Lesson Title: The Automobile and the Drive-In Society

Author Name: Jamie Thomsen

Contact Information: jthomsen@washoeschools.net

Appropriate for Grade Level(s): 8th grade

US History Standard(s)/CCSS(s):

H2.[6-8].22 Describe the effects of industrialization and new technologies on the development of the United States.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.6-8.1 Cite specific textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.6-8.10 By the end of grade 8, read and comprehend history/social studies texts in the grades 6–8 text complexity band independently and proficiently.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.SL.8.1a Come to discussions prepared, having read or researched material under study; explicitly draw on that preparation by referring to evidence on the topic, text, or issue to probe and reflect on ideas under discussion.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.6-8.2 Determine the central ideas or information of a primary or secondary source; provide an accurate summary of the source distinct from prior knowledge or opinions.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.W.7.2 Write informative/explanatory texts to examine a topic and convey ideas, concepts, and information through the selection, organization, and analysis of relevant content.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.W.7.4 Produce clear and coherent writing in which the development, organization, and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.SL.7.1 Engage effectively in a range of collaborative discussions (one-on-one, in groups, and teacher-led) with diverse partners on grade 7 topics, texts, and issues, building on others’ ideas and expressing their own clearly.

Discussion Question(s): In what ways did the automobile influence a drive-in society?

Discussion Engagement Strategy: Jigsaw Seminar

Student Readings/sources (list): All student readings (listed below) come from Crabgrass Frontier The Suburbanization of the United States by Kenneth T. Jackson Oxford University Press 1985.

• The Drive-In Culture of Contemporary America
• The Interstate Highway
• The Garage
• The Motel
• The Gasoline Service Station
• The Drive-In Theatre
• The Drive-In Society
Description of student writing assignment and criteria/rubric used for assessment of student writing: Students will write a 5 paragraph essay answering the discussion question. In their 5 paragraph essay, they will pick 3 topics from the jigsaw reading activity and include the ways those topics influenced modern society through the automobile.

Total Time Needed: 3- 45 minute class periods

Lesson Outline:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Frame (e.g. 15 minutes)</th>
<th>What is the teacher doing?</th>
<th>What are students doing?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Day 1:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 minutes</td>
<td>Pass out the student reading entitled: The Drive-In Culture of Contemporary America. Before students begin reading, have them brainstorm ways the automobile effected society based on prior lessons in the unit.</td>
<td>Students will brainstorm with a partner the ways the automobile effected society.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 minutes</td>
<td>Monitor student progress.</td>
<td>Students are silently reading the article and circling words they do not understand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 minutes</td>
<td>Define any words students need.</td>
<td>Students are sharing out the words they circled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 minutes</td>
<td>Teacher will reread the article out loud to the class.</td>
<td>Students are following along as teacher reads.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 minutes</td>
<td>Exit ticket: What predictions can you make about the automobile and society?</td>
<td>Students are answering the exit ticket.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Day 2:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 minutes</td>
<td>Have students write a one sentence summary of the article read last class.</td>
<td>Writing their summary and then they will share with a partner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 minutes</td>
<td>Assign each student a number and based on the number they are given they will read one of student readings (The Interstate Highway, The Garage, The Motel, The Gasoline Service Station, The Drive-In Theatre, The Drive-In Society). Pass out the seminar handout. *Depending on students’ abilities, readings may have to have more scaffolding. Some readings are easier than others.</td>
<td>Students are reading their assigned article and becoming experts. When they are done reading, they will begin to complete the seminar handout.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 minutes</td>
<td>Get students into their expert groups. All number 1’s will get together, all number 2’s, etc.</td>
<td>Students are discussing the answers on the seminar handout.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Day 3:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 minutes</td>
<td>Get students into seminar groups so each reading from last class is represented in the group. Teacher will monitor student progress.</td>
<td>Students will share each of their summaries. Then as a group go through each seminar question. Each student must speak at least once per question. Students should pull in evidence from their reading when possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 minutes</td>
<td>Teacher will pass out the writing assignment and the sample essay.</td>
<td>Students will read through the sample essay highlighting the claim, baby claims, reasoning, and evidence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 minutes</td>
<td>The 5 paragraph essay will be assigned for homework.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Include the model essay for the writing assignment, which uses the sources and criteria students will be using for their writing assignment. Rubric for 5 paragraph essay attached.
Sample Essay

There is nothing like getting into your steel on wheels and hitting the open road. The automobile has always been a rite of passage for teenagers and adults and it probably always will be. The automobile is a symbol of independence, individuality, and status. Beyond the affect the automobile has had personally and individually, there are the major societal effects it has had on the country and the world. Throughout America’s history there have been many inventions and changes in technology that have drastically altered society; but nothing quite like the automobile. Early on, the automobile changed just about every aspect of society; the ways people lived, shopped, commuted, and even worshipped were influenced by these horseless carriages. The automobile has been responsible for many changes in society but three drastic ways society has changed to create a modern society is the creation of a drive-in society, the garage, and the interstate highway.

The drive-in society is one of the most noticeable effects of the automobile. On almost every street corner we are reminded how the automobile has given us conveniences that many of us probably do not even think twice about. “By 1984, mom-and-pop grocery stores had given way almost everywhere to supermarkets, most banks had drive-in windows, and a few funeral homes were making it possible for mourners to view the deceased, sign the register, and pay their respects without emerging from their cars. Odessa Community College in Texas even opened a drive-through registration window.” (Jackson) Having this ability to “take care of business” without leaving your car ultimately allowed people more leisure time since the time it took to run errands decreased. In addition, the drive-in society changed architecture throughout the country. Businesses now needed to try to appeal to drivers and their automobiles and allow for the ability to shop at the business without leaving their car.

Another noticeable effect of the automobile on modern society is the garage. The designs of houses, neighborhoods, and suburbs have all changed to accommodate the automobile. “Easy access to the automobile became a key aspect of residential design, and not only for the well-to-do. By the 1960s garages often occupied about 400 square feet (about one-third that of the house itself) and usually contained space for two automobiles and a variety of lawn and woodworking tools. Offering direct access to the house (a conveniently placed door usually led directly into the kitchen), the garage had become an integrated part of the dwelling…” (Jackson) Throughout time, the residential design has changed to accommodate the mode of transportation and societal values. In some places the home can be described as the accessory to the garage.

The creation of an interstate highway is another dramatic effect of the automobile. The national creation of a system of roadways appealed to many drivers and corporations early on. Truck companies, real estate groups, home builders associations, General Motors, and the American Parking Association all lobbied together in support of a government regulated road system. “The Interstate Highway Act became law in 1956, when Congress provided for a 41,000-mile (eventually expanded to a 42,500-mile) system, with the federal government paying 90 percent of the cost. President Eisenhower gave four reasons for signing the measure: current highways were unsafe; cars too often became
snarled in traffic jams; poor roads saddled business with high costs for transportation; and modern highways were needed because ‘in case of atomic attack on our key cities, the road net must permit quick evacuation of target areas.’” (Jackson). Because of government creation of a system of roadways, the United States now has the world’s best road system.

In closing, the automobile has been a technological change that has impacted almost every aspect of society and is responsible for contributing to this modern society. As automobiles became more popular and affordable, more and more Americans owned this form of transportation. And as a result, society needed to adapt. The automobile has contributed to many societal changes but three of the most important and drastic changes are the creation of a drive-in society, the garage, and the interstate highway.
The postwar years brought unprecedented prosperity to the United States, as color televisions, stereo systems, frost-free freezers, electric blenders, and automatic garbage disposals became basic equipment in the middle-class American home. But the best symbol of individual success and identity was a sleek, air-conditioned, high-powered, personal station on wheels. Between 1950 and 1980, when the American population increased by 50 percent, the number of their automobiles increased by 200 percent. In high school the most important rite of passage came to be the earning of a driver’s license and the freedom to press an accelerator to the floor. Educational administrators across the country had to make parking space for hundreds of student vehicles. A car became one’s identity, and the important question was: “What does he drive?” Not only teenagers, but also millions of older persons literally defined themselves in terms of the number, cost, style, and horse-power of their vehicle. “Escape,” thinks a character in a novel by Joyce Carol Oates, “As long as he had his own car he was an American and could not die.”

Unfortunately, Americans did die, often behind the wheel. On September 9, 1899, as he was stepping off a streetcar at 74th Street and Central Park West in New York, Henry H. Bliss was struck and killed by a motor vehicle, thus becoming the first fatality in the long war between flesh and steel. Thereafter, the carnage increased almost annually until Americans were sustaining about 50,000 traffic deaths and about 2 million nonfatal injuries per year. Automobility proved to be far more deadly than the war for the United States. It was as if a Pearl Harbor attack took place on the highways every two weeks, with crashes becoming so commonplace that an entire industry sprang up to provide medical, legal, and insurance services for the victims.

The environmental cost was almost as high as the human toll. In 1984 the 159 million cars, trucks, and buses on the nation’s roads were guzzling millions of barrels of oil every day, causing traffic jams that shattered nerves and clogged the cities they were supposed to open up and turning much of the countryside to pavement. Not surprisingly, when gasoline shortages created long lines at the pumps in 1974 and 1979, behavioral scientists noted that many people experienced anger, depression, frustration, and insecurity, as well as a formidable sense of loss.

Such reactions were possible because the automobile and the suburb have combined to create a drive-in culture that is part of the daily experience of most Americans. Because of unemployment and war, per capita motor-vehicle ownership was stable (at about 30 million vehicles) between 1930 and 1948, and as late as 1950 (when registrations jumped to 49 million) an astonishing 41 percent of all American families and a majority of working-class families still did not own a car. Postwar prosperity and rising real wages, however, made possible vastly higher market penetration, and by 1984 there were about seventy motor vehicles for every one hundred citizens, and more cars than either households or workers. Schaeffer and Sclar have argued that high auto ownership is the result of real economic needs rather than some “love affair” with private transportation. Moreover, the American people have proven to be no more prone to motor vehicle purchases than the citizens of other lands. After World War II, the Europeans and the Japanese began to catch up, and by 1980 both had achieved the same level of automotive technology, American dominance slipped away in the postwar years as German, Swedish, and Japanese engineers pioneered the development of diesel engines, front-wheel drives, disc brakes, fuel-injection, and rotary engines.

Although it is not accurate to speak of a uniquely American love affair with the automobile, and although John B. Rae claimed too much when he wrote in 1971 that “modern suburbia is a creature of the automobile and could not exist without it,” the motor vehicle has fundamentally restricted the pattern of everyday life in the United States. As a young man, Lewis Mumford advised his countrymen to “forget the damned motor car and build cities for lovers and friends.” As it was, of course, the nation followed a different pattern. Writing in the American Builder in 1929, the critic Willard Morgan noted that the building of drive-structures to serve a motor-driven population had ushered in “a completely new architectural form.”
The Interstate Highway

The most popular exhibit at the New York World’s Fair in 1939 was General Motors’ “Futurama.” Looking twenty-five years ahead, it offered a “magic Aladdin-like flight through time and space.” Fair-goers stood in hour-long lines, waiting to travel on a moving sidewalk above a huge model created by designer Norman Bel Geddes. Miniature superhighways with 50,000 automated cars wove past model farms en route to model cities. Five million persons peered eventually at such novelties as elevated freeways, expressway traffic moving at 100 miles per hour, and “modern and efficient city planning- breath-taking architecture- each city block a complete unit in itself (with) broad, one-way thoroughfares- space, sunshine, light, and air.” The message of “Futurama” was as impressive as its millions of model parts: “The job of building the future is one which will demand our best energies, our most fruitful imagination, and that with it will come greater opportunities for all.”

The promise of a national system of impressive roadways attracted a diverse group of lobbyists, including the Automobile Manufacturers Association, state-highways administrators, motor-bus operators, the American Trucking Association, and even the American Parking Association- for the more cars on the road, the more cars would be parked at the end of the journey. Truck companies, for example, promoted legislation to spend state gasoline taxes on highways, rather than on schools, hospitals, welfare, or public transit. In 1943 these groups came together as the American Road Builders Association, with General Motors as the largest contributor, to form a lobbying enterprise second only to that of the munitions industry. By the mid-1950s, it had become one of the most broad-based of all pressure groups, consisting of the oil, rubber, asphalt, and construction industries; the car dealers and renters; the trucking and bus concerns; the banks and advertising agencies that depended upon the companies involved; and the labor unions. On the local level, professional real-estate groups and home-builders associations joined the movement in hope that highways would cause a spurt in housing turnover and a jump in prices. They envisaged no mere widening of existing roads, but the creation of an entirely new superhighway system and the initiation of the largest peacetime construction project in history...

Sensitive to mounting political pressure, President Dwight Eisenhower appointed a committee in 1954 to “study” the nation’s highway requirements. Its conclusions were foregone, in part because the chairman was Lucius D. Clay, a member of the board of directors of General Motors. The committee considered an alternative to a massive highways system, and it suggested a major redirection of national policy to benefit the car and the truck. The Interstate Highway Act became law in 1956, when Congress provided for a 41,000-mile (eventually expanded to a 42,500-mile) system, with the federal government paying 90 percent of the cost. President Eisenhower gave four reasons for signing the measure: current highways were unsafe; cars too often became snarled in traffic jams; poor roads saddled business with high costs for transportation; and modern highways were needed because “in case of atomic attack on our key cities, the road net must permit quick evacuation of target areas.” Not a single word was said about the impact of highways on cities and suburbs, although the concrete thoroughfares and the thirty-five-ton tractor-trailers which used them encouraged the continued outward movement of industries toward the beltways and interchanges. Moreover, the interstate system helped continue the downward spiral of public transportation and virtually guaranteed that future urban growth would perpetuate a center less sprawl. Soon after the bill was passed by the Senate, Lewis Mumford wrote sadly: “When the American people through their Congress, voted a little while ago for a $26 billion highway program, the most charitable thing to assume is that they hadn’t the faintest notion of what they were doing.”

Once begun, the Interstate Highway System of the United States became a concrete colossus that grew bigger with every passing year. The secret of its success lay in the principle of non-divertibility of highway revenues collected from gasoline taxes. The Highway Trust Fund, as it was called, was to be held separately from general taxes. Although no less a personage than Winston Churchill called the idea of a non-divertible road fund “nonsense,” “absurd,” and “an outrage upon ... common sense,” “the trust fund had powerful friends in the United States, and it easily swept all opposition
before it. Unlike European governments, Washington used taxes to support the highway infrastructure while refusing assistance to railroads. According to Senator Gaylord Nelson of Wisconsin, 75 percent of government expenditures for transportation in the United States in the postwar generation went for highways as opposed to 1 percent for urban mass transit.

The inevitable result of the bias in American transport funding, a bias that existed for a generation before the Interstate Highway program was initiated, is that the United States now has the world’s best road system and very nearly its worst public-transit offerings...
The Garage

The drive-in structure that is closest to the hearts, bodies, and cars of the American family is the garage. It is the link between the home and the outside world. The word is French, meaning storage space, but its transformation into a multi-purpose enclosure internally integrated with the dwelling is distinctively American.

In the streetcar era, curbs had been unbroken and driveways were almost unknown. A family wealthy enough to have a horse and carriage would have stored such possessions either in a public livery stable or a private structure at the rear of the property. The owners of the first automobiles were usually sufficiently affluent to maintain a private stable. The first cars, therefore, which were open to the elements, often found lodging in a corner of the stable, side by side with the carriages they were soon to replace. These early accommodations for the automobile were often provided with gasoline tanks, for filling stations at the time were few and far between. This and the fact that cars often caught fire were good and sufficient reasons to keep the motor vehicles away from the family.

After World War I, house plans of the expensive variety began to include garages, and by the mid-1920s driveways were commonplace and garages had become important selling points. The popular 1920 Home Builders pattern book offered designs for fifty garages in wood, Tudor, and brick varieties. In affluent sections, such large and efficiently planned structures included housing above for the family chauffeur. In less pretentious neighborhoods, the small, single-purpose garages were scarcely larger than the vehicles themselves, and they were simply portable and prefabricated structures, similar to those in Quebec today, that were camouflaged with greenery and trellises. As one architect complained in 1924: “The majority of owners are really ashamed of their garages really endeavor to keep them from view,” and he implored his readers to build a garage “that may be worthy of standing alongside your house.” Although there was a tendency to move garages closer to the house, they typically remained at the rear of the property before 1925, often with access via an alley which ran parallel to the street. The car was still thought of as something similar to a horse – dependable and important, but not something that one needed to be close to in the evening.

By 1935, however, the garage was beginning to merge into the house itself, and in 1937 the Architectural Record noted that “the garage has become a very essential part of the residence.” The tendency accelerated after World War II, as alleys went the way of the horse-drawn wagon, as property widths more often exceeded fifty feet, and as the car became not only a status symbol, but almost a member of the family, to be cared for and sheltered. The introduction of a canopied and unenclosed structure called a “car port” represented an inexpensive solution to the problem, particularly in mild climates, but in the 1950s the enclosed garage was back in favor and a necessity even in a tract house. Easy access to the automobile became a key aspect of residential design, and not only for the well-to-do. By the 1960s garages often occupied about 400 square feet (about one-third that of the house itself) and usually contained space for two automobiles and a variety of lawn and woodworking tools. Offering direct access to the house (a conveniently placed door usually led directly into the kitchen), the garage had become an integrated part of the dwelling, and it dominated the front facades of new houses. In California garages and driveways were often so prominent that the house could almost be described as accessory to the garage. Few people, however, went to the extremes common in England, where the automobile was often so precious that living rooms were often converted to garages.
The Motel

A ubiquitous example of the drive-in culture is the motel. In the middle of the nineteenth century, every city, every county seat, every aspiring mining town, every wide place in the road with aspirations to larger size, had to have a hotel. Whether such structures were grand palaces on the order of Boston’s Tremont House or New York’s Fifth Avenue Hotel, or whether they were jerry-built shacks, they were typically located at the center of the business district, at the focal point of community activities. To a considerable extent, the hotel was the place for informal social interaction and business, and the very heart and soul of the city.

Between 1910 and 1920, however, increasing numbers of traveling motorists created a market for overnight accommodations along highways. The first tourists simply camped wherever they chose along the road. By 1924, several thousand municipal campgrounds were opened which offered cold water spigots and outdoor privies. Next came the “cabin camps,” which consisted of tiny, white clapboard cottages arranged in a semicircle and often set in a grove of trees. Initially called “tourist courts,” these establishments were cheap, convenient, and informal, and by 1926 there were an estimated two thousand of them, mostly in the West and in Florida.

It was not until 1952 that Kemmons Wilson and Wallace E. Johnson opened their first “Holiday Inn” on Summer Avenue in Memphis. But long before that, in 1926, a San Luis Obispo, California proprietor had coined a new word, “motel,” to describe an establishment that allowed a guest to park his car just outside his room. New terminology did not immediately erase the unsavory image of the roadside establishments, however. In 1940 FBI Director J. Edgar Hoover declared that most motels were assignation camps and hideouts for criminals. Perhaps he was thinking of Bonnie and Clyde, who had a brief encounter with the law at the Red Crown Cabin Camp near Platte City, Missouri, one evening in July 1933.

Motels began to thrive after World War II, when the typical establishment was larger and more expensive than the earlier cabins. Major chains set standards for prices, services, and respectability that the traveling public could depend on. As early as 1948, there were 26,000 self-styled motels in the United States. Hard-won respectability attracted more middle-class families, and by 1960 there were 60,000 such places, a figure that doubled again by 1972. By that time an old hotel was closing somewhere in downtown America every thirty hours. And somewhere in suburban America, a plastic and glass Shangri La was rising to take its place.
The Gasoline Service Station

The purchase of gasoline in the United States has thus far passed through five distinct epochs. The first stage was clearly the worst for motorists, who had to buy fuel by the bucketful at a livery stable, repair shop, or dry goods store. Occasionally, vendors sold gasoline from small tank cars which they pushed up and down the streets. In any event, the automobile owner had to pour gasoline from a bucket through a funnel into his tank. The entire procedure was inefficient, smelly, wasteful, and occasionally dangerous.

The second stage began in 1905, when C.H. Laessig of St. Louis equipped a hot-water heater with a glass gauge and a garden hose and turned the whole thing on its end. With this simple maneuver, he invented an easy way to transfer gasoline from a storage tank to an automobile without using a bucket. Later in the same year, Sylvanus F. Bowser invented a gasoline pump which automatically measured the outflow. The entire assembly was labeled a “filling station.” At this stage, which lasted until about 1920, such an apparatus consisted of a single pump outside a ritual store which was primarily engaged in other businesses and which provided precious few services for the motorist. Many were located on the edge of town for safety and to be near the bulk stations; those few stations in the heart of the city did not even afford the luxury of off-street parking.

Between 1920 and 1950, service stations entered into a third phase and became, as a group, one of the most widespread kinds of commercial buildings in the United States. Providing under one roof all the functions of gasoline distributions and normal automotive maintenance, these full-service structures were often built in the form of little colonial houses, Greek temples, Chinese pagodas, and Art Deco palaces. Many were local landmarks and a source of community pride. Once cartoonist in the 1920s mocked such structures with a drawing in which a newcomer to town confused the gas station with the state capitol. Grandiose at the time, many of them molder today-deserted, forlorn structures with weeds growing in the concrete where gasoline pumps once stood. Their bays stand empty and silent, rendered that way by changing economics, changing styles, and changing consumer preferences.

After 1935 the gasoline station evolved again, this time into a more homogeneous entity that was standardized across the entire country and that reflected the mass-marketing techniques of billion-dollar oil companies. Some of the more familiar designs were innovative or memorable, such as the drumlike Mobil station by New York architect Frederick Frost, which featured a dramatically curving façade while conveying the corporate identity. Another popular service station style was the Texaco design of the Walter Dorwin Teague-a smooth white exterior with elegant trim and the familiar red start and bold red lettering. Whatever the product or design, the stations tended to be operated by a single entrepreneur and represented an important part of small business in American life.

The fifth stage of gasoline-station development began in the 1970s, with the slow demise of the traditional service-station businessman. New gasoline outlets were of two types. The first was the super station, often owned and operated by the oil companies themselves. Most featured combination of self-service and full-service pumping consoles, as well as fully equipped “car care centers.” Service areas were separated from the pumping section so that the two functions would not interfere with each other. Mechanics never broke off work to sell gas.

The more pervasive second type might be termed the “mini-mart station.” The operators of such establishments have now gone full circle since the early twentieth century. Typically, they know nothing about automobiles and expect the customers themselves to pump the gasoline. Thus, “the man who wears the star” has given way to the teenager who sells six-packs, bags of ice, and pre-prepared sandwiches.”
The downtown movie theaters and old vaudeville houses faced a similar challenge from the automobile. In 1933 Richard M. Hollinshead set up a 16-mm projector in front of his garage in Riverton, New Jersey, and then settled down to watch a movie. Recognizing a nation addicted to motorcar when he saw one, Hollinshead and Willis Smith opened the world’s first drive-in movie in a forty-car parking lot in Camden on June 6, 1933. Hollinshead profited only slightly from his brainchild, however, because in 1938 the United States Supreme Court refused to hear his appeal against Loew’s Theaters, thus accepting the argument that the drive-in movie was not a patentable item. The idea never caught on in Europe, but by 1958 more than four thousand outdoor screens dotted the American landscape. Because drive-ins offered bargain-basement prices and double or triple bills, the theaters tended to favor movies that were either second-run or second-rate. Horror films and teenage romance were the order of the night.

By the 1960s and 1970s the drive-in movie began to slip in popularity. Rising fuel costs and a season that lasted only six months contributed to the problem, but skyrocketing land values were the main factor. When drive-ins were originally opened, they were typically out in the hinterlands. When subdivisions and shopping malls came closer, the drive-ins could not match the potential returns from other forms of investments. According to the National Association of Theater Owners, only 2,935 open-air theaters still operated in the United States in 1983, even though the total number of commercial movie screens in the nation, 18,772, was at a 35 year-high. The increase was picked up not by the downtown and the neighborhood theaters, but by new multi-screen cinemas in shopping centers. Realizing that the large parking lots of indoor malls were relatively empty in the evening, shopping center moguls came to regard theaters as an important part of a successful retailing mix.
A Drive-in Society

Drive-in motels, drive-in movies, and drive-in shopping facilities were only a few of the many new institutions that followed in the exhaust of the internal-combustion engine. By 1984, mom-and-pop grocery stores had given way almost everywhere to supermarkets, most banks had drive-in windows, and a few funeral homes were making it possible for mourners to view the deceased, sign the register, and pay their respects without emerging from their cars. Odessa Community College in Texas even opened a drive-through registration window.

Particularly pervasive were fast-food franchises, which not only decimated the family-style restaurants but cut deeply into grocery store sales. In 1915 James G. Huneker, a raconteur whose tales of early twentieth-century American life were compiled as New Cosmopolis, complained of the infusion of cheap, quick-fire “food hells,” and of the replacement of relaxed dining with “canned music and automatic lunch taverns.” With the automobile came the notion of “grabbing” something to eat. The first drive-in restaurant, Royce Hailey’s Pig Stand, opened in Dallas in 1921, and later in the decade, the first fast-food franchise, “White Tower,” decided that families touring in motorcars needed convenient meals along the way. The places had to look clean, so they were painted white. They had to be familiar, so a minimal menu was standardized at every outlet. To catch the eye, they were built like little castles, replete with fake ramparts and turrets. And to forestall any problem with a land lease, the little white castles were built to be moveable.

The biggest restaurant operation of all began in 1954, when Ray A. Kroc, a Chicago area milkshake-machine salesman, joined forces with Richard and Maurice McDonald, the owners of a fast-food emporium in San Bernardino, California. In 1955 the first of Mr. Kroc’s “McDonald’s” outlets was opened in Des Plaines, a Chicago suburb long famous as the site of an annual Methodist encampment. The second and third, both in California, opened later in 1955. Within five years, there were 228 golden arches drive-ins selling hamburgers for 15 cents, french fries for 10 cents, and milkshakes for 20 cents. In 1961 Kroc bought out the McDonald brothers, and in the next twenty years this son of an unsuccessful realtor whose family came from Bohemia built an empire of 7,500 outlets and amassed a family fortune in excess of $500 million. Appropriately head-quartered in suburban Oak Brook, Illinois, the McDonald’s enterprise is based on free parking and drive-in access, and its methods have been copied by dozens of imitators. Late in 1984, on an interstate highway north of Minneapolis, McDonald’s began construction of the most complete drive-in complex in the world. To be called McStop, it will feature a motel, gas station, convenience store, and of course, a McDonald’s restaurant.

Even church pews occasionally were replaced by the automobile. In early 1955, in suburban Garden Grove, California, the Reverend Robert Schuller, a member of the Reformed Church in America, began his ministry on a shoestring. With no sanctuary and virtually no money, he rented the Orange Drive-In movie theater on Sunday mornings and delivered his sermons while standing on top of the concession stand. The parishioners listened through speakers available at each parking space. What began as a necessity became a virtue when Schuller began attracting communicants who were more comfortable and receptive in their vehicles than in a pew. Word of the experiment- “Worship as you are… In the family car” – spread, the congregation grew, and in 1956 Schuller constructed a modest edifice for indoor services and administrative needs. But the Drive-in Church, as it was then called, continued to offer religious inspiration for automobile-bound parishioners and in succeeding sanctuaries facilities were always included for those who did not want a “walk-in” church. By 1969 he had six thousand members in his church and architect Richard Neutra had designed a huge, star-shaped “Tower of Power,” situated appropriately on twenty-two acres just past Disneyland on the Santa Ana Freeway. It looked like and was called “a shopping center for Jesus Christ.”

In 1980 a “Crystal Cathedral” was dedicated on the grounds. Designed by Philip Johnson, the $26 million structure is one of the most impressive and gargantuan religious buildings on earth. More than 125 feet high and 415 feet wide, its interior is a stunning cavern without columns, clad in over 10,000 panes of transparent glass. Yet the drive-in feature remains. Instead of separate services for his indoor and outdoor followers, Schuller broadcasts his message over the
radio from an indoor/outdoor pulpit. At the beginning of each session, two 90-foot glass walls swing open so that the
minister can be seen by drive-in worshipers. Traditionalists come inside the 3,000-seat “Crystal Cathedral,” while those
who remain in the “pews from Detroit” are directed to the announcement: “If you have a car radio, please turn to 540
on your dial for this service. If you do not have a radio, please park by the amplifiers in the back row.” The appeal has
been enormously successful. By 1984 Schuller’s Garden Grove Community Church claimed to be the largest walk-in,
drive-in church in the world. Its Sunday broadcasts were viewed by an estimated one million Californians and
commanded the nation’s highest ratings for religious programming.
Jigsaw Seminar Questions

Expert Groups:

1. What is the main idea of the article?

2. What are the three most interesting details of the article?

3. Write a 1 paragraph summary of your article.

Seminar Groups:

1. How did the automobile influence modern society?

2. In what ways did the automobile contribute to a drive-in society?

3. How did society change because of the drive-in culture?

4. What positive impacts did the automobile have on society?
### 5 Paragraph Scoring Checklist

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proficient</th>
<th>Emerging</th>
<th>Missing</th>
<th>Paragraph #1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Grabber (Hook)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Background (Time, place, story)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Claim with roadmap</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**First Body Paragraph**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Baby Claim</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Citations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reasoning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Second Body Paragraph**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Baby Claim</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Citations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reasoning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Third Body Paragraph**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Baby Claim</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Citations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reasoning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusion Paragraph**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Restatement of the Claim</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Explanation of why question is important today</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>