IN recent years there have been indications of a renewed interest in the local and state history of Pennsylvania. This interest has been expressed along many different lines. The widespread participation of elementary and secondary schools in the one hundred fiftieth anniversary of the Constitution of the United States, the three hundredth anniversary of the founding of the Commonwealth, and the entourage of the New England travelers commemorating the one hundred fiftieth anniversary of the trek of the pioneer settlers to the Old North West are incidental evidences of the zeal of Pennsylvania youth to know more about their immediate communities and their state. In some secondary schools, pupils have made an historical study of the educational institutions common to their locality. In other places investigations have been made of existing political and social institutions in the community in order to understand better the evolutionary process by which they have come to be what they are. In a number of counties unemployed youth have undertaken research and writing on certain phases of county history under the direction and supervision of the superintendent of schools. A few county superintendents of schools have enlisted the services of the Federal Writers Project to write an intensive history of their respective counties.

Further manifestations of interest in local and state history are found in the educational program of public elementary and secondary schools in the Commonwealth. One finds an occasional
secondary school offering Pennsylvania history as an elective course in the eleventh or twelfth grade. On the other hand, there is a scattering of elementary schools engaged in making a study of local and state history. A survey recently conducted by the Pennsylvania Historical Commission among teachers of social studies in two hundred selected schools of the state revealed that in practically all of those schools Pennsylvania history was receiving some degree of consideration. In most instances the teachers in those schools committed themselves to the plan of teaching state history as an integral part of national history rather than offering it as a separate course. The survey further revealed that a large majority of the teachers favored a topical study of significant aspects of our state history rather than the usual chronological treatment. Approximately fifty per cent of the teachers who replied to the questionnaire favored a counter-chronological study of the units included in their social studies courses. A constantly increasing number of local historical societies and patriotic and lay organizations are adding the weight of their influence to the utilization of Pennsylvania history in elementary and secondary schools.

One might appropriately ask what is the significance of local and state history, and what place should be given to it in the school program? The answer to the first part of the question will condition the answer to the second part, depending upon the point of view which is taken. It is almost trite to mention that local history furnishes the bases for the more general statements that go into the making of national and world history. The life experiences of people in any locality, interpreted broadly, are a reflection of the life of the people in other parts of the world. Communities differ in numerous ways and only by making comparisons in the life and activities of people in different localities can one come to authoritative generalizations. Hence, a study of the history of the people in any community without reference to other localities and people in other parts of the world tends toward provincialism. It would seem, therefore, that beginning with a study of certain phases of the life and activities of the people in the immediate locality should furnish the bases for broadening the study to other localities and to other periods in the history of mankind. More specifically, a study of the architectural designs of buildings in
a given community should broaden into a study of the architecture
of buildings in other parts of the world and at other periods in
the history of mankind.

The foregoing statement may serve as an introduction to the
subject before us for consideration. The interest in local and
state history and its importance in understanding human relations
has not been lost sight of in the proposed social studies program
for the public schools of Pennsylvania. Since this program has
not yet been released for general distribution by the State Depart-
ment of Public Instruction, a description of its main features will
be necessary.

During the summer of 1937 the Committee on Social Studies
in the State Department of Public Instruction began work on a
social studies program for the public elementary and secondary
schools of the state. Following the formulation of certain guiding
principles the committee prepared a tentative chart showing the
scope and sequence of a social studies program including sug-
gested phases to be developed. During the subsequent school year,
this tentative program was adopted for experimental use and
study by a number of selected schools. On the basis of sug-
gestions which were offered by those who thus had a first hand
knowledge of the program, revisions were made. Copies of the
program were also sent to several recognized educators whose sug-
gestions were invaluable to the committee.

The nine basic areas of human experience upon which the pro-
gram is based have been formulated to direct the thinking of
teachers in developing units of study with their classes. A unit
placed under any one of the major themes may have bearing on
several or all of the areas. In surveying the activities of people
in any community, one will discover that both young and old are
engaged in such activities as earning a living, making a home, and
improving material conditions in their environment. It will also
be noted that the people in these communities are working together
for improving social and civic welfare, protecting their common
health and property and their individual lives and possessions,
engaging in recreation, improving their education, and expressing
their impulses for beauty and their devotion to a Supreme Being.
These are the common interests and experiences of people in any
community or any age in the history of mankind. Consequently,
schools engaged in educating youth for fuller enjoyment of life should take cognizance of these activities. Accepting these common experiences of the human race as fundamental, suggested phases to be developed in connection with the program have been formulated.

The function of the social studies very broadly conceived is to guide the growth and development of youth in society. Unless youth is prepared to cope intelligently with the problems of modern civilization, we cannot hope for a much higher order of society in the future than now exists. Fundamental problems of present day society which are likely to continue as vitally important issues should form the nucleus of the social studies program. When people clearly grasp the tendencies of modern civilization, they will be in a better position to modify those tendencies to conform to the higher ideals of the social order which they have commonly agreed upon.

Another function of the social studies is to educate youth to cooperate with others. Acceptance of this function presupposes that pupils will not only discover how people in our own and other times are dependent upon one another for their existence but that learning experiences will be set up where pupils will be required to work and cooperate with their fellow students in the accomplishment of a desired goal. Whatever enterprise youth may be engaged in at present, or plan to enter at some future time, it is certain that they will be working with others to a greater or lesser extent. Success in these ventures will depend to a large extent upon the ability of youth to make the necessary adjustments. The theory of individualism cannot function in our complex social and industrial age as it did when the great majority of our citizens were engaged in agrarian pursuits. As civilization becomes more complex and people become more independent, the need of more training in cooperation becomes apparent.

The social studies should contribute to defining and upholding social values. Society has values which are more than economic or political in nature but which are the motivating forces for economic and political operations. If such values are founded on honesty in public affairs, respect for the rights of others, a fair living standard for all, the right to speak and write on any social issue within bounds of decency, the privilege of worshipping a
Supreme Being according to the dictates of one's conscience and the assurance of a fair and impartial trial if brought before the bar, then life will have a richness of satisfaction and opportunity which makes it worth the living. Upon the schools in general and upon the social studies teacher in particular rests the responsibility of giving expression to these higher values. To impress upon pupils such cultural values means that teachers and supervisors must first be in sympathy with them, and second, they must be leaders to guide the thought of youth in the study of social situations.

A purpose of the social studies which bears a close relation to method but is essential to the achievement of other purposes is that of training the intellectual processes relative to the functioning of society. A knowledge of the sources of information respecting a given social situation, skill in evaluating the authenticity of these sources of information, skill in investigating every angle of a controversial issue, and skill in reaching a conclusion on the basis of evidence that has been examined are handmaidens of intelligent living in a democracy. The bases on which democracy functions are free and open discussion of social issues, an exploration and study of apparent needs, suggestions as to remedial measure, and adjustment and compromise with relation to existing and proposed measures. The problems that confront each individual require intellectual processes akin to those which operate in American society. It follows, therefore, that instruction in the social studies should provide training in the analytical, critical and constructive powers through school practice in numerous historical and contemporary situations.

The study of society should contribute to constructive social action. It is not sufficient that the individual be sensitive to the problems of society, that he should be skilled in analyzing such problems on the basis of the evidence which is available, that he should be willing to cooperate with others, that he should contribute to defining and upholding social values, but it is equally essential that he should be educated to participate effectively in social action. It has been generally believed that active participation in the affairs of society does not begin until the citizen reaches his majority. This theory is no longer accepted by many of our progressive educators. More and more, pupils in our
schools are being encouraged not only to study social problems, but to write, speak, organize, and otherwise participate in the solution of these problems.

This program recognizes four different levels of student attainment, namely, the early elementary, including kindergarten and grades 1, 2, and 3; the later elementary, including grades 4, 5, and 6; the junior secondary grades, 7, 8, and 9; and the senior secondary, grades 10, 11, and 12. In the early elementary grades material things from the immediate environment are made the basis of study and inquiry. As the child grows in experience and becomes acquainted with the things about him, he has the background for exploring and learning about things in other places and in other periods of history. By the time the child has reached the later elementary grades, he should be able to study about things which are more remote and abstract to his experience. However, in every grade, care should be taken to direct the learning of pupils around significant areas of human activity.

The study of any unit should begin with current and local phases of the problem, for the reason that what now exists is more significant to intelligent living than that which has preceded. In history as in economics, a law of diminishing returns operates. The more remote chronologically a fact is from the present, the less significance that fact has in interpreting the present. This law does not mean that the historical background of facts declines in importance in the same chronological order, nor that every happening in history five thousand or more years ago is significant. It does presume, however, that understanding the present is more significant to intelligent living than knowing what happened in the remote past. A better formula than to study either the present without a perspective of the past or the past without a perspective of the present is to combine the two in a study of trends which are significant to the present order of society and which are likely to remain significant for some years to come.

For example, a class has undertaken a study of the educational agencies in the community. In the course of their study they manifest an interest in knowing something about the educational system which has preceded and whether it functioned in the same manner as does the present system. With resources for investigation available, a counter-chronological study can be begun. In
following this plan, students proceed from that which they have seen and experienced to that which they must visualize in their minds. To reproduce any phase of the past as it actually was is impossible. The most that can be hoped for is an approximation of what has been. If we assume that the class in its initial exploration has traced the roots of the present educational system in their state, it may follow that they may be led to make an investigation of the educational systems in other states and countries. In every instance, pupils should be aided and encouraged to extend the horizon of their knowledge as far as time and the importance of the unit under investigation seems to justify.

The plan presented in the outline centers about problems which are significant to our present and probable future state of society. These problems in many instances deal with controversial issues but this does not mean that either teachers or pupils need take sides. A candid and open investigation of the issues involved and the conclusions reached are far more constructive than a heated debate which induces pupils to close their minds to any point of view which does not agree with their own predilections. Handling problems in the manner proposed here will require considerable study and interpretation of factual materials as a basis for reaching conclusions. But the more pupils become skilled in this procedure, the more capable they will be of meeting in an intelligent manner new social situations as they arise.

In order to understand correctly any phase of society, pupils should obtain an historical perspective of each problem considered. The historical study should be an outgrowth of and should follow the investigation of contemporary aspects of the problem. Thus, the study of history is not neglected in this program, but it becomes a means for interpreting more clearly modern tendencies. In each instance data pertinent to the problem under consideration should be drawn from the history of the locality and state since this tends to facilitate motivation and to deepen the understanding and appreciation of pupils for their community.

Every teacher should keep in mind that the work of the school is a cooperative venture for both teacher and pupils. Both are engaged in a common quest for knowledge through class activity. Planning creative activities and investigating the various aspects of the problem under consideration should be the function of
the pupils receiving counsel and direction from the teacher. There are, however, certain basic principles which may serve as a guide in the development of units of study.

The suggestions given in the program comprise phases of society around which units may be developed. Pupils should have a major part in determining the units to be studied during the year. Such units should be an outgrowth of pupil interests and should represent significant aspects of present society. The preparation of a bibliography, the collection of materials of study, outlining phases of the problem to be studied, dividing the class in small groups for studying special aspects of the unit, and determining the phase of the problem which each group shall consider are cooperative enterprises for teachers and pupils.

Reports, exhibits, and general discussion should usually follow a period of investigation and study. In general class discussion, every pupil should be encouraged to participate. It is very probable that differences of opinion will often arise. The teacher may use such opportunities for developing a tolerant understanding and appreciation for the opinion of others. To follow the policy of tolerance does not mean that a pupil should subordinate his ideas to the opinion of others unless it can be clearly shown that the proffered opinion is not founded on good evidence and sound judgment.

The social studies classroom should be a laboratory in which every pupil has a task to perform. In the social studies laboratory there should be a number of tables sufficiently large to accommodate about four pupils. Books, periodicals, pictures, charts, maps, pamphlets, newspapers, and other similar materials should be sufficiently numerous to permit each pupil enrolled in the class to make some individual investigations of the problem under consideration.

According to the proposed social studies program data drawn from the immediate community and state are used to introduce pupils to the broader phases of the units selected for study. Furthermore, the history of the state is utilized to clarify the study being made in as far as this history is pertinent. Studying the life and activities of people by beginning at home should lead to a deeper appreciation and understanding of the heritage of the past and at the same time should equip pupils with more essential information for dealing with contemporary problems.
George Clymer, a signer of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution, was the son of Christopher and Deborah Fitzwater Clymer and was born in Philadelphia on March 16, 1739. The death of his parents in 1740 left the youngster in care of his uncle, William Coleman, a Philadelphia merchant and shipbuilder. His education was the result of extensive browsing in his uncle's library and a brief term at the University of Pennsylvania, from which he did not graduate. His business training was received in his uncle's counting house and in the counting house of Reese Meredith, which he entered in 1764. Later, he became a partner in the firm which was known as Meredith and Clymer. In 1765 he married Meredith's daughter Elizabeth.

Clymer's portrait by Peale is in Independence Hall. It shows him as a well-formed man of medium height with a large massive head set firmly on the shoulders. The forehead is expansive, the eyes are grey, the nose aquiline, the lips thin, and the chin firm and well rounded.

His participation in the life of the city is indicated by membership in the Philadelphia Common Council from 1770-1775, by his appointment in 1772 as justice of the Court of Quarter Sessions, and by his services as an alderman in 1775.

He was early associated with the patriot cause and with the movements which led to the Revolution, for in 1765 he and his partners signed the non-importation resolutions, and he was also a member of the committee which requested the agents of the East India Company to resign. As a member of the Committee of Correspondence he supported a call for the First Continental Congress. In November, 1775, he was appointed a member of the Pennsylvania Council of Safety and served on the committee which superintended the fortification of Fort Island.

The general confidence in his ability and leadership led to Clymer's selection as one of the continental treasurers in July, 1775, and to his election to Congress on July 20, 1776, with Benjamin Rush, James Wilson, George Ross, and George Taylor, to
replace the delegates who refused to sign the Declaration of Independence.

His activities also included military service. As a captain of volunteers in General Cadwallader's brigade, he took part in the unsuccessful attempt to cross Dunk's Ferry and also in the Battle of Princeton.

During his congressional terms which included the years 1776-77 and 1780-82, Clymer was a valuable member as is shown by his election to important committees and by his services as a representative of Congress on serious missions. He devoted much of his time to the business of the Board of War. When Congress adjourned to Baltimore because Philadelphia was in danger of capture, George Clymer, Robert Morris, and George Walton were left as an executive committee to carry on business.

A review of the Journals of the Continental Congress indicates George Clymer's many activities. We find that he was a member of the committee inquiring into Schuyler's conduct of the Northern army, that he voted against granting Arnold the rank of major-general, and that when disorders on the Pennsylvania frontier necessitated an inquiry into the conditions in the vicinity of Fort Pitt, he was chosen as one of the Congressional Committee of Investigation. His activities were not limited purely to military affairs, for he served on the committee which recommended the establishment of a mint, he was a member of the committee which reported on the consular conventions to be established with France, and he was also a member of the committee which reported on the West India Trade.

Clymer's interest in stable business conditions made him an early supporter of a banking system. On May 17, 1780, with Robert Morris and John Nixon he organized the bank of Pennsylvania and on December 31, 1781, Congress incorporated the Bank of North America with Clymer and Morris as directors.

His services were not confined solely to the national field, for as a member of the Pennsylvania Assembly he wrote a report recommending the mitigation of the penal code. He was also one of the petitioners for a bicameral legislature in Pennsylvania.

A second phase of Clymer's national services was as a member of the Constitutional Convention in 1787. Although not so distinguished as his Pennsylvania colleagues, James Wilson and Ben-
jamin Franklin, he participated in the debates and committee work of the Convention. He was a member of the committee which considered the assumption of state debts. He spoke in favor of an export tax with certain limitations, and finally he favored the ratification of the Constitution by a majority of the states and the people.

Clymer's importance as a leader of public opinion is shown by the fact that he was one of the eight congressmen-at-large chosen by Pennsylvania in the first Congress under the Constitution. He stood fourth with a vote of 8,094, Frederick Muhlenberg being first with a total of 8,707 votes. His view of the duties of a representative was not such as to meet with popular approval because he felt that a representative should think for his constituents rather than with them. He served only one term during which time he was an active member but not an outstanding leader. A survey of the Journals of the House of Representatives shows that he was usually present when votes on important questions were taken. He served on such committees as that which replied to the message of President Washington, the committee on elections, and the one which prepared for the first census. He took an active part in the debates concerning the site of the new national capital, favoring a location in his own state on the banks of the Susquehanna. His votes in favor of the Department of Foreign Affairs and in opposition to the taking away of the power of direct taxation by constitutional amendment are two of the numerous ones which indicate his strict attention to business.

After his term in Congress he became the head of the excise department of Pennsylvania, and in this capacity was sent to Pittsburgh to gather evidence against the whiskey rebels. The death of his son Meredith, who was serving with the army sent to crush the rebellion, hastened Clymer's resignation from a position which was extremely distasteful to him.

President Washington's respect for his ability led him in 1796 to appoint Clymer, with Colonel Hawkins and Colonel Pickens to negotiate a treaty with the Creek and Cherokee Indians of Georgia. This was done in an able and successful fashion.

Some of Clymer's later services to his community included the presidency of the Philadelphia Bank and also of the Academy of Fine Arts, the vice-presidency of the Philadelphia Agricultural
Society and of the American Philosophical Society, and a trustee-
ship at the University of Pennsylvania.

Clymer owned extensive tracts of land and showed considerable
interest in the development of agriculture. A very interesting
letter to George Morgan, who was then living at Princeton, shows
an excellent drawing of a new farming implement which we would
now call a cultivator. He also made inquiries concerning the
Hessian fly which seemed to have done considerable damage in
New Jersey.

In 1798 Clymer purchased Summerseat at Morrisville. This
he deeded to his son Henry with whom he and his family made
their home. He died January 24, 1813, and is buried in the
Friends Meeting Cemetery at Hanover and Montgomery Streets,
Trenton, New Jersey. A bronze plate marking the grave was
unveiled with appropriate ceremonies on September 29, 1937.