only collected salvage material from their homes, they also looked closely at their schools for material for the war effort.

In the high schools, the students enrolled in home economics classes found additional material to contribute. They made certain that cooking fats were used in every possible way for food, before they were taken to the butcher for waste. These fats collected were precious material used for dynamite. Many of the old pots, pans and utensils found in the classrooms were added to the salvage drive and sent to the steel mills.

The Library at the Board of Education sponsored the Victory Book Campaign. They joined the efforts of the U.S.O., the American Red Cross and the American Library Association. The books collected were both new and old. They ranged from mystery stories to books on travel and sports, arts and crafts, and even books on poetry. The bulk
of the books were sent to the Chicago Servicemen’s Center and to Camp Forrest, TN. Many of the personnel at Camp Forrest were Chicago boys.

Every feature of the campaign to salvage and conserve material was a success! About 1,500,000 pounds of scrap were collected, including seven tons of keys. More than one thousand radios were collected and sent to army headquarters for use by service men stationed in Chicago. Approximately 55,389 books and tons of magazines were collected by the students. In all, the public elementary school children of Chicago collected 4,500,700 pounds of scrap metal, for which they received $14,900.00. High school students piled up 2,001,000 pounds, which yielded $7,442.00. These funds were added to the total monies collected to help finance the war.

**War Bonds and Saving Stamps**

The success of the scrap collection drive went hand-in-hand with another activity in the public schools, the selling of war bonds and saving stamps. Defense saving stamps and bonds provided another valuable opportunity for the students to contribute to the defense of the war. The children were encouraged to earn money to purchase defense saving stamps and then convert the stamps into war bonds. One day of each week was set aside as "Stamp Day." The principal would purchase the saving stamps at the local post office or bank. Each week the sale of stamps was reported
to the central office. The cost of saving stamps varied. They were sold in values of ten, twenty-five and fifty cents, one dollar and five dollars. The stamps were saved in albums until the saver had enough to purchase a war bond. The bonds cost $18.75, $37.00 and $75.00 each. These bonds were known as series E bonds. They were for the small investor.

The schools wanted to promote national unity. They felt the saving of money for war bonds was a good way to achieve this goal. There were three purposes to this activity: (1) to raise money for the defense of the country; (2) to buy personal security for the future; and (3) to divert extra earnings from the purchase of non-essential consumer goods. One of the larger high schools in Chicago purchased enough bonds to have a bomber named for them. The schools found many ways in which to award and promote the sale of these stamps and bonds.

Several schools participated in poster contests. The prizes awarded were war stamps. In another school, the subject of war stamps was related to the social studies lesson. Through round-table discussions, assemblies and plays, reasons were stated for buying and saving stamps and bonds. The classes discussed ways to earn money, plans for saving now and spending after the war, quiz programs, map making and reading, analyzing character traits found in good citizens during wartime, understanding current news reports
and interpreting statistical tables, charts, and graphs regarding war costs.\textsuperscript{40} Other subjects also helped in raising money for stamps.

The mathematics teacher urged the sale of stamps and bonds by teaching budgeting and saving. Many used graphs and charts as visual aids. The English teachers used the subject of stamp collecting for oral and written compositions. In the art rooms, the students expressed their thoughts on this subject by painting original and interesting posters, which were then hung throughout the school. The music classes often demonstrated at assembly programs the importance of everyone participating in the buying of war stamps and bonds. However, in the primary classrooms, it was difficult to explain to the younger students the importance of this activity.

The spirit of giving, without receiving an immediate tangible in return, was hard to explain to them. To stimulate the purchase of war stamps and bonds, stories were told of the privations and bravery of children in war-torn countries.\textsuperscript{41} These youngsters soon understood why everyone was conserving food, clothing and other materials, to purchase the stamps. The posters, slogans, verses and jingles created by the students renewed the appeal in the weekly sales of stamps. By December, 1942, the amount collected for bonds was $7,200,700.00 and the amount collected for stamps was $2,650,600.00.\textsuperscript{42} These figures
represented the stamps and war bonds purchased by the students in the Chicago Public Schools and the residents that lived in the schools’ community.

An impressive war bond barometer was established in the Builders Building, the then headquarters of the Commissions Exchange Building, in downtown Chicago. Several departments from the Washburne Trade school contributed to the making of this patriotic display. This exhibit indicated the total amount of bond purchases of all Board of Education employees, teachers and students. By, 1943, over 13.5 million dollars had been collected. The Chicago Public School system had certainly done its share in supporting the war.

Through their sacrifices and efforts in the sale of war saving stamps and bonds, the children in the Chicago Public Schools developed many desirable traits. This campaign also taught them co-operation and the value of thrift. Many Chicagoans also realized that this saving plan would benefit them in the future. The defense savings stamps and bonds campaign offered an excellent opportunity for a meaningful study of government finance, of inflation, of the effect of savings in reducing the severity of post-war depression and of the war in terms of its demands on the total economy and on each individual. The war also brought to light the many educational deficiencies that were identified by the Department of Selective Service. The government also
requested school data on individuals who were being considered for leadership roles in the various branches of the service.

**Educational Deficiencies and Mental Fitness**

When William H. Johnson was selected in 1935, as General Superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools, he stressed the need for every student who graduated from the Chicago Public School system to be ready academically, mentally and physically for employment. Numerous students who could not function in the regular classroom were given special help. However, not every student remained in school and those that did had a high rate of truancy, resulting in a reduced opportunity to gain a well-rounded education.

When the war started, many adults and older youths hastened to join the armed forces. Some were found to be deficient, not only in the area of academics, but they also lacked physical durability and emotional/mental stability. Conversely, many inductees, who graduated from the Chicago Public School system were sought for training to hold a commission in the armed services. The findings, both negative and positive, were discovered when the Selective Service administered entrance exams. Other concerns were noted when individuals applied for work in the various companies hiring for war production work. Attention was given to these concerns by the Chicago Public School system.
Many of the men who were rejected for military service were found to test below a fourth-grade level. Men and women who applied for work in the war industries also lacked the basic literacy needed to be an efficient worker. It was felt that the school system could contribute to the military preparation by fostering intellectual development through general education, by providing health and physical education with periodic health examinations, by emphasizing training in basic military skills, and by inculcating abiding loyalties to American ideals.\textsuperscript{45} Thus, every resource in education was used for the defense of democracy. One department which greatly assisted the government in providing information on former students from the Chicago Public School system was the Bureau of Child Study.

Many inquiries were sent to the Bureau of Child Study and the High School Adjustment Service Department, by Red Cross representatives working for the Navy or the Army. These agencies requested information either to follow up on the family needs of men who were in the service or to give assistance to former students who may have been discharged from war service for physical or mental health reasons. In many other instances, the person being investigated was in line for promotion to a classified rank in the military service. School records and the pupil's autobiography had in many cases furnished the missing information without which the promotion could not have been made.\textsuperscript{46}
Investigators from governmental and Red Cross agencies commented favorably on the unusual adequacy of the data in all of the schools and in the central office. They remarked that nowhere did they find a type of organization which made available the amount of comprehensive information that was furnished by the Chicago Adjustment Service Plan. In some cases men who were cognitively disabled had inadvertently violated Army regulations which were beyond their understanding. The Bureau of Child Study assisted their families in explaining their incompetent behavior to the military authorities. Some of the men were sent home, while others were assigned to less complicated duties. Another area of concern identified during the war, was that of the physical well-being of the students.

Health and Physical Efficiency

In November, 1941, the Educational Policies Commission issued a pamphlet on Education and the Morale of a Free People. This publication advised the schools to strengthen their health, safety and physical examination programs. Thorough physical examinations, with systematic and vigorous follow-ups to secure the correction of remedial defects, were to be given to all children entering school, and at intervals of two or three years thereafter. It was felt that this was especially true of the high school aged student who was preparing to enter the service.

In February, 1942, teachers of health and physical
education took courses in first aid. Upon completion of this special fifteen week, teacher-training course, a standard first aid course was given by these teachers to the faculties of their own schools. In addition, the standard Red Cross course was given to high school students. Many of these specially trained individuals accepted assignments to teach the standard Red Cross course for the Office of Civilian Defense and other community organizations. Over three hundred teachers of physical and health education were trained as teachers of teachers in first aid, and over 3,700 Chicago teachers in other fields were qualified as "first aiders."49 Another health area that the Board of Education dealt with, was that of dental care.

The elementary schools were the first to have such programs. As this program extended itself to the high schools, senior classes were the first to be examined. As the war continued, all of the boys in membership in each school were carefully examined. Through this program, each student was instructed to secure dental work-up, either through local or family dentists. Boys who could not afford this expense, were cared for in one of seventy clinics which the Dental Service Project, in cooperation with the W.P.A. and the Chicago Board of Health, provided. The Board of Education also had dental clinics. These war-time rehabilitation health programs examined more than 50,000 high school boys.50 Another healthfulness program
initiated by the Board, taught children the importance of being clean. Many of these programs were located in schools for the underprivileged.

Civil service bathroom attendants were assigned to 110 schools to help supervise and instruct the students in body cleanliness. The students were taught how to take a shower and use bathroom equipment. From September, 1941, to December, 1942, over 1,215,000 full baths, 391,000 partial baths assisted by the bathroom attendants, and 1,025,000 partial baths unassisted by the attendants were given in the elementary schools.\textsuperscript{51} Rashes appearing on the body, skin and scalp were carefully watched. Any type of communicable ailment would prevent a young boy from being accepted into the service. Other health related problems that caused many young men to fail the service medical entrance exam were poor hearing or failed sight. Through the assistance of the Works Project Administration this health concern was abated.

Vision and hearing records were kept on all children attending the Chicago Public Schools. Surveys were kept of more than 1,000,000 vision tests and 50,000 hearing exams. More than 40,000 children received help to correct a vision problem and numerous students received treatment or special consideration in the classroom to compensate for defects in hearing.\textsuperscript{52} The Board felt it was necessary to keep the students as healthy and physically fit as possible. It was felt that to win the war everyone had to be of sound mind
and healthy body. As the war continued, Chicagoans feared a possible attack by the enemy. The threat of an air raid on city, was on the minds of many individuals. To avoid panic and disarray, a survey course in General Civilian Defense, was prepared by a committee of assistant and district superintendents in cooperation with the Office of Civilian Defense.

Protection from the Enemy

The course was designed to assist in the Civilian Defense Training Program of the Board of Education. Copies of the course were given to all teachers for the city-wide, teacher-training programs and to those civilian groups who attended evening school. The course included a description of the function of the United States Office of Civilian Defense and the structure and operation of civilian defense in the Chicago metropolitan area. The course was divided into two subject areas - protection and community services. The protection subject matter included discussion of blackouts, warning and spotting, fire defense, ambulance and first aid, auxiliary police, and transportation. Under community services, the teacher covered evacuation, hospitals, health, feeding and nutrition, housing, salvage, recreation, and the role of the Chicago schools in wartime. During the school day, the students took part in mock bombing raids.

The air raid drill afforded the students the
opportunity, twice a month, to display the qualities of good citizenship. From the time the drill was sounded, to the report of the all-clear signal, this very serious activity was acted upon with obedience. The student’s were alert to understanding and carrying out the teachers’ directions. Many of the upper grade students assisted the primary teachers in moving the younger students quietly, quickly and in an orderly fashion, to their assigned aid raid station. These exercises were rehearsed until they became as familiar as fire drills. The students learned that team work was very important to carry out this activity. They were constantly reminded that this simulated air raid drill might one day become a reality.

The schools tried to prepare the students for every type of attack, from without and from within. Protective programs also included plans for sustaining the morale of the students. The teacher, especially those in the elementary school, quashed ill-founded rumors about the war and the enemy. The Educational Policies Commission suggested that the principals and the teachers, who knew the children through close daily contacts, were best qualified to develop plans for morale-sustaining activities. Providing for the morale of students was just one objective being taught in many special education classes in the Chicago Public Schools.
Strengthening the Morale

The Commission suggested in one report that schools should train each special education student in skills and habits of work, promote feelings of self-confidence, emphasize ethical standards, and develop sentiments of comradeship among all social and economic groups and extend educational services to out-of-school youth and adults.55 Inspiring confidence and building self-esteem of the individual student had always been taught in special education classes in Chicago. It was felt by many educators that the teachers of these students were best qualified to instruct the regular education classroom teacher in securing the aims mentioned above. There were three objectives that the regular education classroom teacher needed to achieve.

First, it was felt that every good teacher needed to understand the student, not only in the school setting, but in the community. Many special education teachers made frequent visits to the home and became aware of the its changes because of the war. Next, every teacher needed to set a good example of composed fortitude, so as to offset any tendencies toward hopelessness and turmoil. Last, the war required extensive emotional adjustments. While no one teacher was expected to be an amateur psychiatrist, it was felt that their lifestyle should reflect moral ideals and values.56 These strong attributes of righteousness, exhibited by teachers, were examples for the students to
follow. In the schools, a patriotic atmosphere, aided in building morale.

Great pride was taken by the school children who had relatives serving in the armed forces. Many schools displayed service flags and plaques bearing the names of alumni fighting in the war. As the young graduates prepared to enter the service, many of them returned to visit their former schools and have their names inscribed on these honor roles. When the service personal returned on furlough, many went back to their schools to share their war experiences. Assemblies were staged and the students took pride in hearing first-hand about the war from one of their own. Through these activities of pride, the schools not only protected the ideals of American democracy, but also disseminated information about the war.

**Protecting Democracy Against War Hazards**

As the war continued, the schools doubled their efforts to instruct the students on why the government was waging such a fierce battle. Some of the literature distributed drew on our past history and our cultural heritage. The authors wanted to instill the fact that men can rule themselves and that the human mind can be trusted and should be set free. Textbooks and supplements used in the Chicago Public Schools were written to explain the problems regarding the war. The question of why many of our schools were now geared to train for civil defense, for war industry
or for the military service became vital for the students of Chicago. Many of these revised textbooks and materials could be found in every Chicago Public High School. One approved list, consisting of 102 books was, *Chicago List of Civilian War Effort Books and Pamphlets Recommended for High School Libraries*. This collection included maps and pamphlets ranging in subject matter from "Victory Gardens" to "Games for Yanks." High school libraries also made accessible official texts from government agencies. These brochures, banners and books gave information on all phases of the work regarding the four branches of the armed service. While maintaining a strong, aggressive program of teaching and practicing democracy, the schools had to guard against some hazards to democracy which were aggravated by war-time conditions. Chicago, being known as the 'melting pot' in the midwest for cultures, had to protect against cultural vandalism. This activity was evident on the south side of the city, in the Black community.

This group of people had lived there long before the Great Depression. They were not included in the recovery. Almost two-thirds of them were still on welfare at the beginning of the war. Many did not move from this section of the city. Thus, in December, 1941, nearly all of the Chicago Public Schools that held only half-day classes because of overcrowding were located in Black residential areas. Throughout the war, two other ethnic groups also
felt some of discrimination in the city's schools, those of Asian and German ancestry.

Although Chicago had few residents of Japanese ancestry, many other Asian people occupied the city. On the other hand, the city encompassed a large population of people whose ancestors immigrated from Germany to the United States and settled in Chicago. Few Chicagoan's during World War II doubted the loyalty of those of German-American descent. The schools prevented vandalism directed against the language, literature, music and art of these people. It was pointed out that much of the cultural representations found in books, had no relation to the present war. By highlighting the positive images of many of the ethnic groups found in the city, the students of Chicago's public schools also enhanced the pride they had in being Americans.

Loyalties to American Democracy

This moving force - the war - found almost every student pledging his/her loyalty to America. This feeling of pride outranked personal interests and united most classrooms for this common effort. War required a loyalty that was more than a mere emotion.

The public schools across the United States had many years in which to intensify and cultivate loyalty in the American people. This complex attribute was developed by the schools in various ways. The Educational Policies Commission explained this trait accordingly.
First, by promoting the best understanding of the nature of our American democracy, the ethical ideals which sustain it, the institutions through which it is applied, the privileges which it confers, the duties which it entails, the achievements it has made, and the problems which it must face.

Second, by providing an example of democracy in the actual operation of the schools, in the relationships among teachers, among students, between teachers and the administrators and between students and the teaching personnel.

Third, by providing, under skilled supervision, systematic and strongly motivated practices in actually living the ways of democracy in the schools and, as far as the school may exert its influence, in the community as well.

Fourth, by a judicious, sincere, and dignified use of symbolism, pageantry, and music to express those ideals which students had been taught to understand and practice.  

In Chicago, the public schools had many activities that alluded to Americanism. Every assembly from kindergarten through high school opened with a spoken pledge to the flag and the singing of the national anthem. Special days on the school calendar honored great American heroes - remembering the birthdays of Washington and Lincoln, honoring those who
lost their lives to defend the American way of life on Memorial Day and Armistice Day, added to the school calendar were celebrations recognizing Flag Day, Navy Day, American Indian Day, Pearl Harbor Day, Chicago Defense Day, Clean-Up Day, and Halloween-Conservation Day. Youth week was another activity that involved the community coming to school. For one week the parents and members of the community were invited to visit the school and enjoy several assemblies paying tribute to the work and activities the students were doing daily.

Other gatherings that honored America were the musical and choral arrangements and the invocations delivered during graduation ceremonies and those activities celebrating the anniversary of the founding of a school.

Several organizations combined membership during the war years to form the Victory Club. These very successful clubs, the Hobby, Know Chicago and the Civic Clubs fostered proper use of leisure time for the students of each school. The Victory Club promoted the right of free speech and suggested projects at which the members could work on. Some of their undertakings included obtaining a service flag to honor those alumni serving in the war, helping with various registrations held in the school, being errand messengers for their block captains and being the treasurer who kept the account of how many war stamps were sold in their school. In Chicago, every student was encouraged to
participate in student government, either actively or by representation.

Each Chicago Public School had a Student Council. Members consisted of club representatives and service officials, which included monitors, hallguards, honor guards, patrol boys and air raid wardens. The officers were nominated and elected by their peers. One qualification for office was a good scholastic record. The councils worked at collecting paper, scrap and metal for the salvage drive and assisting the school committees on the war bond and war stamp drive. The positive qualities developed while participating in these above mentioned activities reinforced loyalty to American democracy in the students.

Americanism was not a subject taught separately, during the Second World War, it was part of the curriculum that was nurtured, maintained and strengthened daily in the Chicago Public Schools. It was felt that every child attending the Chicago Public Schools had a right to contribute directly to the war effort and to understand his part in winning the war. The activities initiated early in the war needed to be intensified and continued. Greater participation was placed on such activities as buying war stamps and planting Victory Gardens. Emphasize was placed on learning how to give first aid, making model airplanes and teaching other children to identify planes and organizing a Salvage Club.

Children soon understood why there was a shortage of
fuel and certain food products. As the war continued, fewer school books and supplies were made available. They learned to do with what they had. Through these shared understandings the students participated more intelligently and more sincerely and grew in democratic living.\textsuperscript{64}

The Chicago Public Schools followed the conflict in Europe from its outset. They did their part on the home front willingly and well. They sold war bonds and stamps, conducted campaigns for salvaging and conserving materials, promoted victory gardens, organized a system of protection against air raids and rendered innumerable services to provide programs for the training of war production workers.

Just as the events of December 7-9, 1941, marked a turning point in American history, the educational policies needed to meet the war situation were, in the judgement of the Chicago Board of Education, to be the most critical matters to be concerned. This educational policy also involved developing a war geared curriculum. The objectives listed in this chapter would be combined to adapt a curriculum that would adhere to this policy.
CHAPTER II ENDNOTES


9. Percy Duis and Scott LaFrance, We’ve Got A Job To Do: Chicagoans and World War II (Chicago, IL: Chicago Historical Society, 1992), 82.

10. Ibid., 95.

11. Ibid., 82.


13. Duis and LaFrance, 82.


16. Ibid., 136.

17. Ibid., 137.
18. Ibid., 138.


22. Ibid., 25.

23. Ibid., 28.


25. Ibid., 72.


29. Ibid., 153.

30. Ibid., 154.


32. Ibid.


35. Ibid., 50.

36. Johnson, 50.


38. Ibid., 48.

41. Ibid., 42.
42. Ibid., 40.
44. Educational Policies Commission, 11.
45. Kandel, 17.
47. Ibid., 109.
50. Ibid., 99.
51. Ibid.
52. Ibid.
53. Ibid., 52.
54. Educational Policies Commission, 17.
56. Ibid., 58.
59. Duis and LaFrance, 53.
60. Ibid., 55.
62. Ibid.

In war, as well as in a time of peace, it is the responsibility of the public schools to serve the community and the nation. Their primary and continued concern is the education of youth. The role of the school is to enable each student to become a self-supporting, knowledgeable, law-abiding and patriotic citizen. To meet this obligation, the Chicago Board of Education had established, in 1936, an intensive, formative and comprehensive program of academic and vocational education. Dr. William H. Johnson, Superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools, developed this plan of study in cooperation with leaders in the fields of labor and industry.\(^1\) The curriculum and co-curriculum, studied between 1941-1945, in the Chicago Public Schools, reflected the many changes that took place in curriculum development in the United States since the late 1890s.

"Curriculum, according to W. Kenneth Richmond, is the entire program of the school's work. It is the essential means of education; it is everything that the students and the teachers do."\(^2\) It also entails the completed artifacts of curriculum (e.g., courses of study, units, lessons) and the process of local curriculum inquiry (e.g., study,
planning), decision making (by those affected by the
decisions), and development of the ideas and skills integral
to the focus of the curriculum effort. With this theory
in mind, many scholars and educators studied the American
way of life to try and develop subject matter to be taught
in school. Their effort to derive objectives from studies
of contemporary life grew more difficult with the greatly
increased body of knowledge which developed after the age of
science and the Industrial Revolution. Up to this time the
subject matter that was considered academically respectable
was sufficiently limited so that there was little problem in
selecting the elements of most importance from our cultural
heritage.

Between the transitional years of 1893-1918, the
country’s educational system taught a traditional
curriculum. It emphasized classical studies (Latin/Greek,
Arithmetic, Literature and Writing) for college bound
students. This focus dominated the elementary and secondary
scene. Many educators felt that the classics were difficult
and were thus the best source for intellectualizing and
developing mental abilities. It was theorized that the more
the students had to exercise their minds, the greater the
subject’s value. Thus, this perennial outlook stressed
traditional subject matter, mental discipline (the aim of
developing the mind, or its supposed faculties) and academic
achievements.
Influenced by the larger trends of society, more and more subjects were added to this classical curriculum. Because of calls for social and economic reform due to the muckraker-progressive movement, the period between World War I and World War II could be characterized by the rise and fall of Progressive Education. The educational aims of this progressive era and the curriculum during that period, reflected the growing child psychology movement and endorsed meeting the diverse needs of all students, providing a common ground for teaching, enhancing American ideas, and educating all citizens to function in a democratic society. 7

During the 1930s, the theory of Progressive Education dominated many a school curriculum. Progressive Education focused on the child as the learner, rather than on the subject being taught. It emphasized activities and experiences rather than verbal and literary skills; and it encouraged cooperative group learning activities, rather than competitive individualized lesson learning. 8 As the Depression years lingered, curriculum requirements centered partially on the many social problems that faced the family as a unit. The change in family structure saw an increase of juvenile delinquency. This problem would continue through the 1940s. The onset of World War II saw the family unit become even more fragmented. Many fathers were drafted; many mothers entered the work force. Although the
major thrust of Progressive Education waned in the 1940s, because of the shift in educational thought towards essentialism, the philosophy did leave its imprint on education.

Essentialism, a philosophy rooted in both realism and idealism surfaced during this time as a reaction against the theory of Progressive Education. It would surface again, during the Cold War and the Sputnik Era of the 1950s and 1960s. The principles of this theory were formulated by William Bagley of the Teachers College, Columbia University, and were further developed by Arthur Bestor and Admiral Hyman Rickover.

According to these essentialists, the school curriculum should be geared to the fundamentals or essentials: the three Rs at the elementary school level and five academic or essential subjects - that is English, Mathematics, Science, History and a Foreign Language - at the secondary level. The philosophy of essentialism is rooted in the teaching of 'essential' subjects and even in the classical curriculum. Co-curriculum subjects such as art, music, physical education, homemaking and vocational education were not part of essentialist philosophical foundations of education. Many educators who followed this philosophy indifferently approved a half credit of co-curricular electives when a student participated in one of the above mentioned subjects. Many school districts felt these subjects were more costly,
in terms of facilities, supplies and student-teacher ratios, than academic subjects.

Both perennialists and essentialists felt that all students, regardless of their abilities and interests, were to be offered the same common curriculum - intellectual in content - but with the quantity and rate adjusted to the capacity of the individual learner.\(^\text{10}\) A report by subject specialists known as the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies, a forerunner of essentialism, advocated a tough-minded, mental discipline approach to education. The objectives suggested by this committee had a most profound effect upon American secondary education for at least twenty-five years after its initial report of 1893. The committee identified nine academic subjects as central to the high school curriculum and recommended four different programs or tracks that the student could follow from ninth to twelfth grade. The Committee also ignored art, music, physical education and vocational education, subjects they regarded as contributing little to mental discipline.

Even though very few students during the time period of 1893–1918, went to on the higher education, this college preparatory program established a curriculum hierarchy, from elementary school to college, that promoted academics and ignored the majority of students, who were noncollege bound.\(^\text{11}\) The theory of essentialism was congruent with a 1918 report, "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education."
The aims cited in this report, emphasized that "education in a democracy, both within and without the school should develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideas, habits and powers whereby the individual will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society toward even nobler ends." However, it did not emphasize subject matter or mental vigor, both areas important to the Committee of Ten.

The Committee of Ten authors also noted that an increasing number of immigrant children had to be educated, socialized and provided with appropriate economic and civic skills. The great migration of immigrants who entered the United States in the early decades of the twentieth century experienced the call to literacy through the three Rs. Chicago saw its school population grow due to a large influx of families from eastern and southern Europe. Efforts by Progressive educators to provide a fuller and more complete curriculum for these children were attacked by conservative business leaders and others as an 'unnecessary' and 'frills' curriculum.

The early twentieth century was a period of educational ferment. Scientific methods of research, the influence of psychology, the child study movement, the idea of efficiency in industry and the muckraker-progressive movement in society all influenced education. From the late 1920s through the 1940s, a number of important books were
published on curriculum principles and processes; others emphasized techniques for helping curriculum committees develop foundations upon which they could develop their school's curriculum.

For instance, in 1930, the National Society for the Study of Education (N.S.S.E.) published its Twenty-sixth Yearbook in two parts, Curriculum-Making: Past and Present and The Foundations of Curriculum Making. The Committee consisted of twelve members, many being leaders in curriculum development. These individuals were mainly scientifically-oriented, progressively influenced educators.

In the first book, Curriculum-Making: Past and Present, the Committee sharply criticized traditional American education. The educators stated there was too much emphasis on subject matter and rote learning. They also examined the manner in which a subject was taught - dull and unimaginative. They stated that academic thinking underscored mental discipline. The Committee also felt there were indeed, three critical factors in the educative process: the child, contemporary American society, and standing between them, the school curriculum.15

Life in America at that time was viewed as two sequences running parallel to each other. One dealt with the fervor of land settlement, the progressive development taking place in commerce and industry and the ever-changing political scene. The second - education - dealt with
isolated incidents of practical and cultural life, focusing too much on the past. Because of the gaps between curriculum and child growth, the Committee felt a synthesis was needed to enhance curriculum development.\textsuperscript{16}

The second book, \textit{The Foundations of Curriculum Making}, dealt with the problem of curriculum in a fundamental way—not trying to determine what the content of the curriculum should be, but trying to determine how that content should be selected and assembled.\textsuperscript{17} The Committee described the scientific and technical level attained in curriculum making up to the 1920s. It also included a consensual statement by the group on the nature of curriculum making. The Committee recognized the need for curriculum reform. They listed nine characteristics of an ideal curriculum. This 'ideal curriculum,' is such, that one could use it to develop a curriculum for today's school population.

\textit{The Twenty-sixth Yearbook}, commissioned by N.S.S.E., represented a tremendous advance in clarifying problems that educators were having in developing a curriculum. It was a landmark text that greatly influenced many school districts. This plan was later part of "The Eight Year Study," launched by the Progressive Education Association, from 1932 to 1940.\textsuperscript{18} In 1949, Ralph Tyler later published \textit{Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction}. Much of this work stemmed from the principles and ideas generated by the 'Study' and the \textit{Twenty-sixth Yearbook} by the National
During the time period from, 1928 to 1936, the Chicago Public Schools followed a progressive/essentialist philosophy. William J. Bogan was the superintendent. He was a creative and highly respected leader among the teachers of Chicago. He taught in the depressed westside of the city; he also started Lane High School. Superintendent Bogan was a professional who was involved in teacher and community organizations. Upon his death, William H. Johnson was selected to succeed him.

Superintendent Johnson was an innovator. He used the radio to instruct. He encouraged teachers to publish textbooks. He introduced speech clinics into the Chicago Public Schools. He improved the reading program and instituted a remedial reading plan for low achievers. He was the first superintendent to introduce a Black History course of study in the schools. He felt it was important to meet the cultural needs of this rapidly growing student population. He developed a cumulative record keeping system which followed the child from his early years through high school. This record keeping arrangement was beneficial when the Armed Services requested pertinent information on the students. The file listed academic and conduct grades, plus results of psychological testing. He also encouraged the socialization of students through participation in school management, student council activities and school
assemblies. His foresight and background in curriculum development enabled the Chicago Public Schools to serve as centers of information and learning during the Second World War.

When the war broke out, Superintendent Johnson, with the cooperation of the Chicago Board of Education set forth a war-geared curriculum.

**War-Geared Curriculum**

The Chicago Public Schools contributed to the war effort and fostered intellectual development from kindergarten though the twelfth grade. The curriculum was modified and adapted when necessary. The schools provided health and physical education with periodic health examinations. The curriculum emphasized training in basic military skills and earnestly taught loyalties associated with American ideals. The teachers and staff felt that every resource of education should be used for the defense of democracy. A statement from a pamphlet issued by the Educational Policies Commission, Washington, D.C., entitled *Education and the Morale of a Free People*, best sums up the philosophy of the Chicago Public Schools during World War II. "The basic means for the development of morale in the United States, the only means that gives promise of success, the only means that is worthy of a free people, is the means of education."20

In January, 1943, the Commission issued another
pamphlet entitled, What the Schools Should Teach in Wartime. This publication, combined with the information listed in A War Policy for American Schools, set the ground work for the educational policies taught not only in the Chicago Public Schools, but around the country. Upon this foundation, the following curriculum was taught.

**Core Curriculum**

**Reading**

No educational activity of the school is as important as the subject of reading. It is the basis for all courses of study.

The Chicago Developmental Reading Program, an outgrowth of the Superintendent’s policies in the field of reading since 1936, stressed a continuous, systematic and coordinated effort on the part of all teachers and administrators to bring about a maximum reading ability in each child. To attain their goal, definite instructions in reading skills were given to all pupils. Proper study habits were initiated by identifying the important reasons to understand the meaning found in informational and factual reading material. The teacher also helped develop positive attitudes towards reading as a desirable leisure-time activity.

The term "developmental" was used in describing Chicago’s reading program because it expressed the modern point of view that the teaching of reading should be a
continuous process from the primary grades to college. Contemporary studies at that time indicated that the philosophy of giving instruction in reading for only grades one through six did not sufficiently prepare students to continue their education in the upper grades and through high school. Nor, did it insure that a student would develop a lifelong interest in reading. Therefore, the Chicago Public Schools felt that a continuous program of reading instruction was necessary to attain these goals.

Reading: Primary Level. In the primary classroom, the teacher emphasized "reading for meaning." This method was based on interests that were part of the everyday life of the child. The teacher integrated various activities such as discussion, observation, writing, singing and play-acting into her daily lessons to enhance the reading curriculum. For instance, the students developed comprehensive reading skills by answering multiple choice questions, matching words to definitions and completing sentences with newly learned vocabulary words. The student's knowledge of phonetic analysis often proved a valuable method in attacking the meaning of new words. A vocabulary of war words was taught by introducing pictures of insignias of the various branches of the armed services. These skills were applied throughout the school day to such subjects as - writing, spelling, social studies, science and art.

The war also influenced the subject matter that the
teacher presented in the classroom. The purpose of the curriculum used in the Chicago Public Schools during the war was to develop a patriotic American citizen. Through various reading activities American pride was inspired.

The system developed informational pamphlets. These leaflets pointed out the many ways the younger student could build character. These booklets were used as supplemental reading material. They taught the younger student the significance of saving money to purchase war stamps, the many ways they could gather metals and tins for the scrap drives and the importance of good behavior at home, so as not to put parent's through any unnecessary stress. They also taught the importance of staying healthy, so that nurses and doctors could treat the wounded soldiers returning from battle.

The students also gained knowledge about their country battling the enemy. One activity that was popular in the classroom had the students selecting a branch of the Armed Forces. The students would write stories about their branch of service and then read them to the class. Some of the students also drew pictures; others put on classroom plays to illustrate their stories.24

Throughout the war years, the teachers were very conscious of keeping an up beat, non-threatening, learning environment. Many of the students were fearful of the unknown. The war, being fought across both oceans, was
"unknown." Much hearsay and rumors about the war threatened the younger student. Group and individual discussion periods often centered on these rumors and fears.

The students were encouraged to talk about their fears. When a new word was introduced into the discussion, the teacher would write it on the chalkboard. This word was then added to the classroom's new vocabulary list. The lesson was reinforced by asking the students to go home and discuss these new words with their families. The student learned how important each family member is, and the role each played in winning the war.

The primary teacher's main job was to instill the basics of reading instruction in each student. Many educators felt this was a function that affected the students for the rest of their lives.

Reading: Upper Level. In grades four through eight, the "developmental" reading program continued. At this level, the reading program in the Chicago Public Schools had two phases: work-reading and literature. The schools established an effective program in which reading skills were progressively taught and desirable habits and attitudes toward reading were preserved and strengthened through literature and free reading activities.25

The Chicago Public Schools felt there was a definite distinction and purpose between these two types of reading programs. Because the objectives and materials appropriate
for teaching literature were different from those used in improving reading ability, the students quickly learned to discriminate between in-school and leisure-time reading activities. Hence, desirable reading attitudes were fostered when the students realized that the success they were having in the content subjects was determined largely by effectively using many of the study skills learned in the work-reading portion of class. However, while in free-reading or literature periods, their reactions and increased reading interests were more important than factual knowledge.  

The reading program used by the Chicago Public Schools in the upper level cycle allotted for an instructional period that focused on basic reading instruction. This program concentrated on the development of those reading abilities, skills and study habits necessary to the location, comprehension and information of content material. From time to time, a teacher would request a student read aloud. In this manner the teacher would listen to hear if a student had any problems with word recognition or difficulties of interpretation. At this grade level, the students were introduced to the dictionary. The teacher used this book for language arts activities dealing with vocabulary problems.

As in the primary level, the teacher used the skill of reading to enhance other subject areas. These activities
included the ability to read directions, to interpret various kinds of visual and graphic material and to improve a student's ability to get meaning from charts and graphs.

The teachers also used informational material in their work-reading programs. These instructional materials included work-type readers, special teacher-prepared materials, textbooks in the content subjects, current informational articles found in student's magazines and the daily newspapers. When the schools started their Victory Gardens, the teachers brought in seed catalogs, garden pamphlets, garden maps and bulletins all focusing on cultivating the Victory Garden. These gardens, planted in vacant city lots and on school property, helped the United States Department of Agriculture, so crops grown by farmers could go toward the war effort.

In the literature phase of the reading program, the teacher encouraged the students to develop a desirable attitude towards reading. It was also designed to increase a student's appreciation of our literacy heritage. The teacher scheduled free reading periods in the classroom. The aim was to have the student relax and enjoy reading. This activity was also done in the library which became an invaluable resource for literature/recreational reading.

The librarian taught the students various study habits. During library time the teacher-librarian would re-enforce the basic reading skills that the student's had learned in
the language arts classroom. Another member of the auxiliary staff to help the classroom teacher was the adjustment teacher. Her services were instrumental in making the program of reading instruction more effective.

The adjustment teacher would assist the classroom teacher in diagnosing an individual who had a reading disability. This special attention given by the adjustment teacher to the reading disabled student was of valuable help. Another way in which the system boosted the reading program during World War II, was to establish city-wide committees to evaluate objectives, methods and materials used in the reading program. In 1942, an administrative organization in the Chicago Public Schools met to unify the reading programs between the elementary schools and the high schools. They met co-operatively to study the reading programs used in schools.

In the elementary school, a "key reading" teacher served as the individual who undertook this assignment. This person served as a chairman of the group which tackled all problems involved in teaching reading. At the high school level, a committee was also formed consisting of one representative from each High School Subject Department. The head of the English Department was the Chair. This concept was further expanded to include reading councils in each of the Board's sub-districts. This important structure lasted until 1989, when budget cuts forced deletion.
Secondary Reading Programs

As in the primary and upper grade cycles, the high schools sought to increase the reading efficiency of each student. The instructional procedures for English course included vocabulary development, simple comprehension, higher mental processes and critical thinking or critical reading.\textsuperscript{28} The "developmental" reading program at the high school level continued the common objectives of improving and refining the reading abilities, study habits and reading interests of all students.

A definite time was provided to teach reading to all high school students. One period per week was set aside in English class in the first three years, and in United States history classes in the fourth year.\textsuperscript{29} The techniques of word recognition, content clues and phonetic analysis were some of the skills stressed in these classes.

As in the elementary school, the high school librarians assisted the students in broadening their interests in reading. The students became more skillful in locating information in reference books. This skill would prove to be useful in other content area subjects. This sound foundation of skills and habits established in the language arts area would carry over into other core curriculum subjects. One subject that became important during the war was that of modern foreign languages. It was felt that a proportion of the students leaving school have a mastery of
a foreign language. The students needed to read, write and speak a second language with a considerable degree of fluency.

**Foreign Languages**

During the Second World War, many members of the Armed Forces were placed in positions of responsibility that required another language other than English. Many lay people wanted the schools to stop the teaching of such languages as German and Italian. However, it was necessary to have a portion of the students learn these languages. The Armed Forces felt it was necessary to support the advancement of international studies/foreign languages in American education.³⁰ Conscious of their responsibilities to contribute to the war effort and to advance the studies of international languages, the teachers of foreign languages carried on a variety of productive activities.

The teachers designed their studies to make the students aware of their privileges and responsibilities as American citizens. Many contrasted this country's natural resources, its natural defenses, its industrial system, its system of free public education, its government and the standard of living with those of other nations whose language they were studying in high school.³¹

The teachers promoted the study and mastery of several languages. This interest was stimulated by the reports on the intensified methods of language instruction given to
selected personnel of the Armed Forces. It was felt that
the Armed Forces would need individuals with a mastery of
foreign languages in the postwar era to deal not only with
prisoners of war; but to serve in the government in a
foreign land, and to deal with the people in occupied areas.
This search for individuals with a mastery of foreign
languages threw a light on the inadequacy of the instruction
given in high schools, in languages such as French, German,
Spanish and Italian.

Over the years, because of competition for students in
a rapidly expanding list of subjects offered in high school,
interest in the study of languages declined. The
teachers in the Chicago Public Schools encouraged a few able
students of foreign languages to undertake the study of
Japanese, Portuguese, Chinese and Russian.

The foreign language teachers integrated the study of
language with various subjects to heighten their intensity.
They pointed out to their students, that some of the battles
being fought in northern Africa had previously seen numerous
military campaigns, starting from the times of the ancient
Romans. The students further compared the economic, social
and commercial problems found in city-states of ancient
times to the present.

The instructors of Spanish organized assemblies to
introduce the culture and life style of the countries of
Latin America. The French teachers emphasized the
continuous friendly relations that the United States has had with the bilingual country of Canada. These instructors felt that learning a foreign language was not only a means of communication, but a tool by which the individual could gain knowledge and understanding of the culture of the people of that country.

The instructors also felt that the teaching of some foreign languages should be limited to a very few who could proficiently master Japanese, Italian, Russian or German and use one of these languages to aid our country during the war. It was felt that utilizing a few qualified teachers to instruct students to master one or more of these modern languages was a tremendous contribution to the war effort. In this manner, other competent foreign language teachers could be released to teach other subjects, where shortages were being noticed. One area that saw a surge during the war was mathematics. Everyone involved in the war from the factory worker to the scientist, needed to understand math. As in the case of some of the foreign languages, only a select few students needed to be instructed at the advanced mathematical level.

Mathematics

Many of the failures and errors in the area of navigation, during the war, were due to the lack of basic knowledge in mathematics. This very important subject was also necessary in the Department of Fire Control and other
vital branches of the naval officer's profession. Math was also needed for logistics, manufacturing, ballistics and civil engineering. The areas of instruction of math that were found to be inadequate included fundamental operations, fractions, decimals, percentage and square root. Many students were deficient in accurately calculating these procedures. As in reading, the Chicago Public School system developed a math program to remedy the problem.

In the Chicago Arithmetic Program, attention focused largely on accuracy. To achieve this, the level of math taught at each grade more or less was commensurate with the student's ability to master it. In order to pinpoint the deficiencies of this program, the Chicago Arithmetic Survey Test was administered by the adjustment teacher. Upon completion of the test, a pupil's deficiencies were marked on the test sheets and remedial math work was presented. This course of math study continued up and through grades seven and eight. As in the reading program, the upper grades identified the math difficulties the students were having. The high school tried to focus on these deficient skills and developed math courses to help the high school student be successful at this level.

Mathematics in the high school classrooms of the Chicago Public Schools met the wartime challenge by stressing fundamentals. The teachers focused on explaining the practical applications of math. Problems and topics
drawn from the fields of aviation, navigation, mechanized warfare and industrial management were stressed. Some work with literal and negative numbers, intuitive geometry, simple equations, formulas commonly used in applied sciences and simple statistical and graphic procedures were included. Many students were motivated to learn these new skills. They enjoyed the challenge of working math problems which included direct application of these skills to war related activities. Whenever possible, procedures dealing with instruments related to the war were utilized. To help understand navigation problems, globes, maps, compasses and protractors were used. Various mathematical formulas were tried in computing forces dealing with the construction of wartime equipment - tanks, airplanes and ships. Graphs were studied to plot a ship's location, determine the outline of artillery fire and bombing of specified targets.

Advanced math classes in trigonometry worked on formulas in aviation and artillery. Some students became familiar with the sextant. They learned how this instrument measured angular distances of celestial bodies in determining latitude and longitude. During the war, a navigator of ships or airplanes needed to understand how to calculate drift, roll and speed to plot a course.

The slide ruler was another instrument used in the classroom. The mil system of angle measurement was
taught. The student learned the value of computing quickly and accurately with this device. The results helped engineers draft designs and military personnel to calculate artillery computations.

In solid geometry, the students studied the sphere, spherical angles and circle arcs. These skills helped the navigator to guide an airplane or ship. Other skills taught included map making and learning to read air maps - a map made up of a series of photographs taken from an aircraft. As the war continued, supplies of many of these instruments and devices used in these classrooms, were exhausted. The teachers encouraged the students to use hand-made instruments in solving math problems.

Three major objectives were taught in every math class: accuracy, speed and confidence. These important requisites along with hands-on experience helped the Chicago High School student to be well prepared for any wartime challenge.

A positive outcome of this type of 'hands on' program was the collaboration of various high school departments. The art department incorporated solid geometry models in its lessons. Instructors from the science department contributed their knowledge of such instruments as the sextant. The English department asked for a list of new math vocabulary words. Assemblies, along with classes in public speaking, integrated math and English. Another high
The Chicago Public Schools focused on science in several directions. Not only did they teach biology, chemistry and physics, but during the war years they introduced Victory Gardens, Air-Age Education and Pre-Induction Training. As discussed in Chapter II, elementary science classes held hobby shows to display the vegetables and flowers grown by the students in and around their schools. While the high school classes focused on two new subjects - Air-Age Education and Pre-Induction Training. As in mathematics, many similar principles applied also to science.

The war greatly influenced the subjects of biology, chemistry and medicine. The emphasis placed on the various instruments used in the war to increase food production heightened the interest of science in the classrooms. The classroom teacher had a wealth of materials to use in the science class to show the connection between schoolwork and
In discussing aviation, for instance, it was possible to demonstrate the importance of accuracy in reading and following instructions.

In the elementary schools, the teachers also correlated the subject of science with math and reading. It was a natural stimulant for library reading and research. One subject that interested some of the students was the topic of weather. They became familiar with some of the simpler weather instruments - the thermometer and barometer. The students would carefully check and record atmospheric conditions. While some took pride in being junior weathermen; others became interested in how weather would affect the flight of an airplane. These students took an interest in making and collecting model airplanes. Many started science related hobbies by collecting shells, rocks, leaves and butterflies.

Many elementary teachers led field trips in the community in order that students would learn to identify trees, weeds and flowers. Other field trips were planned to Chicago's many fine museums, conservatories and parks for seasonal activities to complete science projects started in the classroom. When possible, the students collected various plant specimens from the parks to take back to the classroom for further study.

Aside from developing and cultivating the Victory Garden plants, some students became interested in plants
that had parachute seeds, also known glider seeds. Their interest in such plants as those of the milkweed, dandelion, cottonwood and the elm tree fascinated them. They compared these seeds flying through the air to birds flying. Thus, paralleling the flight of a bird to that of the airplane. Many elementary school teachers then continued the science lesson by teaching the effects of flight at high altitudes on the human body. The students learned how the nervous system and the sensory organs needed to be in top physical shape to be able to pilot an airplane. Another science subject that now took on a new meaning was that of combustion/fire.

In the past, fire was taught as a method to warm the body and heat food. During the war, the students studied how fire played a role in the incendiary bomb and the conservation of fuel. It became a focal point for some assemblies. In one school, for example, the students traced the history of fire from the friction method used by primitive man, to the employment of fire in the defense factories, and then in warfare. At this level of their education, the elementary student learned the basics of science. At the high school level, the students learned to carry this interest to a higher degree.

In the Spring of 1942, coursework on the subject of Aeronautics was developed in two of Chicago’s Technical High Schools. In conjunction with this, Superintendent
Johnson held conferences during that summer with representatives from the Civil Aeronautics Administration, Washington, D.C. It was his intention to develop a program to present to the teachers of Chicago so they better understood the subject of Aviation and could include this subject in their science curriculum. At the beginning of the 1942-1943 school year, 5,000 Chicago Public School personnel heard from these representatives from Washington, D.C. on the importance of the Air-Age Education. The Chicago Public Schools would graduate many students who would enlist in the Navy or the Air Force. The implications of the subject was of utmost importance; as the course offered immediate practical benefits for those entering the war.

As a result of the meeting with the representatives from Washington, D.C., the era of Air Age Education was introduced to the Chicago Public Schools. Many of these courses, developed purposely for the war, enhanced the high school science curriculum. The subjects offered in Air-Age Education included - mathematics and physics of aviation, radio shop, aviation shop, theory, shop and code, navigation, meteorology, and civil aeronautics administration regulations. One of the activities offered in one of these courses was the building of scale model airplanes. Because many Chicago Public School students had an eye for detail the U.S. Government used
these scale models to train pilots and gunners. The city also used them to instruct individuals who volunteered to be civilian defense spotters. This activity also lead to an understanding of the fundamentals of aeronautics. Most of these accelerated science courses were electives; however, enrollment in them was strongly encouraged. To those students who were proficient in science, additional classes under the heading of Pre-Induction training were also offered.

The subject matter included fundamentals of electricity, foundations of shop work and preflight training. Foundations of shop work was offered to girls as an elective. Individuals interested in becoming radio operators, medical technicians, telephone and telegraph linemen, master mechanics and automotive mechanics enrolled in these classes. As the war continued, it was discovered that only a handful of inducted men possessed these specialized skills, therefore, the high schools across the United States were implored to teach this series of pre-induction courses. Technical manuals used by the Army were sent to many of the schools.

One of the most important subjects of this accelerated curriculum was preflight training. The war was dominated by the airplane. It was the dream of many a young student, to pilot a fighter jet. Many of these students were fascinated by the power a country could have by controlling air space
during this war. Thus, many of these students enrolled in Air-Age Education working towards the goal of becoming a pilot. The mastery of these subjects enabled many a young man to leave school and enter the service.

The city of Chicago was the first school system in which Air Corps screening tests were given to high school boys, aged sixteen to nineteen. It is estimated that more than three thousand students were tested. The results showed that the average Chicago High School senior possessed enough knowledge to pass the Army Air Cadet Tests given at the recruiting office. These students were excellent material for army flight training. Even though Air-Age Education courses were designed for the student who would enter the armed forces, many of the same high standards and objectives found in these advanced courses could also be found in the regular high school science curriculum.

The major objective in all high school science classes was to have the student understand the principles of science; understand the influences of the factors which served to protect the armed forces and the civilians, and helped defeat the enemy. Emphasis was placed on fundamental principles and functional information needed by the student who would enlist in the service. The areas of instruction included gases, preflight, meteorology, magnets, foods, electricity, chemicals, machines, emergency medical materials, conservation and other topics of importance.
The science teacher used textbooks, government books, publications, pamphlets, current literature and bulletins to further stimulate the student.

In the first two years of high school, the students studied conservation of food, medical needs and other various health issues. As with their elementary counterpart, they learned to conserve food by planting Victory Gardens. First Aid classes taught the students how to take better care of themselves and their families, should an emergency arise. They understood the importance of keeping in good health, as the doctors and nurses were needed for the war effort. They studied old and new diseases and the most common way to prevent germs and the spread of a disease. Because parts of the war were being fought in tropical climates, the students studied the dangers of the mosquito and the most effective ways to prevent and treat malaria.

In the field of physics, the students learned the basic principles of industrialized warfare. They studied different types of wartime machinery through varied media -- illustrations, sketches and demonstrations. The students learned the principles of control and stabilization of an airplane in flight. They were instructed how to determine the center of gravity. Many of the principles taught could also be applied to ships and tanks.

The subjects of math and science were integrated
whenever possible. In the high school science classroom, the student found himself needing a better understanding of formulas and theorems - when to use them and how to use them. Many students learned how to operate levers, gears, machines, guns, both Diesel and electric engines, submarine mechanism and operation, and electric motors vital in planes, ships, tanks and industrial machines.\textsuperscript{68} Most importantly the students learned the need to be accurate.

In chemistry, the students learned the properties, sources, production processes and various uses of metals in warfare and in the production of war materials.\textsuperscript{69} One of the most practical lessons taught was the proper handling, control and disposal of various types of bombs.

Between 1941 and 1945, the city of Chicago prepared its citizens for a possible attack by the enemy. The Office of Civil Defense (O.C.D.) organized neighborhood meetings. During the war the neighborhood was the backbone of the civilian war effort, linking the individual household and the citywide civilian defense program. Individuals who attended these meetings were instructed and informed on how to defend and keep themselves safe. Many high school chemistry students volunteered to present various lessons on fire, bomb protection and the control of related devices. They also explained explosives, their composition and how they were produced.\textsuperscript{70} On May 23, 1943, O.C.D. staged a mock bombing on the city. On this dark and rainy Saturday,
more than one hundred planes from the Illinois Civil Air
patrol dropped 210,000 newspaper 'bomb' wads. Each 'bomb'
had a color streamer that indicated the type of 'bomb' it
was supposed to represent. Although Chicago was never
bombed, the science information given by the students aided
the people in further understanding the war that was raging
overseas. It was another manner in which Chicagoans worked
together.

As motivated as many of these students were to study
science, they were equally excited with social studies. The
city was in daily contact with the rest of the world, via
newspapers and radios. Issues concerning the turmoil were
being discussed, acted upon and written. The Chicago Public
Schools responded greatly to the quickened pace at which the
war was being reported.

Social Studies

In the elementary schools, the curriculum focused on
studying the American way of life and how it should be
preserved. The teachers had the students discuss the rights
and privileges they enjoyed as American citizens. The
students were eager to learn more about the way our
government functions, how this country came to be and the
various individuals who make up this country. Many teachers
integrated the studying of History, Geography and Civics
into the subject of Social Studies. They incorporated
such tools as maps, globes and polar projection maps.
Because of the many countries involved in the war, atlases were being constantly changed. Air-Age Education was not only popular in science, but also in social studies.

A geographical name on a map became a place of real interest, for it was the spot where a father, brother, or cousin was serving in the armed forces. Students were able to read where our troops were flying to, where they were landing and the progression of the war around the world. Many students realized that they were seeing history made before their eyes. There was an intensified study of world news. They studied about our country's past to better understand the present situation. The world events covered by the press, via the footage on the movie screen and the reports over the radio, all added to the tools the teacher used in the social studies classroom. Articles relevant to the war were posted on the classroom bulletin board.

Because of the impact of the war, various sub-topics of the subject of social studies surfaced. The students learned that there is no place in society for pettiness and intolerance of race, religion or politics. The Chicago Public Schools in 1942, published a Course Study - Social Studies, devoted to the contributions of the American Negro to the cultural life of this nation. Although the Board of Education published this information on the African-American citizen, there was segregation in the city of Chicago. During the war many government regulations
changed, however, one did not, that being racial separation. The government stipulated that housing projects mirror the makeup of their neighborhoods. Depression-era Chicago public housing was overwhelmingly white, with African-Americans allowed only in the Brooks Homes (near west side) and a portion of the Jane Addams Homes. In addition, Altgeld Gardens, located on the southeast side, was set aside for African-Americans working in the Lake Calumet industries.

The war also provided new opportunities for African-Americans, sixty-five thousand of whom moved from the South to Chicago. Thus, Superintendent Johnson focused on this minority population that was entering the school system during the war.

From grades one through eight, the pupils of the Chicago Public Schools learned about the life in the community; life in the city of Chicago; life in the state of Illinois, with special emphasis on their relation to the United States. They also learned about the United States' role in world affairs. During the war years, special emphasis was placed on why the war was being fought -- for rights of the common man and to secure freedom and liberty for all nations. These values extended to the teaching of social studies at the secondary level.

In the high schools, the teachers stressed the importance of understanding the Bill of Rights and the
impact it had on the American way of life. A key objective in the curriculum was to provide comprehension of the deeper meaning of the constitutional principles. The teachers wanted the students to understand that everyone has a right to work, to fair play, to security, to live in a system of free enterprise; to free movement and free speech, to equality before the law, to an education, to rest, and to the right to adequate food, clothing, shelter and medical care. These objectives mirrored President Roosevelt's 'Four Freedoms Speech.'

Much discussion was given to the position that the Second World War must be fought to a successful end and that a fair peace be fashioned. The teachers discussed the reasons for these outcomes, using many approaches. They also wanted the students to develop an understanding and appreciation of the nation's growing adjustment to wartime demands. One demand that the war put on this country was how to finance it. This topic was of importance.

At this time, the nation was recovering from the most severe economic depression in its history. Many of the students and their parents were now experiencing a modest financial boon due to wartime economic recovery. The dangers of inflation and recession were discussed. Raw materials, processed materials, lend-lease commitments, army and navy operations and taxes all required complex governmental finance services, heretofore unknown. Thus,
the students studied how the government would finance the substantial cost of war materials. They quickly learned that it was not only a governmental task, but also a civilian duty. One way, in which the general public could help, was to purchase war saving stamps and bonds. They discussed the reasons why money should be invested in bonds instead of for material goods and services. The students also learned that much manpower was necessary to defeat the enemy and win the war. They soon understood the need for all eighteen-to-sixty-five year old men to register for the draft.82

The importance of radio as a means of communication was studied in many high school social studies rooms. The teachers assigned students to various committees to listen to the different commentaries that were given about the war. The students turned to such programs as the Town Hall Meetings and the University of Chicago Round Table.83 The students developed a strong interest in the better types of radio programs as a result of homework assignments and classroom evaluations of their findings.

As mentioned in Chapter II, high school students helped with the rationing programs. Many of the social studies classrooms alphabetized donor cards listing the various types of rationing material. Although the actual collection of material was not done in the classroom, the activity was discussed.84
Pan-Americanism

Separate from the war-related social studies curriculum was an emphasis on the study of Pan-Americanism. During his first term in office, President Roosevelt emphasized the importance of the "solidarity" of the Americas. His "good neighbor" policy toward Latin America, which included the signing of reciprocal trade agreements with many countries, greatly improved relations with the neighboring republics to the south. Many educators felt it was important for the students to continue to study the various cultures, histories, customs and ways of life of the other Americas.

To meet this challenge a committee was organized in the spring of 1941 to study Latin America. This committee was set up for the purpose of determining the procedure by which a greater appreciation and understanding of our American neighbors could be developed in the Chicago Public Schools.85

The committee felt the high school student would benefit from information on these countries by integrating the material into their current school curriculum. The committee approached the problems of considering the curriculum of each high school subject separately. For instance, in the English classes, the students would learn about the eminent poets, essayists and novelists of the other Americas.86 Such works done by authors such as Dariom, Nervo, Jorge Iassacs and Sarmiento would be
translated into English and enjoyed by Chicago's High School English students. In each core curriculum subject, information pertaining to subject matter about the other Americas would be introduced. In this manner the students would learn of the economic problems encountered by these people; understand how these countries protected their forests and other natural resources and became familiar with the outstanding music and art contributions of these countries.

This approach permitted the adapting of the curriculum to a progressive plan by studying various phases of life in the Americas. This was accomplished by presenting the material in several school bulletins. To enrich these lessons the committee urged the teachers to contact various agencies located throughout the city for more resource material.

Because of the ethnic diversity of the city, the students were able to visit many neighborhoods and partake in various cultural activities. The students visited tortilla factories, ethnic gift shops, restaurants, attended movies whose language was not English and went to cultural events put on by many of the ethnic councils.

The committee instructed the librarians to shelve books on Latin America. Histories, travel books, biographies, poetry collections and magazine articles were made ready for the students who wanted to further learn about our southern
The Dominican Republic, for example, sent the committee books on their country. Thus, every library in city's school system received two books - one on the history of that country and one on the accomplishments of its longtime dictator, Trujillo. Two other countries also sent literature and pamphlets - Mexico and Columbia.

In several of the high schools, the students wrote articles and published newsletters about the activities they were involved in. The issues included travel experiences to various Latin American countries by students and teachers; recipes; news items about some of the countries and even a joke column.

Many of the high schools prepared exhibits on the Latin American countries. Items on display included: costumes, woven baskets, silver, pottery, glassware, dolls and stamps.

During Pan-American week, many of the schools held assemblies. Unlike most assemblies staged in the schools, these had a bit of a different flare. Prominent educators were invited to speak to the student body, and foreign consulate members were invited to share their experiences of having lived in a Latin American country. Music groups and dance troupes were invited to exhibit their ethnic talents. As the war lingered on, this area of study was a welcomed diversity.
Business Classes

During the war, the armed forces, multiple government agencies and industries placed a heavy demand on the need for office workers. Thus, in many high schools, the curriculum had to be reprogrammed to meet this demand. Typewriting was the main subject that attracted the students to enroll in commercial classes.

The students not only learned how to type, but they also were taught to cut stencils, address envelopes and insert mail for various local campaign organizations. Many boys took this class so as to qualify for a typist and/or stenographer position in the armed forces.

Another business class that grew quickly in popularity during the war was accounting. The economic condition of the United States had changed. The Federal government promoted new methodology to better enable accounting for costs and production within the overall war effort. The student needed to understand the new war taxes, income taxes, social security and unemployment deductions withheld from his salary. Even though the textbooks utilized did not always keep pace with the changing laws and assessments, the teachers took initiative to keep the students and themselves abreast of these changes. Many classroom teachers used actual income tax forms to make the course more realistic.

In the clerical or office practice class, the student
did actual hands on office work. The sugar and gas ration cards were filed in these classes. Many were difficult to read as they were written in longhand. The arduous task of filing and sorting over three million sugar cards and over six hundred thousand gas cards provided the students with a valuable lesson in logistics. Their timely help saved thousands of dollars and man hours for the government.94

During this era, the Chicago Public Schools offered to incoming freshmen a class entitled, Elementary Business Training, as part of the commercial business sequence. This course taught the students the language of business. Many of the topics discussed dealt with war terms - budgeting, rationing, taxes, transportation restrictions, war bonds and saving stamps.95

As important as the above core subjects were to strengthen the students' mind to help fight the war. A group of co-curriculum subjects helped the students emotionally and physically, by lessening the stress felt by the war and by strengthening their bodies.

These subjects, although not part of the formal program of instruction, are related to and enhanced it.96 Many of the subjects reviewed here in this next section stimulated interests that were not satisfied by some of the core curriculum subjects. These co-curriculum subjects helped reinforce and expand interests that were related to the core curriculum. They provided opportunities and experiences for
developing friendships and social amenities. Participation in these subjects encouraged a social sense of unity among the students that reached beyond the walls of the classroom. Lastly, it has been noted that participation in these subjects, was a way in which the students learned various recreational and leisure activities that grew into hobbies later in their adult years. 97

Subjects such as Physical Education, Nutrition, Homemaking, Art and Music helped round out the war geared curriculum in the Chicago Public Schools.  

**Physical Education**

The Physical Education Department of the Chicago Public Schools formulated a war program that promoted better health and physical fitness among the students. The program had many phases and was developed under various headings. The goals set for each class focused on the development of strength, endurance, coordination of the body and physical skills. The student was being prepared not only for service in the armed forces, but also for postwar work. 98

In the elementary school, increased emphasis on the importance of physical fitness stimulated the boys and the girls to take a more active part in preparing themselves for war service. Additional periods of physical education were added to the weekly curriculum for students in grades five through eight. Safety lessons, fire drills, air raid drills and the work of the School Boy Safety Patrol were part of
the training. Some of the schools offered a course on health. Many students enrolled in the American Red Cross Junior First Aid Course. They used these emergency medical skills while participating in their zone and block civilian defense organizations.99

Intramural games were part of the elementary school physical education program. The classes were organized into squads and round-robin schedules were played to determine the class champion. The games were played during lunch hour or at the end of the school day. After each grade declared a champion, the students participated in intramurals to determine the champion of the school. Touch football and modified football were popular with the boys; volleyball and softball were popular with the girls.100 The heightened activities offered in the elementary school program, conformed to the physical education program offered at the high school level, but was modified according to the age groups involved.101

Prior to the war years, the high school students in the Chicago Public Schools had three periods of Physical and Health Education per week.102 Upon recommendations by the armed services, the amount of time increased to five periods for almost every high school student in the Chicago Public School.

The routine of the actual class-time activity was soon adjusted. The amount of time given to taking role,
showering, and changing clothes was shortened.\textsuperscript{103} It was felt that this extra amount of time, as small as it seems, would be better used as class learning time. Also, less time was spent on "frivolous" items, and more time could be devoted to actual participation in gym. Thus, the teachers revamped their class lessons so as to get the maximum participation from each student.

The high schools utilized the gymnasium and the outdoor sports areas to intensify the activities of each class. The teachers wanted to develop greater stamina, muscle strength and special skills. The aim of the program was to develop not only the muscles in the body, but develop the will to win. To achieve these goals various means of apparatus, tumbling and stunts, games rhythms and aquatics were employed.\textsuperscript{104}

Every physical education class started out with a lively run. The session continued with exercises based on those of the Victory Corps. Many of the students memorized these routines. They continued the exercise program for months on end. In some schools, the boys participated in ranger exercises and grass drills. They also were put through the paces of various obstacle courses, many patterned after those used in the training of the armed forces.\textsuperscript{105}

With the increase of time permitted for class, the physical education teacher was able to introduce various
types of apparatus and acrobatics to the students. The students were being prepared to meet any emergency by being able to climb ropes and poles, use the chin bar, and handle a vault pole. The armed forces felt these pieces of equipment developed endurance, dexterity and stamina. The acrobatics of tumbling taught the students quick and safe movements of the body - how to fall, jump and if necessary, carry another person to safety.  

The teacher's lesson plan included team spirited games - rugged and combative - but suited for all students. They wanted the students to develop the will to win. Although they encouraged competition in class, the teacher adhered to the rules and regulations governing each movement. They felt these activities were part of the American way of life. Some of these games included touch football, soccer, cageball, broncho tag, bull-dozing, obstacle relays and many others. The goal of these activities was to teach endurance and an instant reaction to overcome any obstacle or any opponent.  

Developing a skill in any activity is contingent upon timing and the ability to judge space relationships. As a skill improves, tedious and prolonged periods of involvement can be maintained if a pattern or a rhythm of work has been established. During the war, repetitious training of various activities became an effective way in which the Chicago Public Schools developed endurance and
strength in their physical education classes.

During the war years, there were forty public high schools in Chicago. Thirty-eight of them had standard size swimming pools. This allowed almost every high school student the opportunity to learn to swim not only the fundamental strokes such as side, breast and back, but to acquire other swimming abilities. The boys, as well as the girls, were taught to stay afloat for longer periods of time, swim under water, swim greater distances and enter the water without submerging. They were also instructed to help another person who might be in trouble in the water.

The program of boy's intramural sporting events was always a part of the Chicago Public Schools. However, during the war years this type of extra curricular activity intensified.

Many of the schools scheduled round robin programs in their buildings to get more boys involved. Intramurals were scheduled before, as well as after high school hours. This type of competition led to interscholastic games. Sports such as basketball, soccer, football and wrestling were included in the interscholastic schedule. The 1942 school year ended with an interleague charity football game played at Soldier Field between the champions of the Public and Catholic High Schools. The proceeds, collected from a crowd of 80,000, including representatives from the Army and Navy, were given to the Chicago Servicemen's Club.
Because of the intensity of the vigorous physical activities in the revamped physical education program, the lighter forms of sport, such as horseshoe, badminton, checkers and chess were not encouraged. Non-intramural clubs for hiking, bowling, bicycling, riding and skating also decreased in number and membership.

In conjunction with the Physical Education Program, the service also looked to the schools to develop leaders. In the latter part of 1940, the Chicago Public Schools were assigned enlisted men from the United States Army. These instructors taught the course, Reserve Officers Training Corps (R.O.T.C.). Interest in R.O.T.C. intensified in September, 1942, when the United States Congress discussed the selection of 18-year-old men under the Selective Service Act.

As stated in the Army Regulations Guide, the general object of instruction in this course was 'to qualify students for positions of leadership in the time of national emergency.' The course allowed a means for practical training in organizational leadership and discipline. Both of these attributes were necessary for an individual whether he entered a technical or professional career. By October 4, 1942, 11,000 boys from the Chicago Public Schools were enrolled in R.O.T.C.

Although many of the courses offered in the core curriculum changed to meet the needs of the war, this
program did not change. The course consisted of both practical and theoretical work. It involved drill practice and academic studies. Due to the rationing of some of their supplies, the cadets and instructors had to substitute some equipment.

By the Spring of 1942, the working rifles, used in drill practice, were withdrawn and replaced by wooden replicas. The supply of ammunition used was depleted; and swords were issued only to higher cadet officers. Although various uniform items had to be replaced because of rationing, many of the Chicago Public High School units were invited to participate in official public ceremonies and parades.

Programs for Girls

The need to develop the physical qualities of stamina, vigor and dexterity applied to the girls as well as the boys. The Physical Education classes for girls were revised to comply with the suggestions found in the Victory Corps Manual.

A more intense curriculum of Physical Education was offered to the girls in place of the recreational exercises practiced in former years. Vigorous, conditioning exercises, such as relay races, team games, tumbling, and increased use of the apparatus equipment were suggested.

The young ladies focused on the educational activities which would enhance their becoming a WAC, WAVE, SPAR or
Marine. They saw the need to improve their physical stamina to secure these positions in the armed forces. Various forms of exercise taught helped win the war and keep these ladies mentally sharp.

The physical education teacher coached the girls to the point of fatigue, the result—many sore and achy muscles. However, this intense physical activity gradually developed their ability to exercise to the point that the soreness ceased, and feelings of accomplishment and satisfaction were developed. Each girl's physical ability was challenged by completing a test consisting of push-ups, sit-ups and various maneuvers on apparatus equipment.

The girls also participated in intramural games. In most schools, at least fifteen different activities were carried on during the year. The most popular intramural athletic event that the girls participated in was volleyball, over 18,000 girls competed. Besides the interest in being physically fit, concern in first aid activities doubled in the girls' classes. Also, the program offered in the Girls' Athletic Association changed to fit the needs of the war.

The Girls' Athletic Association (G.A.A.), which had carried on a program of athletic, health and social activities now stressed more vigorous games and sports for its members. The teachers of G.A.A. offered instruction in first aid and home nursing. The nutrition program stressed
the importance of practicing better health habits. The social committee of the Club purchased and presented war savings bonds to their schools and contributed cakes and cookies regularly to the servicemen’s centers. G.A.A. members made service kits and magazine knapsacks; they also participated in programs for the men in service.\textsuperscript{119} The girls not only received instruction on health matters by being members of G.A.A., but the subject of Health became a regular subject of the Physical Education Program. It should be noted that the Health courses taught in the Chicago Public Schools, were considered adequate by the armed services to meet the wartime needs.

**Nutrition**

To enhance the war effort ‘Eating for Victory’ lunches were served in the cafeterias. Various school departments worked together to promote these lunches. Food posters were designed by the Art Department and hung throughout the school. The Physical Education Department furnished various charts and diagrams to further explain the program.

Elementary and high school teachers were given the following material: bibliographies and informational bulletins on the subject of nutrition; periodical bulletins on energy food - food for repair; food for body building and food for protection.\textsuperscript{120} The teachers used these materials to teach the students to change their eating habits so as to conform to the war campaign. Many students were taught to
substitute their favorite foods with those raised in victory gardens or food stuffs that were considered out-of-season.

In the underprivileged areas of city, the students attending the elementary schools were served a five-cent plate lunch, even though many were not able to pay for it. A 'victory plate' cost eighteen cents in the high schools. ¹²¹

All Chicago Public School students were allowed to drink as many half-pint bottles of milk as they were able to consume. The cost was a penny per bottle. Those who could not afford the one cent were given the milk without charge. ¹²² Care was given to make sure all students ate a good meal at school. For many students, this was their main meal for the day, many left school to go to empty homes. Their parents were either enlisted in the service or working in war plants. Many of the teachers who taught nutrition also taught the subject of homemaking, for the two were closely associated.

Homemaking

The two most important features taught in the Homemaking classes were the lessons on the development and care of young children. As noted earlier, the war saw many women enter the work force. This in turn developed an increased need for professional day care for young children. Lessons on the physical care of children were enhanced by discussions on their mental and emotional development.
The emotional stress of the war was being felt by even the youngest child. The girls learned games and rehearsed storytelling techniques to entertain the young children. They found these skills to be of value when they took care of the children in the child protection program. The girls also discovered that these child-rearing skills enabled them to secure jobs and earn money.

As intense as the war related curriculum seemed, two additional courses, Art and Music, added a balance to the school day.

Art

The subject of art is an avenue in which one can experience -- pleasure, self-expression, emotional and spiritual development. It can be a source of recreation to one individual; or a form of healing to another. During the war years, many forms of comfort and many pleasures enjoyed by Americans were eliminated. People of all ages were totally consumed by the war. Thus, an outlet was needed to help with the stress brought on by the war.

Art education helped build morale and unity by portraying the nation's ideals in posters, emblems and window displays. During the war it functioned as a major educational instrument. Americans expressed their feelings through photography, chart and map making, designs and sketching. In the Chicago Public Schools, the subject of art was taken as seriously as mathematics and science.
In the elementary schools, the program included four features: building morale, transmitting essential knowledge to the individual and to the community, promoting a program of conservation and rendering valuable services to the nation.¹²⁵

The art teacher built morale through art lessons. Various subjects were encouraged which offered an outlet for the children to help them express their emotions, fears and anxieties. The teacher hoped the child would release these feelings by integrating the subject of art with the many medias it has. It was hoped that this method would help the child think constructively about what was going on around him or her. In the upper grade art classes, the school system used another method to boost morale.

Many Chicago Public Schools used the radio to help motivate upper grade students to participate in the subject of art. Two broadcasts entitled "Art Goes to War" and "Let the Artist Speak," each had a wealth of excellent material for subject matter, procedures and activities.¹²⁶ Many upper grade school teachers used these series to motivate the students to be creative artists.

The Air-Age theme of the war continued with the subject of Art. The students drew airplanes for industry, created pictures of planes in flight, sketched aerolandscapes and developed very fine pictorial maps based on the polar projection map.¹²⁷ The students also reproduced the
insignias of volunteer workers participating in defense activities. These signs were exhibited throughout the schools to familiarize everyone with the emblems.

Various types of material were used in the art classes because of the conservation of supplies due to the war. The students learned to create using nuts, seeds, shells, boxes, cartons, glass, wax, cloth, paper, buttons, spools, oilcloth and linoleum. The high schools made excellent art contributions to the wars' stamp and bond campaigns. Over three hundred theme posters were presented to the Chicago Board of Education to be carried in a defense parade. Other posters were sent to the Civilian Defense Headquarters. Five hundred posters depicting the theme "Keep Them Floating" were sent to Navy Pier. Over 1,000 Christmas presents were wrapped and decorated by art classes from several Chicago Public High Schools and delivered to the U.S.S. Chicago, a cruiser that was stationed in a combat zone.

A contest co-sponsored by the Art Department and the Office of Civilian Defense challenged the student-artist to create posters for the theme, "All Out For Victory." Prizes in the amounts of $25, $50 and $75 savings bonds were given to the winners.
Music

Another form of artistic expression that helped the children through the stress of the war was Music. The singing and playing of instruments helped promote morale and unity. The students were taught the correct singing of the National Anthem. They participated in many assemblies. All the holidays were remembered by staging a skit or play. Many of them recognized American, Latin American and United Nations' musical contributions. Each assembly opened with the singing of patriotic songs.

Many draftees and inductees leaving for battle were serenaded by choral groups singing patriotic "send off" songs. Other groups of enlisted personnel were entertained by band concerts put on by students from the Chicago Public Schools.

Conversely, the veterans returning from the war were honored at their alma mater with renditions of popular songs and victory-spirited music. Many of these returning veterans would find themselves unequipped to return to the every day life of a civilian. They had served their country proudly, but found they lacked the skills to be employed. The Chicago Public School system foresaw this dilemma, and with long-range plans, continued to enrich their vocational curriculum.
vocational Education

In 1936, when William H. Johnson was hired as Chicago's new Superintendent of Schools, he developed a set of long range plans for vocational and industrial training. Gradually the program grew; as equipment was put in place, the staff continued to develop various programs for the students. Thus, when the war broke out Chicago was ready, not only to continue to instruct the students, but to help with vocational training for national defense.

During the Second World War, every young person was regarded as a reservist in preparation for the Armed Forces or to work in the war industries. Some subjects taught during the early 1940s would not have been offered had these been years of peace. A survey of the educational literature of the war years raises the issue of undue focus toward the immediate demand for man power. The grim reality of man power needs was inescapable. In consideration of the fact that many of the war industries emphasized short-term schemes of vocational training, the importance of the long view of education in the lives of youth was often sacrificed. Many of these young people left school to help contribute to the war effort; they were attracted by high wages. Unfortunately, this same group would not return to school to earn a diploma, thus causing problems in the years immediately following the war.

It is sometimes said that general education is not
practical or useful. However, it is also said that understanding, attitudes and work skills emphasized in general education are essential for vocational education. As in general education, the students must know how to read and write. Many skilled laborers were necessary to produce the enormous volumes of products necessary to help us fight the war. Many of those skilled laborers came from the Chicago Public Schools. Even though vocational classes were held in each of the Chicago Public High Schools, separate schools were built whose predominate curriculum focused on vocational and occupational skills.

At the outbreak of the war, a new vocational school was added to the Chicago Public School ranks. This building, no name given, was located at 4401 S. St. Lawrence. It formerly housed a prevocational school. The site was rehabbed to provide training for both boys and girls in the field of Industrial Occupations.

The boys studied Aviation, Machine-Shop, Foundry, Printing, Sheet Metal Work, Tailoring, Welding, Shoecobbling, Commercial Cooking, Electric Shop and Radio and all phases of Woodworking. For the girls, training was offered in Beauty Culture, Dressmaking, Office Practice, Millinery, Commercial Cooking, Commercial Art and Tailoring. In keeping with the policies of the Chicago Public Schools, this facility offered a complete curriculum for the students that chose this field of education. Art,
Music, Physical Education and a Library program were included in the curriculum offered at this school. This school opened in the fall of 1942, with an enrollment of over eight hundred. Within two years time the building and program had to be expanded. Because of the rationing of the many supplies needed to build a school, expansion was difficult. Nevertheless, the system had two buildings completed before the war's end to accommodate students interested in Vocational and Industrial Education.

The first school in this category, Chicago Vocational, was built on the southeast side of the city. A student could enter this school after completing one year in a regular high school program. The curriculum of the student's sophomore year was preindustrial in nature. This was instituted so a student who did not wish to continue at this site could return to his regular high school, without losing any credits toward graduation. The second vocational school completed was Washburne Trade School.

This school was established to operate with four distinct departments for the different types of students that were attracted to it. The first group was made up of indentured apprentices. These students were interested in the field of building trades and also machine tool trades. These apprentices attended school one day a week, the rest of the time they were on the job and paid by their employers. The second group of students consisted of
those who were full-time high school students. Their vocational training prepared them for a job after graduation. The third group of students consisted of those who had dropped out of school. These students attended school until the age of seventeen for one day per week. The fourth group was known as the commercial group. This group followed the demands of the Smith-Hughes Act. They were considered part of the continuation group or the unit trade group. These students attended school on a part-time basis; three hours of each day or all day for a few weeks.

As the war continued, the curriculum in vocational education for boys included Aviation Structures and Engines. The girls entered a special Power Machine Sewing Class. The Food Department also expanded to give additional training in this field. Other strong vocational programs were available at Lane Technical High School, Crane Technical High School, Tilden Technical High School, Harrison Technical High School, Austin High School and Jones Commercial High School.

Jones Commercial High School was originally built to instruct young women for careers in Business. During the war the school opened its doors to include men students who took classes under the heading of 'Military Office Training.' Many of the young men interested in joining the Armed Forces, transferred to Jones to take advantage of this Business intense curriculum. The war needed not only
foot soldiers and pilots, but office personnel. Along with these courses, this school was the first to offer a preinduction Clerical Training Class for which instructional materials had been collected from all branches of the service.

Jones offered intensive training in such short-term courses as Shorthand, Typewriting, Dictaphone Operations, Clerical, Filing and Calculator Machine Operations. All these skills were necessary to carry on the office work needed to help win the war.

Although the academic secondary programs of these technical schools favored a vocational curriculum, the student with handicaps remained in a regular Chicago Public High School.

Vocational Education for the Handicapped

During the war, many educational adaptations were required for the students enrolled in general education. The many shortages brought on by the war forced sacrifices by handicapped and non-handicapped students. The Chicago Public School system challenged the handicapped student in a variety of special ways and many individuals met the challenge. The specialized training they received while in the Chicago Public Schools helped them to function along side their non-handicapped peers. Plans were formulated by those interested in the education of the exceptional child to help him meet both the challenge and the opportunities
set before him.

Following their graduation, many handicapped individuals were put to work in positions that were it not for the war situation, might not have been available. These individuals helped this nation when its manpower strength was low. They helped to establish a means for meeting effectively the problems of rehabilitation which would be heightened because of the conflict. The problem of providing rehabilitation to veterans when the war ended was being answered in part with these wartime efforts. These plans included Vocational and Rehabilitation Education needed to help return the disabled soldier to civilian life as a productive worker. Teachers of the handicapped student were able to offer suggestions in helping this newly handicapped adult.

All Chicago Public School classes in the 333 elementary schools and the forty-eight academic, trade and vocational high schools participated in the war-geared curriculum. The Bureau of Curriculum, which was established in 1937, designed and revised a curriculum that met the war needs. The Chicago Public School system was prepared for the war. The Board of Education, under the leadership of Superintendent Johnson, instituted a vast program to integrate the war effort into the curriculum, so that every pupil thoroughly understood the war aims, the war needs and the steps by which they helped our government to insure
The Chicago Public Schools maintained normal services and extended new ones called for by the emergency. They developed a war-time curriculum that was functional. In addition to expanding their extra-curricular activities for students, schools also altered their course offerings to meet wartime requirements. Math and science courses were more heavily emphasized and courses in aeronautics, drafting, automobile mechanics, electricity, industrial arts and other fields designed to develop skills useful in war industries or the armed forces were added. The schools increased the teaching time allotted to the subject of reading. They kept the discussion of the war in bounds. They promoted good health habits; and emphasized the ideals of freedom and equality.

In some cases the curricular changes of the war years contributed to a decrease in sex role stereotyping in the schools as girls were encouraged to enroll in many courses previously considered more appropriate for boys, including math, physics, aeronautics and drafting. Moreover, some schools offered home economics training for boys to enable them to shoulder their increased household responsibilities better. The physical education department upgraded their teaching methods and presented a curriculum strand that ensured stamina and agility. The school system also enriched the artistic, literary and musical experiences of
the students and the community. All through the war, the school system continually restructured its curriculum to meet the demands of the war. However, at no time did the curriculum not reflect the essential components needed to prepare the students to live in a democratic society.

Because of Superintendent Johnson's foresight, the schools were prepared to teach the skills necessary to send a student off to war or into a defense plant. The system received numerous accolades from the war department on their preparedness.

World War II revealed that no part of the educational system could remain unaltered. The war made public the strong and weak parts of our educational system. Although the schools provided many services for the students and encouraged constructive activities, juvenile delinquency was one problem that remained.147

The war disclosed the frustration and hard work the teachers of Chicago were undergoing. Many volunteered their time to participate in wartime activities above and beyond their classroom assignment.

Chapter IV will focus on the activities of the teachers and students during the Second World War.
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CHAPTER IV
TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

Local 1 - American Federation of Teachers

The Chicago Teachers Union (C.T.U.), Local 1 of the American Federation of Teachers (A.F.T.), had its beginnings in the late nineteenth century. Based on the few published accounts of the beginnings of this organization, citizens of Chicago could hardly blame the teachers for not organizing.

During the 1890s, public school teachers of Chicago faced a number of perplexing problems including years of highly politicized, unsympathetic school boards. The teachers earned meager wages and had very little input into administrative decisions. These issues coupled with the threat of a collapsing pension plan led them to organize the Chicago Teachers Federation on March 16, 1897.¹ By December, 1897, over one-half of the teachers in the city's public schools were members of the Federation. This organization, along with several other teacher organizations, was the forerunner of the C.T.U.

Spanning the years of 1897 through 1937, various A.F.T. locals, including the Federation of Men Teachers and the Federation of Women High School Teachers, formed their own organizations. Since each group fought for the same rights
through organized labor, four of the union groups surrendered their charters to the secretary-treasurer of the American Federation of Teachers on October 28, 1937. They then became known as the Chicago Teachers Union (C.T.U.), Local 1 of the American Federation of Teachers (A.F.T.).

Amalgamation proved a popular decision. By April, 1938, two-thirds of the teachers active in Chicago's Public Schools had joined Local 1. The C.T.U. was remarkably successful in attracting and sustaining membership. Individuals found the Union to be a social as well as a labor problem-solving organization.

Many teachers joined such clubs as the chorus, the drama group and the bowling league. Professionals from all teaching levels were socializing. This socialization created a friendlier and more cooperative working environment. With the onset of the war, these social activities would cease. Gasoline was rationed and public transportation became difficult. However, the camaraderie formed among the city's teachers would continue.

As early in the conflict as December 9, 1941, the Chicago Teachers Union, through its Executive Board, pledged its complete support to the federal government in the struggle against the imperial government of Japan and its allies. The Union commended the Board of Education of the city of Chicago and the school officials who made available many facilities of the Chicago school system in the defense
training program. They urged that the local school system have direct charge, with federal support, of as much of the defense and civilian training program as possible. The Union reiterated the point that a unique feature of the American way of life is the American school system. They urged that there be no "lost generation" of youth after this war due to curtailment of educational opportunities during this emergency.⁷ The C.T.U. pledged that the teachers would give continued attention to these matters as well as doing their full duty with respect to international problems.

In addition to helping the students understand their responsibilities toward a democratic country, they also showed them what it meant to live where there is freedom and helped them to see what the Allies were fighting for. The teachers of Chicago were deeply interested in rendering the most effective service to meet the crisis the nation was facing. No task was too great when duty and necessity called. Teachers, as highly educated, highly specialized professionals, possessed skills which were vital to American democracy -- both with relation to winning the war and planning peace after the war.⁸ To this end, the professional skills of teachers needed to be utilized most effectively both in the immediate war effort and in the post war period of social and economic reconstruction. Teacher 'man power' had to be carefully and scientifically applied
to the tasks for which it was best fitted. Consequently, during the Second World War, one important concern that troubled many of the organizations that represented school teachers was to make sure the professionally-trained teacher was effectively used in the interest of the nation's children.9

On May 9, 1942, some fifty representatives from many midwestern chapters of the American Federation of Teachers met to discuss immediate and possible problems facing the midwestern classroom teacher, based on the experiences of their counterparts in England. While doing a magnificent job of protecting and caring for children and adults during air raids, the teachers of England were compelled to battle against unreasonable and unsound programs superimposed on them by political administrators who were well-meaning but unfamiliar with educational problems.10 With crime involving children and delinquency mounting, the energy of the teacher of Great Britain was being consumed on simple clerical duties.11 The National Union of Teachers of England had insisted that the interests of the child must come first in peace as well as in war. They had also requested that the educational system should be disrupted as little as possible by the war effort.12 The philosophical thinking of both groups of teachers caught in the war, Midwestern and those from Great Britain was similar.

Effective teaching under war conditions was more than a
full-time job. Both educational groups felt they had to provide better educational facilities today for the children who would be adult citizens of tomorrow. Therefore, it was felt that only a limited amount of non-teaching time could be expected of the teacher in addition to regular duties.\textsuperscript{13}

The conference listed some of the post-school hour activities that teachers could be required to do: ration supplies, register men, and participate in civilian defense activities.\textsuperscript{14} Thus, as the war progressed, the C.T.U. and the teachers of Chicago asked to be assigned to civilian defense duties only to the extent that such assignments would not interfere with instruction and care of children. Many of the requests for help came under the auspices of civilian defense.

The Office of Civil Defense (O.C.D.) had the responsibility to prepare U.S. citizens for war. One goal of this group was to sustain interest and morale for the duration of the war, an indeterminate length of time.\textsuperscript{15}

\textbf{Civilian Defense}

The formulation of the civilian defense system was well under way by the time Japan attacked Pearl Harbor. On May 20, 1941, the Roosevelt administration had established the Office of Civilian Defense, naming New York's Mayor Fiorello LaGuardia as its director.\textsuperscript{16} Mayor Edward J. Kelly created the Chicago Commission in March, 1941. By August, 1941, Chicago was designated as a major urban area for the O.C.D.
The city was divided into six initial divisions, coinciding with the boundaries of the city's police districts. By the end of December, 1941, volunteers had been recruited for the position of block-level captains. Again, the mayor looked to the Chicago Public Schools for additional help with this process of the war. Dr. Johnson, Superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools, appointed Mrs. L. Robert-Mellin, a member of the school board, to be the liaison officer between the Mayor's defense committee and the school board. She directed the teacher's program.

A survey course in General Civilian Defense was organized by a committee of assistant and district superintendents in co-operation with the Office of Civil Defense. This course was designed to help in the civilian training program of the Board of Education. A copy of the curriculum was given to all Chicago Public School teachers and those individuals who attended the evening classes in the schools.

The lecture covered a description of the function of the U.S. Office of Civilian Defense, the organization of the nine civilian defense regions of the U.S., and the structure and operation of the civilian defense office in the Chicago metropolitan area. Detailed information on the operation of two specific types of defense services, protective services and community services, in the area was presented in the course. The former section of the course covered
blackouts, warning and spotting (of enemy aircraft), fire defense, ambulance and first aid, auxiliary police and transportation. The latter section included: evacuation, hospitals, health, feeding and nutrition, housing, salvage, recreation and the role of the Chicago Public Schools in wartime.  

While many dedicated teachers were involved in this program, many others volunteered to help where help was needed. Teachers who had a background in technical training, volunteered to teach nutrition classes offered by the Red Cross, to serve as consultants in consumer information centers and clothes clinics, and speak on behalf of the Office of Civil Defense. Other teachers served as consumer information chairpersons in their own communities which helped sustain the morale of the people. Still other teachers who served on community or neighborhood planning councils or committees, became teacher trainers, worked temporarily in the professional service area in registration and classification, organized children's activities centering in the school, and became involved in community organization and leadership. 

As the war progressed and activities increased, Frances L. Swain, a teacher from the household arts department was assigned to give full-time service as the executive director. Her office was located at the Central Office of the Board of Education, part of the consumer information
In addition, Ms. Swain sat on the Advisory Boards of many civic minded organizations that were formed during the war. Many teachers and administrators also participated in community programs throughout the city.

Programs for Adult Education

Evening schools had always been used as gathering places for community activities and civic ventures; now they became the information centers for matters concerning the war. Many of the city’s households did not have a child attending school. These individuals needed to receive information such as - bulletins, pamphlets and public communications which touched on matters of national welfare and the state of the war. Volunteers were needed, in even larger numbers to teach and inform these individuals. In some instances, just learning about the importance and the how-to of a victory garden was a necessity.

Other Chicagoans needed to learn to read and write English, enabling them to correspond with their sons serving in the armed forces. Classes were set-up to instruct the newly arrived citizens needing to speak, read and understand English. Several of these 'students' were individuals who held doctorates from various European universities; consequently, adult education became central rather than a marginal educational responsibility for the Chicago Public School system.

When the war broke out, many Chicagoans became
interested in preparing for the various arms of military service. They found these courses available in evening and summer school. Many completed as much classroom work as possible before induction. Other individuals were able to secure extra training for entrance to college or work. Through war industries' vocational training programs, the schools served as a contact with many adults who had not been in touch with organized education for years. Supplementary programs in adult education included the teaching of patriotism, civic responsibility, health and good morale among adults and older youths. Schools and libraries served as community centers for discussions of facts, reading, recreation and sources of unity.

Prior to the Second World War, the Chicago Board of Education held classes for immigrants interested in becoming U.S. citizens. Once educated these adults found countless opportunities to serve the home front. Many gave their services to hospitals, rationing centers, community drives and war bond sales. Some found the time to knit and sew for the men overseas. Others helped in the building and supervision of community playgrounds.

Money was collected in these classes and funds raised were sent to the Red Cross, USO, Greek and Russian Relief Funds and other philanthropic wartime agencies. Many assumed a leadership role by becoming block captains, air raid wardens, fire wardens, and conservation and consumer
chairmen in their communities. The efforts of this group extended to the Graduate Club.

Members of the Graduate Club included students who had received certificates and diplomas from the Chicago Board of Education while attending night school. Their monthly meetings focused on such topics as nutrition, war materials, conservation of clothing and community services. The Illinois Society of Colonial Dames of America brought refreshments to their sectional meetings held every third month in different parts of the city. This showing of camaraderie among the various ethnic groups helped to foster national unity and afforded each group the opportunity to work together in a truly democratic way. Many dedicated teachers were involved in this war program.

**Voluntary Community Services**

Teachers in the Chicago Public Schools needed to appraise the way in which their extra time was spent. In making requests for added services from teachers, school officials and the public had to keep in mind the heavy demands already made on the teachers. Requests could not place teachers in a position where they appeared to be refusing to do their full duty. Teachers were not the only ones asked to give of their time. Clerks, maintenance staff, lunchroom personnel and principals were asked to help fulfill requests for assistance. School buildings needed to remain open for post-school hour, war-related activities
thus justifying the need for clerks, maintenance personnel and building administrators. One such program that required the help of all school personnel was the Board of Education's Red Cross Unit.

Organized in January, 1942, the unit's volunteers came from the business and education departments of the school system. Their duties included knitting, sewing and preparing surgical dressings. Board of Education employees contributed generously to a fund which was used to buy materials not furnished by the Red Cross. By June, 1942, a number of hospital garments and many children's garments were completed. Many individuals took knitting home to complete even more articles of clothing. Through the cooperation of the Builders Building, a room was set-up for sewing, in which volunteers worked two evenings a week. The school buildings were kept open for not only sewing classes, but for many other uses.

Many school buildings were utilized for the distribution of clothing and food rationing stamps, war bonds and war stamps and organizing the collection of paper and scrap metal drives. Between 1940 and 1942, the schools and school personnel, were used to register men for Selective Service.

From May 4-7, 1942, over three million Chicagoans lined up at public schools to fill out the forms to receive ration books with twenty-eight various colored stamps. One
individual from each household completed forms for the entire family and attested to the truthfulness of his/her statements. The beige-colored ration book contained red colored stamps for meat, blue for canned vegetables, soups and similar foods, and other colors for items such as coffee, sugar and shoes. An article in The Chicago Sun, May 4, 1942, stated that all elementary schools in Chicago suspended classes for the registration for rationing books. James B. McCahey, president of the Chicago Board of Education, gave the teachers a vacation day, in return for their volunteer work. In many of the Cook County Schools the rationing volunteers were Parent-Teacher Association members; however in Chicago, the teachers served as registrars. This system of rationing was introduced by the U.S. Government's Office of Price Administration.

On May 28, 1942, sugar became the first item to require ration points. Each stamp permitted the purchase of one pound of sugar every two weeks. Then, on November 28, 1942 the buying of coffee required the same procedure. Shoes went on the list on February 7, 1943. And by March, 1943, butter, cheese and canned milk also joined the rationing list.

On September 30, 1942, James B. McCahey addressed the 465,000 students in the Chicago Public Schools announcing the opening of the salvage drive. The campaign was conducted on a competitive basis. Trophies, medals and
certificates were awarded to the school and class that collected the most scrap. By the end of the war, a total of approximately six and half million pounds of scrap metal were collected by the elementary and high schools of Chicago. The material was collected by the teachers and temporarily stored by the engineers in school yards and basements, for the later general collection. By the war’s end, the teachers and the engineers had freely volunteered well over one million hours.

In 1944, Chicago Public Schools led the country in the collection of scrap paper. With the help of the teachers, the system amassed 44,123,899 pounds of scrap paper. Much of the twenty-two thousand dollars the students raised from this undertaking went directly into the war effort in the form of gifts to veteran’s hospitals and servicemen’s centers. The hospital and the servicemen’s center saw volunteers not only from the Chicago Public Schools, but many citizens of Chicago as well. It was a true Chicago project. As Chicago became a crossroads city during the war, it also earned the title as the best 'Liberty Town in America.'

The Chicago Board of Education offered the services of their social centers to help entertain men from the various branches of service. Once the servicemen’s centers and the U.S.O. were established in Chicago, the Bureau of Social Centers co-operated fully with the sponsors of these
organizations. Trained personnel from the Bureau of Social Centers played an advisory role, as well as actively supervising many activities at various U.S.O./civilian service centers. These centers were organized to entertain the servicemen who were on leave in the city. Invitations were extended to all service commands for enlisted men to attend the Board of Education social centers at no charge.

During the summer of 1942, the Mayor and Mrs. Edward J. Kelly, along with many civic-minded individuals, gave generously of supplies, money and energy to make the main U.S.O. center as attractive and appealing as possible to the servicemen. During this period, dance instructors were hired to teach various dance steps to the visiting military personnel. Two other center sites in the city, Midway U.S.O. and the Naval Training Center at 87th and Jeffery Avenues, sponsored parties for servicemen.

Both members of the faculty and students from the industrial arts laboratories constructed 12,000 games. These items were distributed to the Army, Navy, U.S.O. and the Red Cross for the recreation of servicemen. As an outgrowth of this undertaking, the Bureau of Industrial Arts prepared an illustrated booklet, "Games for Yanks," which gave directions for constructing popular games requiring manual equipment. The kit contained game equipment and directions for constructing favorite past-time games, such
as checkers. This idea became very popular; in fact, kits were sent to every state in the Union and any country overseas that requested a game box. At the same time, another group of teachers was building yet another facility - a research library.

Years earlier, in 1932, six Chicagoans founded the Library of International Curriculum. This volunteer group foresaw the importance of teaching the students of Chicago about the changing world around them. This special library covered a new field of study which was becoming as important as it was complicated - economic, political and social conditions in foreign countries in the twentieth century.54 Established in a room in the John Crerar Library, the facility was a perfect setting for such a project as it was centrally located near Randolph and Michigan Avenues.

This library had extensive reference books and various pieces of equipment, all having been donated. The facility offered pamphlets, periodicals, reference works, general books, government publications and newspapers from around the world.55 Because the Center was strictly a reference library, a meeting room was available for groups who wished to use the materials. The Center shelved the so-called "color books," or the official explanation of the cause of the Second World War. The German White Book and the Dutch Orange Book could be found there also.

It is interesting to note that even though the Library
on International Curriculum was started in the depths of the economic depression, it was still in existence in 1942. With so much happening in the world at that time, this reference library became an essential place to gather information. Because it dealt only with the political, social, economic and psychological aspects of international relations in the twentieth century, it afforded practical suggestions in these limited fields, with greater accessibility than any other library. The voluntary staff would also offer other sites where individuals might find additional information on a subject they were researching.

A second reason the library was so popular was that the new items were cataloged and made available within a week. In addition, the reference library produced a bibliography for teachers who requested special reading lists for their classes. These books were helpful to supplement their curriculum. The library also offered information on programs and publications of unofficial organizations concerned with international affairs and foreign policy located here and abroad. 56

The individuals who volunteered their time at the Center wanted teachers to have knowledge of strengths and weaknesses of both our allies and our enemies. They felt the information was essential to win the war and to create a stable world. The Center was especially happy to help them find material graded for their students and useful in their
Unfortunately, little information is available about this group after the war.

Teachers initiated classes in first aid as a further contribution to the war effort. In February, 1942, ten special teacher-training courses in first aid were organized for teachers of health and physical education. By April of that same year, five more classes were offered. Upon completion of this course work, these trained individuals instructed the faculties of their schools. Many also gave the standard Red Cross course to high school students; still others gave the junior first aid course to elementary students. Many then volunteered their time to teach this course through the Office of Civil Defense and other community organizations. Over three hundred teachers of physical and health education were trained as teachers of teachers of first aid. Also, 3,700 Chicago teachers in other fields were qualified as 'first aiders.' These programs and services were conducted by the Physical and Health Education Department which contributed immensely to the war effort.

**Mental Fitness**

The Bureau of Child Study and the Adjustment Service Department, under the tutelage of Dr. William H. Johnson, Superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools, developed the systemic order of cumulative folders. This order of assembling scientific data on each pupil from kindergarten
age through high school was instituted throughout the city's school system in 1936 and 1937. Because of this process, the schools possessed a wealth of information on the developmental characteristics of every child in school and of many who had left or graduated.

Each student's record listed the general mental powers, special abilities, degree of mastery of knowledge, skills and factors which enhanced or retarded that individual's developmental growth. The schools had been co-operating with the United States Employment Service by providing records of those students available for employment. Records of graduates included reports of school grades, extracurricular activities, recommendations from teachers and a summary statement by counselors as a result of individual interviews held with the applicants. Many prospective employers accepted this file as the application for a job. In addition, because of the labor shortage during the war, many part-time jobs were available; these reports enabled the employer to review the file and hire a person for a job.

During 1942, labor shortages arose frequently. The Chicago Public Schools were able to send selected students to fill in the gaps. In the spring there was a farm labor shortage. Approximately 4,000 students were made available to do farm work during that summer. Another emergency rose in November of 1942. The post office and many retail
merchants were short-handed. Again, select students were made available for positions on either a part-time or a full-time basis. Thus, the government and many social agencies including the Red Cross, found these files to be of particular interest during the war.

This rich source of information, furthermore, helped deal with personal problems brought on by the war. Many applications were processed asking for information either to follow up on the family needs of men who were in the service or to give assistance to former students who might have been discharged from the service for physical or mental health reasons.64

These records also provided information where an individual in the service was seeking a commissioned officer's position. Those who sought a promotion, profited because their cumulative folders and school records showed fine attributes, keen mental powers and good mastery of school subjects.65

The files also held information on those who stated they were conscientious objectors. Investigation by federal representatives showed that this student's point-of-view was of long duration, not merely simulated to avoid military service. The cumulative file showed personal conference reports completed by his division teacher in the routine of everyday high school life. The comments on the boy's religious attitudes attested to his firm convictions.66
The army contacted the Chicago Adjustment Service Plan when it was confronted with an individual who, because of his mental handicaps, may have inadvertently violated Army regulations, which were beyond his understanding. Many of these individuals entered the service under false pretenses. Former child study records would verify that this person was unfit to serve his country on the battlefield. Thus, families were assisted in explaining their son's inappropriate behavior to military authorities. Many enlistees were allowed to serve, but were assigned less complicated duties. As the schools helped the government with individuals entering the service, they also continued to assist companies with information on prospective employees.

Government officials and many wartime agencies commented favorably on the excellent data found in the student’s cumulative folder. They felt the amount of comprehensive information supplied by the Chicago Adjustment Service Plan aided their investigations, whether a person was passing through an induction center, pursuing officership, or seeking employment. Because of this favorable commendation, the Bureau of Child Study was requested by the government to prepare two more projects.

The first assignment dealt with issuance of counterfeit money by the Axis. The Secret Service Department found that worthless new U.S. money was being distributed throughout
many countries to undermine the U.S. economy.\textsuperscript{68} To counter this problem, the Treasury Department issued a pamphlet entitled "Know Your Money." The government asked the Chicago Board of Education to prepare a teacher's manual and a test to facilitate the use of this pamphlet and make its contents effective.\textsuperscript{69} The materials were so well received by the Secret Service Department that the Chicago Board of Education was requested to furnish sample sets to be distributed as models to 250 American cities.\textsuperscript{70}

The second project requested by the army required development of a very brief mental test for use in emergency situations.\textsuperscript{71} The Bureau of Child Study carried on an extensive program for the evaluation and standardization of a tool called the Kent Emergency Battery. The instrument was used in various parts of the country, including Great Lakes Naval training Station and the U.S. Marine Corps at San Diego.\textsuperscript{72} Thus, the Bureau of Child Study and the adjustment service department offered invaluable assistance to support the war effort.

**Contributions of the Chicago Public School Teacher**

At the start of the Second World War, Chicago had 13,500 public school teachers.\textsuperscript{73} By January, 1945, the Chicago Board of Education employed 11,999 regularly assigned teachers and administrators.\textsuperscript{74} Because the school system and its employees had greatly contributed to the war effort, the C.T.U. was interested in their participation.
Thus, on May 29, 1945, the C.T.U. sent a questionnaire to one-fifth of their membership. The survey asked these individuals to state what they did during the war years, outside of school time and as community members. Three hundred forty-two replies were received.  

Several questions were devoted to specific wartime activities such as - Civilian Defense, Red Cross, Blood Bank and one to miscellaneous activities. One hundred nineteen teachers reported having participated in some phase of Civilian Defense. Their activities included lecturing in gas defense, water safety, chairing the Food Panel of a Ration Board and working for the Chicago Servicemen's Center. One hundred fifty-one reported giving their services to the Red Cross. Their duties ranged from teaching first aid courses to sewing garments and making crutches. Eighty-seven were accepted as blood donors; twenty-three were rejected. Finally, one hundred three teachers reported other miscellaneous war activities, ranging from planting victory gardens to tending to the wounded in Cook County Hospital, corresponding with members of the Armed Forces and working with the British and Russian War Relief. As the activities of the teachers varied, so did the amount of time devoted to each of them.

Many of the individuals either did not report the hours given in war work or stated it indefinitely as did one teacher, 'many--never counted.' Of the individuals who
answered the questions dealing with the Office of Civilian Defense, the total time reported was 28,650 hours. Seventy-one individuals reported a total of 13,283 hours given in service to the Red Cross. Of the one hundred three reported doing miscellaneous wartime activities, thirteen people listed a total of 1,514 hours. The report completed by the C.T.U. also stated that each hour of work had a given value of $.65. Thus, the value in exchange of time given was equivalent to $28,240.55. The report also lists the cost of donating a pint of blood at $25.00. Thus, with eighty-seven teachers giving 274 pints, the value of these services increased by $6,850.00. With this partial information on time and blood given in service to the community and the nation during this emergency, it is easy to see that the value of the Chicago Public School teacher to the welfare of the country was incalculable. The country needed the services; the teachers responded to the need generously.

Leaves for Military Service

In their response to serve the country, some teachers left their classrooms and joined the war effort first hand. The Chicago Board of Education co-operated with the C.T.U. and other teacher organizations to sustain the morale of those teachers who entered the war service. Thus, the superintendent’s Bulletin of January 7, 1941, recommended
that any teacher who shall enter the military service ..., shall receive credit for such service by advance upon the salary schedule in the same manner as an automatic salary increase is given for regular teaching service, such credit to continue during the period of military service, subject to the regular promotional requirements for advance to higher salary groups. 

Special leaves of absence were granted to teachers who entered the armed forces, to those who left to aid in essential defense jobs and to women in the military ranks. Special leaves were also granted to wives of servicemen and select defense workers who accompanied their husbands to their commissioned sites. Discussion continued between the C.T.U. and the Board as to the problem of supply and demand of teachers. As teachers left for active military duty and the population of Chicago increased, the number of students attending a Chicago Public School also increased. According to the 1940 U.S. Census report the population of Chicago was 3,397,000. By the end of the Second World War, the population of the city grew to four million. This was due in part to the influx of thousands of war workers, the movement to Chicago of several government agencies and the relocation of branches of the military training program within the area. The end result was the over-crowding classrooms created by this influx. During the war years, the increasing shortage of teachers would become a crucial issue. By the end of 1943, more than five hundred teachers were enlisted in active duty. Because of these enlistments, the high schools were faced with a shortage of
teachers. Many high school subjects, usually taught, were abandoned. Secondary teachers found themselves teaching subjects they knew very little about.

The urgent need for school personnel also affected the students. The male students from many Chicago Public High Schools would almost certainly be called upon to serve their nation. It is also noted that delinquency rose during the war. Many students who were employed during school vacations did not return to the classroom. 87

Because of these concerns the army cooperated with the U.S. Office of Education in suggesting certain kinds of training which would be useful to the young student whether in military or civilian service, both during the war and after. 88 This concern led to the formation of the Victory Corps.

**Victory Corps**

Extra-curricular activities were recommended for all students who sought to enter the armed forces. These courses were not a substitute for military training; but, rather, were a type of military training. 89 The Victory Corps was "basically an educational plan to promote instruction and training for useful pursuits and services critically needed in wartime." 90

The 'Corps' had two objectives: (1) focusing the training of students on post-graduation life; and (2) that the students actively participate in the community's war
effort while in school. The courses offered by the Chicago Public Schools included: the fundamentals of electricity, machines, shop work, radio, and automotive mechanics, as well as radio code practice and touch typing, radio maintenance and repair and automobile mechanics. The students also had to participate in a school physical fitness program appropriate to their abilities. This organization was designed to promote and sustain the morale of youth in addition to providing training. Because of this, the 'Corps' developed a consciousness of participation.

The students could be identified by their simple uniform (white shirts/blouses and dark trousers/skirts) with insignias. They were inducted with ceremonies of initiation and encouraged to participate in many community ceremonies and parades. In their training, they were taught the rule of immediate and unquestioned obedience to proper authority. Many of these students sold war bonds and stamps, participated in the salvage collection campaigns, and helped their block captains as messengers. Credits were obtained by each 'Corps' member who participated in the extra-curricular and community activities. The number of students who participated in this program was not recorded. Contradiction among educational leaders rose across the country. Many felt this was not a good program for students.
Chicago Public School teachers and students supported the nation's fund raising for the war effort with enthusiasm and energy. Students, along with administrators, teachers and other school personnel together, built a record of monetary accomplishments which topped all schools across the country.  

Students worked very hard to achieve some staggering figures. For example, sub-district Two of the Chicago Public High Schools sold $2,963,000 worth of bonds during the 6th War Loan Drive. This school led all high schools across the country. Total cash figures for bonds sold through the schools from January, 1942, to April, 1945, exceeded thirty million dollars.

The American Red Cross received approximately $175,000 from the schools. The students also made a large variety of useful items for this organization, including lap robes, bedside bags and stationery holders. All items were welcomed at Cook County Hospital and Hines Veterans' Hospital, plus many facilities overseas. Much of the organization of these efforts were coordinated through local student councils.

School Government and Americanism

"Americanism through club work" was a theme to which schools adhered during the Second World War. Each school endeavored to make the idea of democracy a real and viable
asset for every student. All pupils participated in the student government plan, either directly or by representation.\textsuperscript{100}

Each student council was composed of various club representatives and service officials. The service groups included members from monitoring, hallguards, honor guards, patrol boys, air raid wardens and officers of the council. As new committees and activities were developed, they were added to the council, thus allowing this advisory board to function on a democratic basis.

The students who sought office on the council had to attain and retain good scholastic records. Other qualifications were determined by the students. The students ran for office twice a year.\textsuperscript{101} They conducted the campaigns with much vigor and enthusiasm.

School personnel felt this organization promoted good qualities for Americanism. It was stated that "willingness to contribute to a group, to society, to aid and assist in all that is best for the group, and a willingness to sacrifice one's comfort for the welfare of the majority were some of the fundamental qualities that make for Americanism."\textsuperscript{102} Furthermore, student councils emphasized another American ideal, freedom of speech.

These school councils served as public relation agents in contacting many homes in the neighborhood for the various drives, rationing of commodities and registrations that took
place during the Second World War. In many instances, this organization and its members gave invaluable help as office workers during the after school activities revolving around rationing and drives.

Another vehicle in which students continued to express their American ideals was through the school newspaper. In this activity freedom of ideas and factual information functioned as the very heart of this democratic project. The production of a school newspaper forced the participants to work together in the spirit of co-operation, using all their resources and self-confidence to complete a task. Furthermore, the school newspaper emphasized another of the great American ideals, the freedom of the press. As the students worked each day at school and participated in the many organizations, they learned that laws and rules must be observed, and that they could enjoy "liberty under the law" as a priceless heritage in this land of freedom. As the war came to a close, these students carried the ideals of Americanism with them.

Throughout the 1940s, the C.T.U. gave voice to a growing number of teacher concerns. It continually challenged the School Board to provide better wages and working conditions, as well as more opportunities for input by teachers into administrative decisions.

The teachers utilized their positions to help pupils and adults in the community to develop and maintain vigorous
health. Many of them possessed the essential wartime skills to instruct the workers in the defense plants.

The teachers not only worked enthusiastically on the various war drives, but gave generously of their time after school hours. It seems impossible to even estimate the time and service given over to war activities by the school personnel. Many were services hard to measure. Chicago school personnel were active in the Office of Civil Defense, the Red Cross, the U.S.O., at the hospitals tending to the wounded and active in rehabilitation work at the veteran's hospitals and donating to the Blood Bank.

As hard working and determined as the students and teachers were, there were problems that the war created, problems that could not be ignored. Despite the prosperity brought on by the war, delinquency, drop-out problems and salary disputes plagued the city’s school system. Many were dilemmas that had persevered over time and now worsened.
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85. Chicago Teachers Union Records 1870-1972, Box 41, Folder 41-9 (Chicago, IL: Chicago Historical Society Archives), 2.

86. Ibid.


89. Kandel, 179.

90. Ibid.

91. Ibid.

92. Becker, 155.

93. Kandel, 192.

94. W.C. McGinnis, "Victory Corps - Good or Bad?," The Journal of Education 126, No. 6 (September, 1943): 187.

95. Chicago Teachers Union Records 1870-1972, Box 43, Folder 43-3 (Chicago, IL: Chicago Historical Society Archives), 1.

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97. Ibid., 3.

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101. Ibid.

102. Ibid.

103. Ibid., 24.
CHAPTER V
RESPONSE TO PROBLEMS

Early Schooling in Chicago

As booming as the Chicago economy was during the Second World War, it could not always boast of being this financially secure. The land now called Chicago was first a portage for various Native Americans, later it became a trading post, and at last, a thriving city. Throughout the years it had become home to many groups of people seeking a better economic life. This municipality has a history riddled with frightful financial difficulties. To add to these woes the United States experienced many traumas which eventually affected Chicago; a series of economic depressions and a Civil War.

In 1837, Chicago had five schools with an enrollment of 325 students.¹ When the depression hit that year, many internal improvements slated for the city were halted. These included the building of the Illinois and Michigan Canal, the replanking of muddy roads and the building of bridges.² When production stopped and job sites closed, many individuals could not afford to purchase land. Thus, the school fund account, whose revenue came from the sale of land, received very little money. In order to re-open the
schools in 1841, the city devised a method that it would use again and again when this operation was in financial difficulty. The Chicago Board of Education decreased the number of teachers hired, but increased class size. This was possibly the first time that teachers in Chicago had payless pay days.

Chicago continued to grow. Swamplands, farm fields and forests west and south of the city were soon developed into thriving neighborhoods. Various businesses prospered, as families and individuals established households and set roots. The schools had also made great progress. By 1854, the citizens of Chicago felt that the curriculum taught in the city’s elementary schools and one high school had improved. This encouragement strengthened the morale among the teachers who were now graduating better educated students, thus adding to the business population. With this renewed confidence in public education, enrollment grew from 3,500 pupils, with forty-seven teachers, to more than 21,000 with 223 teachers in 1864, then to 40,000 and 570 teachers by 1871.\(^3\) Just as Chicago was emerging from yet another depression following the Civil War, a good portion of the city was destroyed by the great fire of 1871, including one third of the city’s school buildings.\(^4\)
Effects on the Schools of the Great Fire

For two days in October, 1871, a large portion of the city burned itself out. The weather conditions had been primed for such a disaster. The summer of 1871 had been hot and rainless. As autumn approached the air remained dry without the much needed moisture. Most of the buildings and homes in the city were wooden, built from the trees that had once surrounded Chicago. The lake became a refuge for those fleeing the flames.

The population of the city had grown to 300,000 people. The homes of 98,000 were lost and at least 35,000 people were left completely without food and shelter.\(^5\) Two hundred million dollars worth of property were destroyed, including fifteen school buildings.\(^6\) Those schools left standing were used to shelter the homeless. The high school building housed the courts for a year and classes did not resume until 1874.

Those fifteen school buildings lost in the fire were not replaced for three years and no new ones were built.\(^7\) All city, county and school records were destroyed in the fire, including the records of titles to school lands and funds. Because of the confusion and lack of property records, fraudulent titles to some of the assets owned by the schools in the outlying townships were accepted and recorded, and as much as $200,000 was permanently lost as revenue.\(^8\) City and state taxes were not collected for a
year. Interest was not paid on loans made from the school funds and rents were not collected on the land. The school fund account was again without revenue. One positive benefit of the fire was the final enforcement of an 1867 law requiring safe exits for school buildings. During the next several years the city started to rebuild.

Many city departments were restored and improved. Money to rebuild city hall, dig two large tunnels under the river and repair the water and sewer systems was appropriated. However, money to rebuild the schools was not available as taxes were not collected for such purposes. Finally the city borrowed $1,171,500 for the construction and operation of schools.

In 1875, one-fifth of all the children in the city attended school on a half day basis. The per capita expenditure, which had risen to $13.49 per student in 1875, dropped to the 1870 figure of $11.70. Additionally, there were 10,000 more children, but only $30,000 of increased revenue dollars. The depression of 1873-1879 caused the mayor to cut 20 percent from the city budget, including schools. Teachers were paid in scrip (promises to pay later) with an 18 percent average loss.

The decade following the fire was a difficult period for the schools in Chicago and the financial laws binding them. In 1870, the State of Illinois initiated a new constitution. It declared that the "General Assembly shall
provide a thorough and efficient system" of free schools for all the children of the state, but it did not furnish the funds to do so.\textsuperscript{12} It also abolished all special legislation for cities, but it did not abolish classifying them. Thus, when the General Assembly passed a new school law in 1872 citing only cities with a population of over 100,000, it pertained only to Chicago. This new legislation restricted the power of city's schools to some degree, and expanded the state's control, with no additional financial state aid.

By the end of the June, 1890, school year, 135,431 children were attending school in Chicago. The system employed 3,001 teachers with a budget of $3,583,481.\textsuperscript{13} Many of the teachers had sixty-three students in their classrooms. As the city grew to incorporate more villages and small communities, the school system annexed their buildings.

**Growth of a School System**

In the early 1900s, there were not enough seats in the schools for all the children seeking instruction. The Board and Superintendent Cooley adopted the policy in 1905 of putting up wooden "portable" school rooms adjacent to school buildings instead of using basements and other kinds of rented rooms.\textsuperscript{14} There was also a consistent attempt to better use the space available in the schools. With many children on double shifts, the teachers were disgusted by
the working conditions. During Cooley's administration, the Federation concerned itself with the frustration felt by the teachers.

During Cooley's administration, a two-pronged attack was made on the problem of under-age children working in the factories. More effective child labor laws were pushed and laws enforcing compulsory-education filled the elementary schools' seats. Included in this procedure was a law requiring children who could not read and write by the age of fourteen to attend school, either day or evening, until age sixteen. This was a wrap-around effort to reduce the use of under-age children as workers in this industrial city.

In 1909, Superintendent Cooley listed the schools with empty spaces in the local newspapers before the annual May 1 moving day, encouraging parents to move into those school districts. As the school population shifted around the city, and various child labor laws were better enforced, the enrollment continued to accelerate in the high schools. By 1910 there were 17,800 high school students, up by seven thousand in just ten years. Needless to say, Chicago's eighteen high schools were over-crowded. In 1909, Cooley resigned and Ella Flagg Young became Chicago's next school superintendent. Unlike the Cooley administration, the Federation gave her its ardent support.

Mrs. Young's philosophy of education concerned itself
with motivating children by encouraging them to compete with
each other, against using sarcasm and against punishing a
whole group for the misbehavior of a few. She also felt
teachers and schools must become parts of the communities
they served. She spoke of "the child" instead of methods.
She was concerned for the children of immigrants, of those
living in the tenements and of those surviving in the
streets. In 1909, 67 percent of Chicago’s pupils fell into
these categories.

In 1910 Mrs. Young proposed a ten-year salary schedule
for teachers. In 1912, the Board voted for increases for
elementary and high school teachers. However, in both cases
lack of funds prevented the teachers from receiving
increased wages. In 1914, the Board requested that the
schools be closed for two weeks and the teachers relinquish
their promised increases. In reality the raises promised
the elementary teachers were not received until 1918. The
instability of the salary policy of successive Boards of
Education for twenty years was a bitter experience for the
elementary teachers. Many high school teachers felt she
was more concerned about the elementary teachers than about
them.

In 1915, Superintendent Young retired. She still did
not believe that large classes in the elementary schools,
low pay, and repression were the means by which to improve
Chicago’s teaching profession. Her greatest contribution to
the Chicago Public Schools lay in her effort to give the
teachers pride in participation in and improvement of the
schools of which they were a part. She also encouraged
the Board to strengthen the teacher's pension fund. The
Federation throughout her superintendency gave her genuine
support and admired her tenacity. Between 1915 and World
War I the Board of Education and the Federation openly
opposed each other. Because of these many conflicts, the
various individual teacher clubs and the Federation combined
in April, 1916 to form the Chicago Teachers Union - Local
One (C.T.U.).

The Depression of 1929 brought Chicago, the state of
Illinois and the entire country to an economic halt. Up to
April, 1931, the teachers of Chicago had been paid in cash
when the money could be found. However, scrip and tax
warrants had also been issued when necessary.

Pay Recouped - School Year Restored

During the 1932-33 school year the Chicago school
teachers, along with other city employees, took an 11.54 per
cent pay cut. By February, 1934, many city employees
were three months in arrears in pay, and received pay
cheques which when banked yielded money in hand. However,
the payroll for the teachers of Chicago was now six and half
months in arrears. Their salaries were again reduced.
Listed below are the salary cuts that the teachers of
Chicago adhered to from 1932 to 1940.
These cuts were in addition to the great losses suffered for several years from delayed pay days and discounts on scrip and tax warrants. As the United States entered World War II, the economy of the city and the country improved. However, it would take the teachers of Chicago many years to recoup those lost funds.

The teachers of Chicago saw an ever-increasing cost of living staring them in the face during the Second World War. Not only did the federal income tax increase, but they now saw payroll deductions for the purchase of War Bonds. Here is an example of a budget of an elementary teacher who was on the maximum salary schedule. Her salary schedule listed $2,500.00 per year less 5.50 per cent, thus leaving her actual salary to be $2,362.50 per year. At this time, all teachers were encouraged to allot 10 per cent of their salary for war bonds, thus $236.50; $120.00 for pension; and $236.25 for income tax, thus leaving a cash income for the year at $1,770.00 or $147.50 per month. This person then had to budget for food, clothing, shelter, household operating expenses, university tuition, insurance, church offerings and other contributions. This was really a bare
bones budget. Ira Turley, president of the CTU, presented this scenario to Board of Education officials and fought hard to restore the salaries of the elementary teachers.

In December, 1942, James McCahey, president of the Chicago Board of Education, stated that teachers would receive the final 5 1/2 percent of the pay cut taken in the 1932 and 1933 school years. Thus, starting in 1943, a Chicago Public School teacher would receive a salary based on the 1932 pay scale.

This restoration of pay was announced as a 'raise' by McCahey. In reality it was not. The teachers of Chicago were asking for restitution of what had been taken from them. Senate Bill No. 325 was presented to restore funds. It was an amendment of Section 189 1/8A of the School Law to provide a pegged levy of $52,000,000.00 for the educational fund of the Board of Education of the City of Chicago, to go into effect January 1940. The CTU stated that other local governmental agencies had their salaries restored much earlier than fiscal year 1943. Mr. Turley reiterated that this was not really a 'raise,' rather a restoration of funds owed the teachers. In fact at one point he had requested a 10 percent increase in pay, however, this was not to be and the teachers received 5 1/2 percent. Thus, in 1942, the salary of a Chicago Public School teacher was still 5 1/2 percent below the basic rate paid a teacher in other parts of the country.
With this restoration of funds also came news that the school year would now be ten months long, instead of nine. There were many other problems related to teaching during the Second World War. The restoration of salary was but one of them.

What Should Teachers Do?

The situation presented a challenge to each individual teacher. Many felt that their teaching jobs, for which they were educated, were important to the country, the city and the community. Still others had some perplexing decisions to make. Should they apply for a job in an industrial plant and change careers? Which form of service will pay more? What effect will this decision have upon my employment after the war? Where would they be most happy? In which of the two forms of service would they render the greater service to the war effort?

Of the questions presented here, the last one was considered by many the most important. A statement by Lieutenant General Brehon B. Somerville, Commander of the Army Services of Supply, stated that, "Total war is waged not only on the battlefront and in the home. It is waged in every classroom throughout the Nation. Every classroom is a citadel. Every teacher has his part to play." In a pamphlet, "This War and the Teacher," put out by the American Council on Education," stated that, "The chances are overwhelming that you cannot be adequately replaced. If
your government calls, you will, of course, respond. But unless you are called, or unless you are fully satisfied that you can serve more valuable elsewhere, serve where you are."

Winning the production war at home was vital to winning the war overseas. Many teachers discovered that friends and family members were earning much more money. Every teacher wanted to serve his country. The war had put new demands upon everyone. Many Chicago based manufacturers turned their buildings into war manufacturing plants. Sixty percent of the country's war industries were located in Chicago, offering new job opportunities for everyone.

Decisions, decisions. This was a people's war. It was a war waged for the preservation and improvement of democratic living. It seemed to bring about certain implications for everyone.

It took much more than the talent of a handful of scientists to produce the complex variety of war goods that flowed from Chicago. Skilled engineers could not win the war without the help of trained workers to make the detailed drawings, create the tools, run the machines and pack and ship the goods. Who was going to teach these individuals the skills necessary to carry out these jobs? Many of these workers came from the Chicago Public Schools, where they had been trained, then recruited, to work in the war industry plants. Many teachers felt the opportunity to serve their
country through teaching was never so great. However, others felt differently. Due to low salaries, volunteering after school, over-time and numerous community commitments, many teachers found opportunities for war service in industry and in the armed service. This created a rapid turnover within the teaching staff in the Chicago Public Schools.

Meeting the Teacher Shortage

In many School Districts across the country, institutions of learning chose to reduce the professional and academic requirements for teacher certification. Many felt it was the only manner in which a school could stay open. These same administrators, however, felt that lowering the standards for teachers sent a false message to the public. Thus, many districts continued to request teachers whose qualifications were superior, because an inferior teacher, once rooted in a system, was sometimes difficult to remove. Several suggestions were offered to alleviate the problem.

In many large school systems where several classes of the same grade where present, the pupils from one room where a teacher was unavailable, were redistributed to the other rooms of similar grade. Thus, the burden of teaching was put upon the remaining group of teachers. This group had to be strong and resourceful enough to handle the heavier class load. In some instances where the building design and
construction permitted, some interior remodeling to effect larger room capacity was necessary. Many districts felt this was another manner in which to meet the man-power shortage. They felt it only fair that savings effected in salaries were to be applied to increasing remunerations of those teachers who would carry the added burden. Because not all school buildings could be redesigned to house the added population, some districts chose to lengthen the school day.

Under this arrangement, morning and afternoon sessions were held for separate groups of children, with the program for the morning group repeated in its entirety for the afternoon group. Many parents preferred to have their children taught for one half day by a competent teacher, rather than have them under the guidance of an inefficient teacher a full day. Many districts stretched this idea by adding one or more periods to the school day. This could be possible only in a departmentalized school. Again, the possible savings in the total over-all school budget should have been used to compensate for the additional teaching hours. However, in many instances this was not the case. The over-burdened teacher was not given compensation for taking on this added responsibility. In some school districts, the elimination of some subjects was suggested to alleviate the loss of teaching personnel.

In many cases, the teaching of certain foreign
languages, German and Japanese, was considered a 'frill.' Many literature classes and art classes were dropped. Some teachers certified in these areas were appointed to math and science classrooms. Subjects they knew little about. Others were assigned to an elementary classroom, to instruct a younger class of students. This was considered by many teachers a travesty. Many educators felt the traditional curriculum should be maintained during the war years. In Chicago, various methods of getting around the teacher shortage was attempted including the consolidation of some schools.

The Chicago Public School system, as stated earlier, was totally dedicated to the Second World War. There was not an aspect of the teaching day that did not concentrate on the war. Thus, when the loss of many men teachers to the selective service or the war industries, hit the school system. Alternative plans for teaching the school population in Chicago went into effect.

Those teachers who decided to stay with the school system considered their jobs to be a part of the war work and a national service of the highest order. They faced daily the over-crowded classroom. In some instances, children came to school who had never attended before. Many of their parents were now in the service or working in a war industry plant. Education in some families was now important.
In many Chicago schools double shifts and extended school days became a reality. Over-crowding became a way of life, especially in the elementary schools. Superintendent Johnson decided to re-initiate a method to reach more students. The use of teaching via the radio was reintroduced to Chicago's elementary schools by the suggestions of Dr. Ralph Tyler.

The Schools Tune In

Dr. Tyler, Chairman of the University of Chicago's Department of Education, suggested the utilization of the radio. He felt this was another method in which to relieve the teacher shortage. He suggested this process in a speech before administrative and supervisory officers of public and private educational institutions. Dr. Tyler felt that the students could group around a radio in their homes and receive instruction. He further stated that this method was successful in instructing children who lived on farms in the United States and remote regions of Canada. Thus, a method first introduced to the school children of Chicago in September, 1938, would be utilized again. Radios were placed in many classrooms to receive various programs.

A central radio council, or bureau was established in the superintendent's office and given the task of planning the programs. An effort was made to acquire detailed reports of the usefulness of the various broadcasts as disclosed by reactions of the elementary students. The
scope of the use of these broadcasts was left to the judgement of the administrators and teaching staff in each school building. With the increase of the use of the radio during the war, it became indicative to some that the radio could be an educational tool of value. However, it should be noted that the radio was not used for direct subject-matter instruction; it was a tool for the enrichment of elementary schoolwork.45

In the over-all scope of the school year during the war years, the Chicago Board of Education felt that there was no substitute for a teacher in the educative process. The radio was a means of adding variety, interest and enrichment to the regular activities of the elementary classroom.46

In a survey answered by principals many gave the following opinions: use of the radio stimulated new interest in various enrichment subjects, it gave skillful training in the art of listening, it widened the perspective of children, it was an excellent influence for good diction and vocabulary building, and it developed an interest and appreciation for good broadcasts, thus teaching discrimination in choice of programs. However some difficulties were noted in teaching by radio.

Although there was more widespread use of the radio as an aid to teaching as the war continued, there were basic and practical limitations to its use. The radio could not be used to displace a teacher in the classroom, nor act as a
temporary substitute. The radio was only effective when the teacher prepared the class beforehand for listening to the broadcast, and after listening to the broadcast, assisted the pupils in integrating the broadcast materials with the subject matter studied in the classroom. The basic limitation noted for using the radio as a teaching aide was the difficulty in preparing broadcast scripts which had to take into consideration the various learning levels among the children. The elementary school placed much emphasis on individual instruction. Many of the programs presented on the radio therefore had to be of general school nature. As use of the radio continued, several principals remarked on the drawbacks of the program. It was pointed out that subjects such as reading and spelling were too highly specialized and individualized to utilize the radio effectively. Many programs for primary children lacked explicit directions required for them to understand the material, thus leaving many of them inattentive as the program continued. Many children considered the radio a medium of entertainment and therefore did not take the material presented as schoolwork. It was difficult for the classroom teacher to discover whether a child was comprehending the broadcast until it was over. Unfortunately, then it was too late to do much about it.

It was evident from the survey taken in May, 1942, that careful attention and thought had to be given to this new
medium. The radio council was constantly on the alert for suggestions, criticisms and information in their efforts to adapt their broadcasts to the teaching requirements of the Chicago Public Schools. Every broadcast was critically rehearsed. The council prepared and distributed, in advance, to each school a weekly program of broadcasts designed to acquaint the teachers and pupils with the experiential background necessary for the understanding of each program.49

Programs which were produced in the studios of the radio council were adapted to the abilities and interests of the pupils in each respective grade. The script writers would frequently visit various classrooms in order to observe the reaction of the students to the broadcasts. In this manner, revisions could be made to the material presented in the next broadcast.

The use of the radio as a teaching tool during the war was looked upon as an experimental activity. Even though there was a severe shortage of teachers, students in the Chicago Public Schools were not taught solely by the radio. However, more importantly the skill of learning to listen was developed through this activity. While the schools used the radio to instruct the student who attended, they often found it necessary to search out the non-attending student, also known as a delinquent.

During the Second World War there was an alarming
increase in juvenile delinquency. The disruptive effects of the conditions of total war on social life was nowhere more clearly illustrated than in the increase in juvenile delinquency.\textsuperscript{50} It forced the Chicago Public Schools to seek stronger, more effective means to combat this problem.

The Chicago Public Schools had always worked hand-in-hand with the city's Juvenile Court System. This social institution met this problem with very limited success. The public schools of Chicago realized more than ever before that they had a tremendous responsibility in this area.\textsuperscript{51}

**Wayward Youths**

The causes of juvenile delinquency identified in the Chicago Public Schools had been studied for years, but up to and including the war years there did not seem to be a definite set of causes or any particular theory to offer as an explanation for this problem.\textsuperscript{52} Prior to World War II the Chicago Public Schools felt they could prevent juvenile delinquency by increasing the extracurricular activities offered to the students, tracking the mental health of these individuals and developing a closer relationship between the home and school. Studies completed by various social agencies suggested that poverty in the home was the main cause. However, during the war years the sudden increase in excess money among the youth was probably a stronger motive.\textsuperscript{53}

Another factor contributing to delinquency was the
wording used to describe an unsatisfactory home life. Households in which fighting, sibling rivalry and where alcohol and drugs were present also contributed to the dysfunctional behavior of the delinquent student. The Chicago Teacher's Union Education Committee felt that the following causes also added to the factors of juvenile delinquency - the absence of fathers from the home and the overcrowding of homes when remnants of families doubled-up.\textsuperscript{54}

The companionship/friendship developed by the juvenile delinquent also contributed to this problem. Many students described as miscreant's were characterized as immature, egocentric and unable to establish an emotional relationship with others. These descriptive words were often used to litigate a youth brought before the juvenile courts.\textsuperscript{55} Unofficial statistics showed an increase of delinquency from 9-15 percent in Chicago.\textsuperscript{56} The camaraderie found between these neglectful individuals was a most important factor in the failure of institutional treatment provided in the schools or other sites. Youthful offenders, under ten to those over sixteen, were referred to the courts between 1944 and 1945. The following reasons were indicated on court documents: for stealing, acts of carelessness or mischief, traffic violations, truancy, running away, being ungovernable, sex offenders, causing injury to persons and other reasons.\textsuperscript{57} Figures available at the time indicated
however, that in some communities, juvenile delinquency increased and generally the increase was greater for girls than for boys.\textsuperscript{58} In 1941, the Chicago Home for Girls became a branch of the Montefiore Special School.

By the following school year, plans were emerging to augment social adjustment programs and offer more opportunities to the truant, incorrigible, delinquent girl. By 1943, a girl’s branch of the Montefiore School was established on the third floor of the Washington School.\textsuperscript{59} This division was the site that would expand into a non-custodial day school for girls.\textsuperscript{60} By June, 1944, this program had expanded to include six divisions to accommodate 224 girls. The grade levels ranged from "ungraded" to eleventh grade. Special reading and math groups were established on the basis of diagnostic testing. Various social agencies were contacted in an effort to remedy health and welfare problems however, many issues required court action.\textsuperscript{61} In addition to this special program for troubled girls, the students in many schools received extra attention to combat this dilemma.

Thus, the Chicago Public Schools developed programs specifically designed to remedy undesirable war conditions which, to a large extent, caused the increase in juvenile crime. The programs attempted to repair the damage done by broken homes, lack of adequate mental care, sudden independence because of the surplus of money, which lead to
the general feeling of confusion and unrest, by providing constructive leadership opportunities, guidance, advice, worthwhile interests and wholesome activities. During the 1941-1942 school year, local PTA units were encouraged to organize community coordinating councils to combat juvenile delinquency, they were also encouraged to utilize all available governmental agencies located in their neighborhoods.

During the World War II all forty Chicago Public High Schools had an attendance counselor. These teachers were chosen because of their training, experience, interest and knowledge of the school and community, and now gave full-time attention to problems resulting from irregular school attendance.

This new service did more than check the occasional or chronic truant. It studied the causes and remedied them whenever possible, checked the reasons for legitimate absences and offered services in that connection. This program entailed the cooperation and understanding of the home, and worked with the various community agencies who were interested in working with these youths. This service promoted the welfare of boys and girls of secondary school age during the Second World War.

There were low-income areas, where delinquency developed in the form of a social tradition, inseparable from the life of the local community. In these
communities students faced competing systems of value. Their community, which provided most of the social forms in terms of which their life would be organized, presented conflicting possibilities. A career in delinquency and crime was one alternative; avoiding this lifestyle, and becoming a upstanding leading citizen was the other.

The Chicago Public School system felt that young people, particularly those most venerable to delinquency, needed to feel wanted and be encouraged to be of service to their nation through service to their local communities, their schools and their homes.

At the close of the school term in June, 1944, 917 clubs were functioning in the Chicago Public High Schools. The themes of several clubs included matters relating to curriculum, some met for social purposes, others dealt with school government, and several concentrated on service issues to the community. The clubs varied in nature from highly technical to a purely social interactive organization. For example, Steinmetz High school had a club for girls interested in doll making and costuming.

The Torch Club, started at Waller High School (Lincoln Park), demonstrated how socially minded students could organize and effectively help the troubled youth in their community who needed guidance due to the factors listed earlier concerning juvenile delinquency. With the financial backing of the Lincoln Park Kwianis Club, they worked out a
commendable program of activities which notably reduced loose wandering youth in the community.\textsuperscript{69}

It was felt by many social agencies and by the Chicago Board of Education personnel, that due to the war time labor shortages, the number of students leaving school to accept part-time jobs added to the numbers of those identified as a juvenile delinquents. The Chicago Public Schools focused their academic programs to a war-time curriculum. Thus, as the need arose, many students left the classroom and entered the world of work. School reports also showed increasing numbers of juveniles leaving these institutes to enter war-time industries.\textsuperscript{70}

Many educators felt that juvenile delinquency increased during the war because of the disruption of schools and because of the increased employment of youth. To correct this problem many felt the school terms should have been lengthened and employment of juveniles discouraged.\textsuperscript{71}

As early as 1848, Horace Mann and others repeatedly affirmed that money spent on schools to help prevent delinquency saves the increased amounts which later would be spent on crime.\textsuperscript{72} It was also noted that disruption of school programs or the lengthening of the summer recess tended to increase the numbers of youth who got into trouble with the law. Thus, it was felt that the influence of the school should be to keep the students in school for as long a school year as possible. The school year was not
shortened nor the academic program curtailed.

The Board of Education was the legal agent for the issuance of employment certificates. The state of Illinois required working certificates for all students between the ages of fourteen and sixteen. Chicago issued working certificates for part-time work only. When a student applied for and received an employment certificate, the city was following the Fair Labor Standards Act. This was one way for Chicago Public Schools to check on students working either part-time or full-time and a manner in which to record the number of drop-outs from the system. The issuance of these work certificates helped compile the figures many agencies used to report delinquents from school. Many students never returned to school to complete their high school education and receive a diploma.

Because truancy and tardiness are often the forerunners of juvenile delinquency, it was mandatory that the Chicago Public Schools keep absences and tardiness at a minimum. Many techniques and devices were used in several schools to meet the unusual problems found in different sections of the city. To alleviate the truancy problem, the schools found it necessary to review all unnecessary early dismissals.

Repeated tardiness carried a penalty of make-up periods. Parents were also contacted when a student was late after the fourth time. In some cases, when a student was constantly tardy, a program change was made so the
student could start the school day later in the day.\textsuperscript{76}

By September, 1944, the enrollment in the Chicago Public Schools was 9,500 fewer than the previous year. Don C. Rogers, assistant superintendent and the system's expert on school population trends, estimated that the high school enrollment would drop approximately 6,500 to a total of 106,000 and the grade schools would lose about 3,000 to a total of 256,000 exclusive of kindergarten.\textsuperscript{77} The Chicago Public Schools started a campaign "Our Youth Must Stay In School," but as the figures above can contest, it did little to keep the student's in the classroom. Truancy led to delinquency. This condition whether it be in war years or in times of peace, is not primarily a school problem, it is rather a symptom of prevalent social conditions.\textsuperscript{78} Cooperation between all of the cities social agencies became even more urgent during the Second World War.

As the war waned to an end, many soldiers and Americans wondered what lay ahead for them. So much had changed in the four years since the start of the war. Yet so much remained uncertain. The returning G.I. would find a country bustling with employment. Nearly everyone who wanted a job was employed. Millions had secured a new start. We had absorbed a most severe attack against our values and survival.\textsuperscript{79} The returning G.I. was not the same person who enlisted when his country called. Many came back physically and emotionally scared; others did not come back. The
'years older' soldier came back wanting what he felt America owed them - life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. Those particulars meant different needs to each returning soldier.

Chapter VI will conclude with the concerns of the returning G.I. and post-war readjustment.
CHAPTER V ENDNOTES


2. Ibid., 25.

3. Ibid., 50.

4. Ibid., 51.

5. Ibid., 54.

6. Ibid.

7. Ibid.

8. Ibid.

9. Ibid.

10. Ibid.

11. Ibid.

12. Ibid., 55.

13. Ibid., 71.


15. Ibid., 114.

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17. Ibid., 115.

18. Ibid., 117.

19. Ibid., 120.

20. Ibid., 198.

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War, by its very nature, has always been a catalyst for change, and the Second World War was no exception.\textsuperscript{1} Whether a country be democratic in spirit or tyrannical, significant changes occur.

The United States witnessed the passing of Franklin D. Roosevelt and presidency of Harry S. Truman. He was a feisty politician who responded to the challenge he faced.\textsuperscript{2} He differed from Roosevelt as he was impulsive. He faced major issues that dictated arduous resolutions. As the war drew to an end, his messages asserted the same governmental responsibility for the maintenance of economic security that F.D.R. had proclaimed.\textsuperscript{3}

In Chicago, World War II made Chicagoans more willing to involve themselves with the foreign nations. It also changed their beliefs and expectations and the designs of their lives at home.

\textbf{Lessons of the War}

The field of education was put through its paces during the Second World War. World War I had affected higher education only; World War II revealed that no part of the educational system could remain unaffected.\textsuperscript{4} It uncovered
the strong and weak points of the instructional program.

The objectives and goals of the educational plan proved to be sound. However, the war also revealed two serious problems - the percentage of men rejected by the Selective Service because of mental and physical deficiencies and the unsatisfactory status of the teaching profession.\textsuperscript{5}

These weaknesses were not always due to the lack of local assets. The indicated defects focused on the requirement to set minimum national standards by combining the resources of the nation and by the stipulation of federal aid for education. This federal aid would not only help the elementary and secondary student but would now assist the returning soldier.

World War I was followed by the beginning of a rapid increase in the enrollment of students in high schools.\textsuperscript{6} A comparable escalation resulted after World War II at the college and university level as a result of the Servicemen's Readjustment Act or the G.I. Bill of Rights.

\textbf{Servicemen's Readjustment Act}

Congress passed Public Law 346, 78th Congress on June 22, 1944. The Servicemen's Readjustment Act dealt with the education of veteran's.\textsuperscript{7} The bill, sponsored by Senator Clark, was in part based on recommendations made by the President in a message to Congress, envisaged education to all levels including college and the professional schools.\textsuperscript{8}

The Servicemen's Readjustment Act, possibly Roosevelt's
first step in reviving the New Deal, gave returning veterans generous unemployment benefits while they sought work, job preferences to help them get it, loans to start a business, buy a farm, or purchase a home, medical care for the disabled, tuition and allowances for those receiving occupational training or a college education. Since many returning servicemen could not find jobs of their choice, many opted to enter college.

Financial assistance paid for tuition, supplies and living expenses for those veterans who sought assistance to further their education. It was a strong factor in determining the numbers of servicemen who applied for training and to some extent the nature of that education. The G.I. Bill provided $50 to $75 per month for living expenses, up to $500 per academic year for tuition, fees, books and other instructional supplies and at least fifty-four weeks of continuous full-time education or training for practically all veterans who were under twenty-five years of age at the time of entering the service. The G.I. Bill provided that all veterans, discharged under conditions other than dishonorable, who had served 90 days on active duty on or after September 16, 1940, would be eligible under its provisions. The course of studies ranged from elementary studies to postdoctoral work. Veterans over the age of twenty-five who could prove their educational studies were interrupted by the war, received the same benefits.
The ex-G.I. could enroll in any school of his choice, and for adequate purposes, could change his course of study or transfer from one institution to another.\textsuperscript{12}

Three times the anticipated number of veterans seized the latter opportunity, and many members of society's lower socioeconomic groups consequently moved into the middle and professional classes - a development of enormous significance for postwar America.\textsuperscript{13} This philanthropic treatment of ex-servicemen broke an American tradition in which liberated soldiers met with frustration, due to loss of their previous jobs and very little education to seek a new career.

The G.I. Bill of Rights revealed much about the character of wartime social reform.\textsuperscript{14} In its design the Act proved an exception to the rule. Many governmental officials were willing to bestow generous benefits denied other groups. The Veterans Administrator's, senators, congressmen, and local communities backed by a powerful lobby headed by the American Legion made sure that the veteran got what he desired. As the bill became reality some concerns and problems arose.

In an opening session of a Conference on Educational Programs for Veterans, Eleanor Roosevelt addressed the assemblage. She urged educators to see that veterans get the best education possible.\textsuperscript{15} She continued by stating that while attending a meeting where the subject for
discussion concerned the future of education in America, she learned from an educator that the G.I. Bill of Rights might have served a very useful purpose in American education if educators had had something to do with writing it. The educator felt that it could have been made much more useful to education and the veterans seeking education if different provisions had been written into it.¹⁶ She concluded by reminding all present that the individual re-entering school should be taught by teachers who are educated to give instruction to adults.

There were far too few teachers and leaders who were properly prepared to face the adult student in a classroom. It was also understood that the veteran needed classes geared towards adult education: flexible, based on adult interests and purposes, and not limited to a set curriculum. Each course had to have immediate goals and values, they had to be short in length and group discussion was used as a method of adult education.¹⁷

Not only was there a shortage of qualified instructors to teach at the college and university level, but many institutions were not ready to handle the influx of students as a result of the G.I. Bill of Rights.

Campuses from coast to coast soon became overcrowded. The U.S. colleges and universities were caught up in a classroom boom of crisis proportions.¹⁸ Thousands of veterans were turned away because the schools of their
choice could not accommodate them. The astonishing growth in student population registration was predicted to last till at least 1948 or 1949.

Schools, during the interval, found themselves with tired and inadequate faculties. In many instances reduced by the circumstances of war, many campuses had a shortage of dormitory space. There was growing resentment from the veteran who could not enter and irritation by civilian students who feared they would be crowded out. The situation was regarded as the most critical problem ever to challenge the U.S. higher education school system. Of the 15.6 million eligible veterans, fully one-half participated in education and training programs of all types at a cost of 14.5 billion. Consequently, many large institutions became so crowded that many tightened their entrance requirements.

Several educators felt the inundation of veterans enjoying the privileges of college life would contribute immensely to the dissemination and democratization of higher education and the advance of technology in the United States. Robert M. Hutchins, President of the University of Chicago stated the following, "Colleges and universities will find themselves converted into educational hobo jungles. And veterans unable to get work and equally unable to resist putting pressure on the colleges and universities, will find themselves an education ... education is not a
device for coping with massive unemployment." James B. Conant, President of Harvard University worried that the bill would cause a lowering of academic standards. He favored a proposal that provided funds for the education of "carefully selected number of returned veterans."

To the surprise of everyone, the academic performance of the veterans consistently outperformed other students. The ex-G.I. did better than the average student, they took their studies seriously. Among educators, the veterans quickly established a reputation as the hardest working, best motivated generation ever to pass through the nation's colleges. The 1949 graduating class from Harvard was described by Fortune magazine as ... the most responsible ... the most self-disciplined group the college had ever had.

The G.I. Bill also redefined the composition of the U.S. college/university. Many campuses had to locate housing for married students, the scheduling of classes became flexible, some early in the morning, others late at night. Many educators realized that the age of a college student was irrelevant. Many new campuses were established in urban environments. This finally broke the pastoral pattern of location inherited from a nineteenth century bias against the city youth who had to live at home, work and commute daily in order to attend college. One such institute of higher learning was founded in Chicago on April
22, 1945.

Roosevelt College emerged in Chicago. And immediately became a beacon for democracy in higher education for Black students. The school was founded due to charges of racial discrimination against the Central YMCA of Chicago. The spirit that created Roosevelt College was typical of both vigor and the quest for education and training that all vets brought back with them when they returned to Chicago. A plan of continuing education was established by the Chicago Public Schools.

**Chicago Veterans' School Plan**

Three Veteran schools, on the high school and junior college level, were announced. Accelerated and individual courses to speed up the education and training plans of those returning veterans, was the object of the Chicago Veterans' School Plan. The sites were Herzl Branch, Wilson Branch and the Wright Branch. Each facility offered academic, technical, vocational, athletic, cultural courses. The end product was a high school diploma. The completion of vocational courses resulted in the awarding a certificate for a trade.

Traditional classrooms were replaced by conference rooms. Here each individual student pursued a wide variety of accelerated classes taught by top-notch teachers.

The veteran could enroll at anytime and a diploma was issued upon completion of course work. The number of hours
per day that the veteran attended school was optional. A student could supplement his course of study by time spent in a work shop/trade shop. The was a wide variety of subjects offered from automobile maintenance to dressmaking. The veteran could enroll in a single class, carry a full class load, or 'brush up' on a few subjects before entering college. A veteran, under the Chicago Plan, progressed in his studies as rapidly as his ability permitted.\textsuperscript{32}

Counselors from Chicago's forty high schools were made available to assist the returning G.I. Joe and G.I. Jane in securing the necessary requirements to obtain a diploma.

The veterans who attended these new schools could use their G.I. Bill privileges or save them for further college work. Veterans who served three years or more of active duty could attend these special schools for a twelve month calendar year and then complete four full years of college while enjoying the continued benefits of the G.I. Bill of Rights. During this same period, Chicago Public High Schools enhanced an existing course for the changing times.

\textbf{Self-Appraisal and Careers}

Self-Appraisal and Careers began as a pioneer experiment in the fall of 1938.\textsuperscript{33} It was considered a new trend in guidance programs. In some instances this course started in the elementary school, being given by the Adjustment teacher. The goal of the class was to aid students in the wise use of their abilities for both service
and happiness and to secure a career in life.\textsuperscript{34} It was considered a tool subject; not an end in itself. It was an elective class, carried for a full semester for a full credit.

It taught the techniques of self-appraisal for the study of career and occupational planning and to be flexible throughout this planning period. The course also instructed a student in how to understand the changes in occupational trends and how to seek educational help. Psychological lessons taught in the course laid down the fundamental concepts of good mental health and personality development.\textsuperscript{35}

One of the first objectives of the class was to give each student a vocational interest inventory. This task helped the student discuss his vocational interest and motivated a study of various occupations. The survey suggested fields of work for intensive study, rather than just specific occupations.\textsuperscript{36} For example, a student would score high in the field of food preparation and would study all the jobs connected to this field of which making a sandwich is a part. At each report card marking period the students would grade themselves. Criteria had been established and each student would estimate his grade against the estimation of the teacher. Where there was a discrepancy, a conference was held to discuss the final grade.
This class also introduced the feasibility of continued education. Many students were encouraged to look into the possibility of attending college and the course of study they would pursue. Material concerning occupational information, furthering studies at a college and opportunities for self-development were disseminated throughout many schools. This elective class was added to the academic curriculum to aid high school student's to better prepare themselves for life after graduation.

At the elementary school level, postwar education continued to emphasis the importance of good reading and math skills and stressed the significance of a healthy body through physical education classes.

Politics and leadership in the Board of Education would change due to charges by the National Education Association (N.E.A.). This metamorphosis would help the students of Chicago's Public Schools obtain a better education.

Report Dooms Johnson

During the Second World War, several civic minded and reform groups pressured the N.E.A. to undertake an investigation of the Chicago Public Schools. In 1943, the N.E.A. abandoned its policy of ignoring Chicago's long running school crisis, and its Commission for the Defense of Democracy began a thorough study of the Chicago school situation. Thus, in May of 1945, a seventy page report was issued by the N.E.A., recommending the administrative
system set-up by the Otis Law of 1917 be abolished. The Commission followed this report by expelling Superintendent Johnson from membership in the Association for unprofessional conduct.\(^{38}\) Prior to this 1945 report, the North Central Association of Schools and Colleges informed the city that it was in danger of losing its high school accreditation because of low standards.

On March 30, 1946, the North Central Association made good on its threat and warned the Chicago Board of Education that unless major reforms were made within the next year, accreditation would be withdrawn.\(^{39}\) To protect the second largest school system in the country, Superintendent Johnson resigned. Several members of the Board of Education also withdrew their membership from the Board. This action cleared the way for a reorganization which restored confidence, increased the power of the position of the Superintendent and renamed the title of the position to General Superintendent of Schools. The plight to improve the Chicago Public Schools started with the hiring of Dr. Herold G. Hunt in August of 1947.\(^{40}\)

The 1940s closed with the superintendency of Dr. Hunt, a noncontroversial administrator who sought good working relations both with the teacher's union and with civic reform associations.\(^{41}\)
Serving the Individual Student

During the war years, much teaching energy and funds spent on the schools focused on defeating our enemies. When the campaign ceased, discrepancies and lack of service in the second largest school system in the country was revealed.

Services provided by school social workers in many other school systems, was not to be found in the Chicago Public Schools. Many of these districts had no more money or resources than Chicago. Superintendent Hunt inherited a school system where the administrative staff yielded to political pressures and non-teaching staff personnel was antagonistic. The school children of Chicago were the ones who really suffered. A hostile and subservient atmosphere was no way in which to instruct tomorrow's citizens and leaders. Changes were in the making. A revised curriculum stressed standards for success and failure.

Teachers in the Chicago Public Schools explored the area of learning and found that individuals learn in many different ways. Because of information the teachers were learning from the disabled returning G.I., the system became more sensitive to and proficient in serving the child with defective vision, defective hearing, cardiac or pulmonary weaknesses or other physical disabilities.

The second World War increased the problems of delinquency. The Chicago Public Schools, during the war,
failed to develop a staff of school social workers to bridge the gap between children's homes and their schools. The failure of the system to check-up on the student, resulted in many students being absent without cause. There were no educational qualifications required by the Board of Education for a truant officer. A passing of a city Civil Service test gave the individual a position to track down delinquents. Both the role of the social worker and the truant officer would be enhanced. Qualifications and a set of standards for hiring was initiated for each position.

The postwar Chicago Public Schools stressed the need for developing sound physical education programs. Health services formerly provided by the Health Department in the schools had almost disappeared. The city of Chicago lagged behind other systems in the care and well-being of its student's. In 1947, New York city spent $2.11 per pupil on health care: Chicago spent only fifty cents. Some schools had no playground areas and few buildings remained open after school hours for community purposes.

As has been the problem in the past, money was needed. By 1949, funds became available for screening the vision and hearing of elementary students. By 1950, a physician was given the position as Director of Health and in 1951, ten school health nurses were employed.

During his tenure, Superintendent Hunt stressed the need for more social workers, more school psychologists, a
reduction in class size and the possibility of a broader use of the buildings. Dr. Hunt continued to advocate higher salaries for the teachers.

Superintendent Hunt tried to educate the public on the changes taking place in the city, how these changes effected the child attending school and the responsibilities these changes put upon the Chicago Public School system.

As the city continued to grow as an industrial center, the opportunity for unskilled labor dwindled. The Chicago Public Schools had not kept abreast of the changes taking place in the factories, that dotted the city's streets. The job site was becoming more and more technical. The schools neglected to train students for specialized and mechanical jobs. Also many elementary schools failed to train the student for success in the upper years of high school. Thus, dropouts loomed as a major problem again.

For the student who left school at sixteen in 1950, unready either for an available occupation or for responsible citizenship in an increasingly complicated society, was considered by many educators to be in trouble. Social work services and vocational education tried to remedy these problems.

As more workers were drawn to the big city because of the large numbers of industry, transiency became a major problem. In the low income sections of the city, the high number of transfers caused so much stress on the school
faculties, that many teachers transferred. Another concern after the war was segregation in the Chicago Public schools.

Superintendent Hunt was concerned with the role of the schools in fostering the understanding of religious, ethnic and racial differences. Shortly after his arrival he requested help from the University of Chicago to organize a Technical Committee to advise him to this end. This committee advised that a director be appointed and this work be continued in link with the Curriculum Council.

No agreement was ever reached with the Board. Instead the committee headed by Dr. Hunt took on the responsibility of directing the program. The committee realized the boundaries of the rapidly increasing elementary schools, eliminating some over crowding and quietly achieving some integration. Plans were set to achieve the same goals in the high schools, but because of low enrollments, it was not necessary. Enrollment in the Chicago Public Schools continued to increase. By 1953, Chicago had the dubious distinction of larger class loads than any other major American city. As school enrollments increased, income for salaries and equipment did not.

Many individuals weighed the problem of entering the profession of teaching. During World War II the schools came under serious attacks which served as a deterrent to young people who may have considered teaching as a life long career. In many cities school teachers had to take an
oath of allegiance and state that they were not members of subversive organizations.

In Chicago, the teachers were anguished between loyalty to their profession and the opportunity to work for more money in various industrial sites. Not until 1946 was any sick leave pay restored to a teacher's salary and that by a state law, not by action of the Board.\textsuperscript{54} When Superintendent Hunt took charge, the Union saw in him someone they could work with. Throughout his tenure, he worked with the Union to secure more pay for the teachers and better working conditions.

Upon his retirement in 1953, the Union paid homage to him. No farewell to any Superintendent was more explicit or warmhearted, than that of the Chicago Teachers Union.\textsuperscript{55} The gracious words bestowed upon Dr. Hunt graced the front page of the Union's June, 1953 issue.

Without question, the Second World War changed American society. The G.I. Bill of Rights enabled a whole generation of young men to obtain a college education or technical training.\textsuperscript{56} Many of the social, political and educational problems identified after the Second World War are still evident in the Chicago Public Schools - low reading scores, segregation and teacher strikes - are but a few issues.

War, by its very nature, has always been a catalyst for change and the Second World War was no exception.\textsuperscript{57} Chicago and its school system are evidence of that.
CHAPTER VI ENDNOTES


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The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is, therefore, accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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