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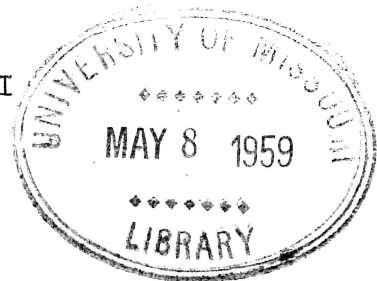
THE TEACHING OF COMMUNITY CIVICS

by

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SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS
in the
GRADUATE SCHOOL
of the
UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI

1916



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INTRODUCTION

This thesis is the outgrowth of a feeling that our present day civics is , in a large measure, inadequate to the needs of our citizenship. During my four years' experience in teaching civics in high school I had a growing conviction that the traditional civic instruction did not meet the interests of the high school students and certainly did not help them in any positive way to fully appreciate their civic obligations and opportunities. High school students complained that civics was hard and uninteresting. I realized the problem and endeavored to remedy conditions. Better results came by making a closer study of local problems and by introducing the study of current events. The subject was still almost wholly a study of the political agencies. The interest which was taken in the study of current events and the interest which was shown in a brief course in sociology brought to me the importance of greater study of social conditions.

The belief that more efficient civic education would be a great aid in the promotion of social welfare caused further study into the function of the school in regard to civic education. As yet the school has not recognized this responsibility to any great degree. Dependence upon general cultural education for training in citizenship is too unreliable, not to say unsuccessful. The problem of civic education must be taken up as a specific problem. The analysis of civic values must be

made and the methods of developing those values worked out.

In the first semester of the scholastic year of 1915-16 Dr. J. L. Meriam gave me the opportunity of introducing a course in Community Civics in the University High School. The topics found in The Teaching of Community Civics¹ as well as the topics which I had worked out for the study of current events were very helpful in making the general outline of the course. In a large measure this thesis contains the general principles underlying the course and contains the results of the experience in teaching the subject.

I owe much to my student teachers: Mr. Paul Webb, Miss June Van Norstrand, and Miss Francis Graham for their hearty cooperation. I am very grateful to Dean W. W. Charters for his analysis of the secondary curriculum and his suggestions in regard to methods of teaching. I am especially indebted to Dr. J. L. Meriam who not only gave me the greatest liberty in working out my ideas but also gave me encouragement and advice.

I hope this thesis will be taken as a preliminary study to a much larger problem of civic education in the secondary schools.

1 Special Committee, United States Bureau of Education Bulletin 1915, 23.

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CHAPTER I

WHY CIVICS SHOULD BE TAUGHT

I. Nature of Social Requirements

Brief historical background

One of the characteristics of the early twentieth century is the tendency toward greater social co-operation. As marked as was the nineteenth century by its individualism, just so marked is this century in the increase of social activity. The exhaltation of personal interests, both individual and collective, was the first fruit of political freedom and democracy. The last century saw the victory of political liberty. Representative government was established, manhood suffrage was won by the masses, justice became freer in the courts, religious toleration was achieved, labor secured greater rights, private concerns were encouraged by lavish public grants, and the individual was guaranteed the preservation of personal and property rights. These movements marked a great advance in social progress, but this fact alone will not warrant the assumption that society has reached its ultimate goal. The spirit of early American political philosophy was built upon the theory of natural rights.¹ Man was said to have "certain inalienable rights; among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." Government existed to preserve these rights. The protective idea was uppermost; law was negative--"thou shalt not" was

¹ DeWitt, B.P., The Progressive Movement, p. 6.

the prevalent ideal.¹ The state jealously guarded the individual's rights--especially those of property. These traits show, to some degree, the social philosophy of the time. The individual's aim was self-expression to the end of greatest personal satisfaction. The theory of progress was that through the individual's welfare society would be benefitted. Everything had a personal value; the aim of life was narrow and selfish. The acquisition of wealth became the standard of success.

The economic conditions, too, worked for individualism. In conquering the uninhabited regions, in establishing new industries, in organizing new communities, the pioneer had to depend upon his own ingenuity and his own strength.² He saw the fruits of his own toil and he knew with what sacrifice and labor success had been won. The sense of ownership was greatly appreciated. Social relationships were very simple. All had about the same opportunity and life was uniform. But as population grew and there was greater diversity in social structure, there arose a need for co-operation and new ideals.³ Today we have many thinkers who believe that the industrial system built upon individualism will not stand, and they point out that the great disturbances in our economic life are the best proofs that such a system has failed. The great inequalities in the distribution of wealth, the wide

¹ Vrooman, F.B., The New Politics, p. 18.

² Weyl, Walter, The New Democracy, pp. 38-50.

³ Croly, H., The Promise of American Life, p. 409.

extent of poverty where there is an abundance of wealth, the growth of socialism, and class hatred manifested in many ways, are cited as instances.

It must not be held, however, that there was no social co-operation during the last century. On the contrary, there were many circumstances favorable to the development of the feeling of group responsibility. The social groups were smaller, there was a greater opportunity for personal contact, and there was the likelihood of one-mindedness. But, on the other hand, philosophy of individualism, as an instrument of social progress, blinded all to the potency of concerted action. The realization of the true meaning of the political boss,^{of} the government-aided and^{of the} government-protected monopoly, and the industrial exploiter is causing many of our people to lose faith in the philosophy of individualism and look for a better method of control.¹ It is true that we are still living under the influence of the philosophy of the last century and that the dead hand of tradition to a large extent still governs our social activities, but there are indications in the great social unrest of today that society is striving to find a better solution for its social problems.

Multiplicity of social activity

What are some of the more important social tendencies which will in some way affect the training for citizenship? One of the most evident characteristics

1. De Witt, B.F., The Progressive Movement, pp.23-40.

of life today is the great increase of social activity. The multiplicity of social organisations is not only found everywhere but even small communities have a very complex social organization. Almost every phase of human activity is being organized.

Growing ideal of social service

There is a coming realization that little can be accomplished in such a complex society as we have without co-operation. This may be due to a feeling of necessity but it is likewise due to the gradual adoption of a new sense of social responsibility. It is no easy matter to put a finger specifically on this tendency for it seems to be everywhere. Our newspapers, magazines, and books are full of this new social philosophy; the drama forcefully portrays the inadequacy of the old "regime" and points out the need of a new social spirit; the pulpits are expounding the new spirit in placing great emphasis on the doctrine of the brotherhood of man and the application of the Golden Rule to everyday living. Education is expanding its aim and its field in recognition of social needs; and even business is beginning to show a greater degree of fairness and justice in its dealings with employees and the general public.

Individual's assumption of social obligation

There are indications that the individual is beginning to assume a sense of positive social responsibility. This is not a sentimental feeling which is aroused by the charity pleas about Christmas time, but rather a sincere desire to see the "other fellow" have

opportunities comparable with his capacities and his efforts. There is a growing disgust for any form of exploitation for self-aggrandizement. The great gifts to charity, the rich endowments to colleges and universities, the founding of great institutions for the promotion of education and human welfare, the generosity of men who devote their lives to public service, and the wide interest in all community problems are indicative of a new sense of social obligation. Formerly the rich gave as a fad or for the purpose of ostentation; today they are giving through a sense of public trust. The common man, too, is beginning to feel that he is responsible to more than his own family group. He is co-operating in a great number of social movements such as city affairs, political clubs, neighborhood improvement clubs, fraternal organizations, business organizations or labor unions, parent-teachers' associations, and religious organizations. The newspaper is doing much to create a larger group feeling.

Greater political responsibility of the individual

One of the most decided tendencies of the present time is the increasing responsibility which is placed upon the individual. ¹ Since the bestowal of the right of franchise on the upper classes, there has been a gradual extension of suffrage. Not only have new classes been added until all men are today included but the methods of direct control have been increased to a great extent. The exposure of great political corruption both in

1 De Witt, F.P., The Progressive Movement, pp. 4-5.

government and party has caused the voter to suspect the the representatives and the political "bosses" to such a degree that various means have been devised whereby there is less chance of graft and misrepresentation. The introduction of the initiative, referendum, direct primaries, the recall, and the commission form of government, is placing the responsibility for good government directly upon the electorate. No longer can the blame be placed on the representatives of the people. Not only is the election of competent officials the duty of the citizen, but the direction of public policy is a serious problem now devolving upon the individual voter. These conditions demand a greater intelligence on the part of the public.¹ The intelligence, too, must be specifically civic.²

Less dependence upon political agencies

There is a tendency today to depend, for our social reforms, less on political agencies and more on popular education. It was thought in the eighteenth century that laws, legal corrective agencies, and governmental regulation could bring about all needed reforms. Today, men realize that the only true reform comes in the changed attitude of the people. All the great social movements today recognize this principle. The hope for better sanitation and hygiene in our time is not so much in the enactment and enforcement of laws as it is in the education of the people to proper attitudes toward health.

¹ Ostrogorski, M., Democracy and the Party System in the United States, pp. 436-443.

² Davis, J.B., Cincinnati Conference for City Government, pp. 231-235.

Laws have little force unless they are backed by public opinion. If the school recognizes this principle, the significance of the school's function in regard to civic training is very clear.

Efficiency in public office

One of the outstanding characteristics of our day is the demand for efficiency. The cry for greater efficiency first began in the industrial field, but it has pervaded almost every field of human activity. This tendency, together with the exposure of gross corruption and mal-practice in office, has caused a growing demand for greater efficiency on the part of public officials. Today the old criterion of party orthodoxy is fast giving way to the standard of administrative efficiency. We are asking our public servants: "Are you prepared for the job?" "How well have you accomplished your work?" "What warrants you in asking re-election?" The extension of the civil service method in the federal and municipal governments, the growing popularity of the commission form of government, the growth of governmental research bureaus, and the increasing demand for technical experts in the place of faithful party followers, all indicate a demand for greater efficiency in the management of public activities.¹

New function of government

There is another marked political tendency which should be noted, namely, --the promotion of social welfare. This second function of government was not used

¹ DeWitt, F.P., The Progressive Movement, p. 319.

to any great extent in the past century. The first function of government--the protection of life and property--received all of the emphasis. Considered from this point of view, government was an inhibiting and prohibiting power; its function was negative. Today, it is clearly the proper sphere of government to aid the individual in a number of ways to greater self-realization. The attention which is being directed to public health, recreation, education, correction, and the amelioration of distress, are indicative of this change in governmental activity. Each year the function of government is becoming broader, demanding an increase in governmental machinery and a corresponding increase in civic intelligence on the part of the electorate. Public revenues are being used to support these activities, which means that the citizen must frequently decide upon the expenditure supported by public taxation. One of the greatest drawbacks to many of the great progressive measures is the parsimony of the electorate. Such is the case as regards education in the state of Missouri at the present time.

Increase of non-political agencies

To the end of the advancement of social interests, there have grown up a great many non-political agencies. These are frequently auxiliaries of the political government and are organized to carry on activities which are entirely devoid of any political character. The great civic leagues, neighborhood clubs, improvement clubs of various kinds, societies for the control of disease,

charitable associations, and many others aid the political agencies.¹ On the other hand many societies take for their particular work the business of arousing public opinion through education and publicity. In all there are many extra-political organizations^s which are supplementing the work of government and carrying on work which is still without the pale of governmental action. It is very essential that the citizen recognize these institutions which are worthy of his support and influence.

Demand for equality of opportunity

One of the growing social principles is the equalization of opportunity so that each individual can utilize his ability to its greatest efficiency in society.² There is also implied in this the principle that no individual has the right to advance himself through the exploitation of another. The principle is a subtle one and is closely bound up with the general spirit of social service. Today we recognize that all are not "created equal" and that all are not "endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." These conditions are plainly against facts of biological inheritance and of social environment. But on the other hand, it is the duty of society to see that all have opportunities for the expression of those capacities which will make for the general welfare of both the individual and the group. This social attitude is not fully

1. Eliot, C.W., The Conflict between Individualism and Collectivism in a Democracy, pp.23-25.
 2. Nearing, S., Social Adjustment, p.5.

accepted but the tendency exists.

Greater care for the unfortunate

It can be readily seen that many of the unfortunate such as physical and mental defectives, would come under the general consideration and care of the social group. Today, more than at any time, attention is being directed to these unfortunates. Already great measures have been taken to enable them to realize as much as their abilities permit. Special classes are formed for the youthful feebleminded, the tubercular are provided with open air schools, the blind, deaf, and dumb are being given special care, and there are marked movements to aid all who are in any way incapacitated.

Relation of social tendencies to civics

But what do these tendencies have to do with the question of the need for civics? It is generally held that the individual should have an understanding of conditions in his society. It is the true function of the school to fit its students for the life which they are living and for the future. In this period of transition from the individualistic to the social ideal the school has a peculiar duty to aid in the development of the social ideal. Civic education should recognize the following tendencies:

Recognition of the meaning of democracy and the growing tendencies in the direction of greater influence of the masses

Recognition of the individual's responsibilities to the social group

The recognition that the education of the public opinion is more effective than political action

The acceptance of the doctrine that each individual should have an opportunity to assert himself in so far as he is able unhampered by the selfish exploitation of any other individual

The recognition that the welfare of the group is dependent upon the welfare of its members.

The feeling of deeper personal concern in regard to the welfare of all the members of the group

Today, when so many of the material conditions are antagonistic to the personal relationships which existed in a simpler society, there is a need of some means by which the individual will come to have a deeper sense of obligation to the group. Political troubles, corruption, misunderstandings and harsh dealings in business, crime, poverty, delinquency, and labor troubles, would be greatly minimized by the adoption of the new social attitude. A striking example of the lack of social cooperation and its consequence is seen in the case of the burning of East Youngstown during the past winter. The miners, on a strike, infuriated by fiery speeches and alcohol, devastated a large portion of the business section of the city. The better classes of citizens who had prospered through the patronage of the miners and who had never recognized them as an integral part of their community, were severely injured by their own negligence of their social obligation.

II. Individual Conditions

Mistaken attitude toward youth

But what are the demands of the individual? What interests do the boys and girls of high school age have in the social life about them? It is strange that these little men and women have not been recognized as real members of society until recent years. And even today they are looked upon more as children than as young men and women. We have failed to recognize that they live in the same society in which men and women live, In fact, they are citizens. In a negative way society recognizes this great class. The problem of the young criminal, immorality of youth, lack of vocational fitness, and the lack of ideals and standards, are all recognized as serious problems. On the other hand, little is done to direct youth into wholesome social activities. In short, the community should recognize the great amount of interest and energy of youth which could be turned into the most useful service. Today, it is almost wholly disregarded.

Social interests of youth

Youth is interested in the social life in his environment.¹ Nearly all the experiences of the young are social. The child is mostly interested in his immediate social life--the family, and his play group--

¹ Hall, G.S., Adolescence Vol. II, "Social Interests."

but during early adolescence, boys and girls begin to take a great deal of interest in the other social institutions. They begin to understand social organization. They have a strong feeling of co-operation, which is frequently expressed in gangs, cliques, boy-scout and camp-fire organizations, and many other societies. They want to join something; they want to feel that they are an integral part of some effective social body. During this time, boys and girls begin to have a strong love for their own locality. Patriotism is strong. Loyalty to local groups is very much in evidence. High school boys and girls have pride in their high school, athletic teams, and in any manifestation of local superiority. One of the queerest cases of this feeling is the attitude high school boys and girls have for athletic teams of a neighboring high school. Some of this attitude is bad, and is worthy of direction, but on the whole it is a clear manifestation of social interest. This loyalty, too, is marked by the willingness to submerge or forego individual interests for the interest of the group. In fact, the spirit of altruism is very much in evidence. With such attitude he is better equipped to approach a study of the social organization of his community.

Social desires of youth

The youth has a strong desire to participate in adult affairs.¹ He finds great pleasure in testing himself. Adult activities are his goal. He tries to

¹ Hall, G.S., op. cit., p. 453.

adopt the mannerisms of his elders. With what pride does a boy wear his first suit of long clothes! His experiences have been largely affected by adult ideals, and he is intimately associated with people who are really active in practical life. He is eager to reach the next stage of his development. The approval of adults gives him the greatest satisfaction. This is logical, for it means that he is approaching his standard of excellence. With what zest and enthusiasm does a farm boy perform his work when he is told that he does it as well as a man could do it! Boys and girls are ever seeking the approval of adults. But what significance does this bear to civic training? It is clear that youth is vitally interested in life about him, and it is equally clear that information and participation in community life, if approved by the adult population, add greatly to the enthusiasm and effectiveness of the younger citizenship.

Ethical attitudes of youth

The boy and girl of high school age have a strong sense of moral and personal obligation.¹ Our educational system seems to have failed to recognize these qualities. Many times there seems to be a disposition to act as if moral obligations are of little interest, but the rank and file of youth are really anxious to know what is right and to act accordingly.

¹ Hall, G.S. op. cit., p. 87 seq.; pp. 373-374.
King, I., The High School Age, pp. 104, 105, 120-123.

Youth is earnestly endeavoring to find out the controlling principles of life. Again, the sense of fairness and justice is exceedingly accurate, but frequently needs direction. Youth is naturally progressive and eager to see reform. The school should aid its boys and girls to obtain the best social attitudes of the times.

Youth's interest in the practical

Along with his appreciation of social and moral judgements, there must come the consideration of his interest in the practical and concrete.¹ He thinks in terms of the concrete. His experiences have been such. His experiences have been too limited and his knowledge of technical terms too meager to fully understand generalizations. He is pragmatic in philosophy. He is seeking purpose and meaning.² He does not care for theory, nor does he enjoy a long drawn out investigation. He does enjoy the popular treatment of a problem and its practical workings. It must be admitted that his study is not thorough or is it scientific. It is far more worthwhile to answer a number of questions which he has in mind and to engender a deeper appreciation of civic responsibility than to deaden all his interest in social life by an abstract technical study of society or any one phase of it.

Youth's love of variation

Another characteristic of the adolescent is

¹ Hall, G.S., op. cit. p. 153.

² Ibidem, pp. 88-89.

appreciation of change. As has been indicated above, he is not very logical in his manner of thinking. A long comprehensive study of a single topic wearies and discourages him; he would rather study a number of topics. Community life affords him countless variations and interests.

CHAPTER II

AIMS OF TEACHING COMMUNITY CIVICS

I. The School's Responsibility to Society

Influence of the school on social attitudes

The public schools must in a large measure be the training schools of democracy. The State finances and administers the schools for the training of an efficient citizenship.¹ It is not the ideal of the American state to train the individual for the exclusive service of the political government, but rather to claim him in those activities which will best promote his individual welfare and the welfare of the group. It is certainly not domination by the State to provide that the individual be trained to be a citizen who not only is obedient to the law but who is likewise willing and eager to co-operate for the best interests of the social groups. It is certainly not too much to ask the schools to teach the young citizens how the public health is guarded, how and why public recreation is provided, how life and property is protected, how certain conditions give rise to crime and delinquency, and numerous problems of equal importance. Certainly the political government and society at large have a right to expect that education will decrease lawlessness, crime, delinquency, disease, wastefulness of human life and happiness, ignorance, indifference as to

¹ Betts, G.H., Social Principles in Education, p. 85.

general social welfare and the evil of individual selfishness. Since no accurate study has been made that shows the efficiency of civic training in practical life, it is a very difficult matter to say scientifically just how much education has aided great social movements. There can be very little question as to the role which education has played in the establishment of certain ideals in the German people.¹ Many of our perverted ideas of patriotism can be traced directly to the public school. The efficacy of educational campaigns for improvement of public health and carried on for the public at large, is evidenced in the reduction of tuberculosis in the state of New York.² It goes without saying that a similar campaign in the schools would have produced greater results.

The capacity of the school for civic education

The school should take on the function of civic education because the conditions in the school are better than those of any other institution. The average teacher is more intelligent in regard to civic affairs than the average citizen. And the fact that the greater number of our teachers are women is not overlooked. With courses of study which include the study of the social life of the community, and with emphasis on the study of local conditions in methods of teaching, the average teacher would become far better equipped than the common man of the street for civic education. The school, too,

¹ Russell, J.E., Teachers College Record, Vol. 17, p. 118.

² New York Board of Health, Monthly Bulletin, April, 1916.

can accumulate materials for the teaching of community civics. It has better opportunities to study conditions at first hand than the home. It has a chance to call on a greater number of people to help in instruction. The school could well use the most efficient citizens in the instruction in civic education. The school, too, is itself a society; the relationships of teacher to student, of student to student, and of student to the regulations of the institution, all give an opportunity for the teaching of new social obligations. The school should provide activities for the training of social relationships.

II. Aims of Teaching Community Civics

Definition of social environment

What specific things should the school teach in regard to citizenship? The school should help boys and girls to understand the social life about them. Young people should be brought to understand the problems which confront society. They should know the various social functions and activities of agencies which carry out these functions. Both political and voluntary agencies should be studied. They should become acquainted with the problems and agencies of other communities wherein profit could be gained through comparison. They should be made to feel their own responsibility in the matter of community welfare. It must be borne in mind that a study of community civics includes not only those conditions and

activities of the specific locality but also all of those activities which have their origin or administration in the larger communities such as the state and nation. This definition will become clearer through the use of concrete examples of the things to be studied in community life.

Instruction in nature of social surroundings

What should high school boys and girls know about their social environment? It is very strange that even adults know very little about the social world in which they live except that part which is closest to them. We are so bound up in our own personal existence. The same truth applies to youth. However, youth is interested in knowing about the problems of his community. The school should teach him concerning community problems. Adequate civic training should make young citizens observant of individual health and of community health. The danger of dirty streets, of undestroyed garbage and sewage, and of dirt in any form should be recognized. Boys and girls ought to have a feeling of indignation when they see dirty streets, uncollected garbage, unscreened food, unsanitary homes, and dirty stores. They should know why such conditions are dangerous and how they can be remedied. They should know the significance of fires to the community from an economic standpoint and they should know the function of the fire department and the factors which make for its efficiency. The study of art in the public schools should mean more than the appreciation of the beauty of nature or the appreciation of fine art.

1. Goodwin, F.P., Ohio Educational Magazine, Vol. 59, p. 419.

It should create a sense of disgust for the ugly spots of home surroundings, of the neighborhood, and of the city. The young citizens should not be satisfied with the billboards with their lurid advertisements, with treeless streets, with unkept yards, and with the grotesqueness of many of our public buildings. In the study of transportation facilities, such topics as construction and maintenance of streets, roads, boulevards, and sidewalks, the financing of public works, road usages, traffic regulations, and the regulation of railways and street railways would aid students in knowing their own community. The problems of the street railways and the railroads involve the larger communities- the state and the nation. These problems bring in the recognition of the larger community groups which are, in many cases, no less essential to the individual's welfare than the local group. Other topics which should be studied are: public recreation, education, public communication, correction, charities, and other problems of equal importance.

Knowledge of materials on civic affairs

Aside from the study of the problems themselves, there is a need to find out the tools by which the study of community problems can be made. The young citizen should become acquainted with the materials and sources of civic information. He should come to know the use of the local paper as a source of information concerning

community problems. He should be able to understand the reports of a charity organization, of a meeting of the council, of election notices, of health departments, and of any other department of the civic body. He should also use the newspapers to find out what other communities are doing to improve their conditions. How much attention does the average citizen pay to the report of the water board, a call from the welfare board, the petition of a women's civic league for more stringent milk ordinances, or the plan for the future beautification of the city? It is not claimed that he should be a careful student of all the publications and reports of the various departments of the political and voluntary organizations, but he should know that these publications exist so in case of need he could refer to them. He should become acquainted with the important documents of the state and national governments, and of the great societies, such as the National Civic Federation, the National Municipal League, and the National Board of Charities and Correction. He should know about his city's annual report, the Official Directory of Missouri (if he is a citizen of this state), the Abstract of the Census, and the Congressional Directory, if he is at all interested in national affairs. He should know why the Congressional Record is; should know about the bulletins of the State Board of Health, bulletins or leaflets of the city board, the news-letters of these various agencies, and the bulletins of the Department of Preventive Medi-

cine in the University of Missouri. He should know that these agencies are open to his inquiries. It is essential that he be able to interpret information from graphs, diagrams, and exhibits. He should know the use and significance of a municipal or state reference bureau. Such magazines as the American City, Playgrounds, National Municipal Review, and other civic magazines should be known. The Annals of the American Academy, the yearbooks, conference reports, and proceedings of conventions, are important sources of information. He should have some acquaintance with books on general phases of municipal government by Howe, Zueblin, Wilcox, Munro, and other American writers. It would also be well for him to know a few of the standard authorities on government, economics, and sociology. But it is hoped that the idea that all knowledge is bound up in printed form is not established. These means are in many ways more tangible and more economical, but they never lend the inspiration that comes from knowledge at first hand.

Methods of studying social conditions

A second important aim is to train the youth in methods of study of social problems, to train his judgements in such matters, and to arouse such an appreciation that wholesome initiative will result.¹ There is no need of a long discussion here in regard to

¹ Davis, M.M., Cincinnati Conference for Good City Government, pp. 380-381.

the methods which the youthful citizen should acquire. What do intelligent adult citizens do when a problem is recognized? They set out at once to study the problem, in the following manner: they survey the actual conditions which give rise to the problem; they find the causes; they investigate possible methods of solutions, both theoretical and practical (which means broader observations in the activities of other communities); they organize accumulated data; they weigh the evidence in the light of local conditions; and, finally, they adopt some solution or plan. The youthful citizens should adopt similar methods of study. Suppose that they are interested in a better milk supply for the community. It would be well to follow this procedure: they visit dairies and places where milk is sold; they study the dangers of bad milk; if possible, they find out the condition of milk samples through study in the school's science laboratory, or they inquire about its purity from the city board of health; they find out the rate and causes of infant mortality; they investigate the city ordinances, agencies of enforcement and of investigation; they find out what other communities have done; they determine the responsibility of the individual citizen; and, they determine what the community ought to do in regard to the problem of pure milk. There are many problems of community life which are real problems, such as pure

food supply, prevention of disease, better transportation facilities, establishment of playgrounds for children and means of adult recreation, cheaper light and water, bird protection, the purification of political parties, and the promotion of more efficient government.

The training of judgement in civic problems

It cannot be claimed, in the light of present day psychology, that any general mental training will result from the study of civic problems, but it is safe to affirm that the study of such problems will develop a technique of handling, and the ability to judge, such data with greater accuracy and efficiency. Judgements are based on experiences; the greater the experiences, the more apt are the judgements to be sound. Judgement is a great factor in the development of appreciation, for it gives some foundation for a feeling of worth.¹ It is also to be hoped that the student will get the habit of demanding more and better data in trying to formulate a judgement. There is a serious need of more reasoning in questions of common policy. Too much dependence is being placed in "snap" judgements. It may be that the citizens of Kansas City will regret their hasty approval of the time extension of the street railway franchise.

Appreciation of social evolution

There is a need on the part of society at large to accept the theory of social evolution.²

¹ Charters, W.W., Methods of Teaching, p. 202.

² Davis, C.O., History Teachers Magazine, Vol. 4, p. 70.

Problems, functions, agencies, and reforms, do not just happen. There is a gradual growth of human institutions the same as there is biological evolution. The acceptance of this principle would lead to greater tolerance and patience as well as indicate the only rational means by which change can come about.

Development of civic initiative

Perhaps the most difficult task in teaching community civics is to make the student feel such a responsibility that positive action will result. One of the most serious indictments that can be made against us as a nation is our indifference to grave public questions. There is a need of a new patriotism, perhaps not so much the kind that makes for military preparedness, but that makes for national preparedness of a more fundamental nature. We have a great number of problems of a domestic nature which require courage and self-sacrifice. How can the sense of civic duty be aroused? The young citizen must be made to feel the need of his attention and effort. This appreciation is both intellectual and emotional in character. The value of methods of study and the training of judgement have been indicated above. One thing is clear--the student must feel the reasonableness of social demands. The youth is a pragmatist. He must be shown the practicability of the measure. It must be shown that disregard of quarantine laws brings grave danger to everyone, that carelessness

in regard to fire brings additional burdens to the community, and that a community which disregards provisions for the leisure occupations of its people pays the highest interest for that neglect. Youth must be made to feel the immediate responsibility to the social group.

Appreciation of leisure in civic life

More and more we are thinking of the importance of leisure in the life of the individual and in the social life of the community. We are realizing two important facts about leisure: first, that leisure occupations are normal life activities, and second, that much of social maladjustment is due to the neglect of leisure. Jane Addams did much to turn the public mind to this important problem. The wonderful progress of the recreational movement throughout this country is the greatest indication of the acceptance of this doctrine. There is need of education along this line. The following clipping is an argument in itself.

Working to Live

"Speaking of laboring men, an engineering authority writes in the New York Evening Post of a conversation he had with a very competent Belgian workman, whom he had known in the old country and afterwards in Pittsburgh. The immigrant had been here some two years and made this comparison:

In Belgium I had my little home in the country surrounded by green fields and everything was pleasant. In Belgium my children respected their parents, kissed the hands of my wife and myself, and addressed us as "father" and "mother". I had my friends. We had our fete day, and life was pleasant. In this country I receive three times the wages. I live in a dark flat in the dirty city of Pittsburgh. My children treat me with contempt; they call my wife "mom" and me "pop". I have my friends

but I must meet them in saloons reeking of beer and liquors; my sole amusement is limited to moving pictures; I have none of the pleasures of life; therefore I will go back to Belgium.

Is this why some Americans oppose the notion of fighting for their country."¹

The great bulk of our juvenile delinquency and crime, much of our physical impotency, and most^{of} our joyless living, are the results of lack or misuse ^{of} leisure. The teaching of the importance of leisure and training people to enjoy leisure, are important functions of the school. The whole problem is so closely related to social welfare that it is a legitimate function of civics to point out its importance.

Provision for individual interests

Civic training should open up new fields of interest to the individual. The interest need not always be in the study of serious problems of social life, but one should find pleasure in casual reading and observation in matters of social welfare. In his reading at odd and leisure moments, one should find pleasure in keeping in touch with progress in civic affairs the world over; his travel should be enriched by close observation of civic progress and forward movements in the communities which he visits.

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Collier's Weekly, Vol. 57, p. 15.

CHAPTER III

DEFECTS IN THE TRADITIONAL HIGH SCHOOL COURSE
IN CIVICS

I. Status of the Study of Civics

Small interest in training for citizenship

In looking over the recent books on the teaching of various subjects of the secondary curriculum, one is surprised to find either a total absence or at least a very brief discussion of subjects which bear directly on the training for citizenship. Very slight mention is made of the subject in such books as Johnson's The Modern High School, Judd's Psychology of High School Subjects, and Monroe's Principles of Secondary Education. There is a dearth of material on this subject in current periodicals. However, one of the hopeful signs is the fact that during the past year or two there have appeared a number of articles in The History Teachers' Magazine. The most promising fact, however, is that the Committee of Social Sciences of the Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Educational Association, and The American Political Science Association, are at work on plans for more effective courses in training for citizenship. The preliminary reports indicate such serious defects in our present so-called civics that there is need of boldly striking out in a new direction in order to meet the demands of society and the needs of the individual as a citizen.

The Committee did not take time to make any extended criticism of civics courses as they exist today.¹ Perhaps, in the omission of such criticism, it indicated the immediate need of better civic instruction and made a stronger case by showing what ought to be done. In the early part of 1915 the National Bureau of Education sent out a questionnaire on the training for citizenship. The findings have not as yet been published. The fact that there has been an interest shown in the National Bureau is significant. But, on the other hand, outside of that effort and the work which the National Municipal League is doing, there is exceedingly slight interest manifested. As has been indicated, there is little evidence of any serious study in educational publications and no greater interest is evident in educational meetings, state or national. There are a few places in this country where some serious attempts are being made, outside of civic education for immigrants, to really train our boys and girls of high school age to be good citizens. Beginnings are being made in Massachusetts by the State Department of Education, in Willmington (Mass.), Philadelphia, Indianapolis, Chicago, and Cincinnati.² There seem to be but two schools in Missouri giving any new courses in civics--Moberly High School and the University High School, Columbia.

¹ Special Committee of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. N.E.A. Bulletin 21, 1913.

² Special Committee, Teaching of Community Civics, United States Bureau of Education Bulletin 23, 1915.

There is no particular demand of a popular nature for civic training except in the desire for a more practical education. Although this is true, the writer believes that a more practical civics would be heartily received. The influence that the "hyphenated American" is asserting on the education of the immigrant may stimulate a greater interest in the general field of civic education. The whole problem of civic education should be carefully studied. If a broad survey of the present status of civics in the secondary curriculum could be made which would include: (1) aims of civic instruction, (2) the amount of time devoted to the subject, (3) methods of teaching, and, (4) the effect of the teaching; if definite principles underlying the subject could be found; and, if definite standards were adopted whereby civic training could be measured, society would be greatly aided.

With the lack of any great amount of data, the criticisms here presented must in large part rest upon the discussions found in periodicals and books, upon the experience of the writer in the teaching of high school civics, and upon the judgements made in the examination of text-books and the observation of teaching.

II. Criticism of Text-books

Influence of text-books

It may well be asserted that the text-books used are in a large measure the cause of bad instruction

in high school civics. It is a patent fact that the teaching depends to a great degree on the character of the textbook. In other words, the average teacher follows the text-book in conducting the study of the subject. The general method is the "question and answer" type. Relatively little initiative is introduced, and the teachers do not take time to think about the needs of their students or the needs of the larger social group. They do not organize the courses on the basis of such needs, but complacently follow the order of the texts. Teachers are not wholly to blame for this condition, because, as yet, little has been done to give them adequate preparation. It can be readily seen that, since the text-books hold such an important place in instruction, fundamental weaknesses in regard to viewpoint, organization and treatment, greatly influence the quality and success of civic instruction.

Method of criticism

What are the defects in the present day high school texts in civics. It is well to examine a number of the texts which are used most commonly. In this examination the better class of high school texts is used. These texts are: Gitteau's Government and Politics in the United States (1912), Ashley's American Government (1910), and James and Sanford's Government in State and Nation (1909). Texts less commonly used are also examined.

The three texts named are suggested as among the best by a committee of the North Central Association of Secondary Schools.¹ As has been suggested, the examination is in reference to the purpose of the book, the arrangement of material, and the adaptability of the material in the light of the needs of society and the individual, and also in the light of the psychic nature of the adolescent. In the past, little attention was really paid to the latter factor except that it was thought that adolescent nature required simplified adult material. The second fundamental defect was the fact the text looked upon the high school boy and girl as prospective citizens, not as real citizens until the right of suffrage is assumed.

Lack of adolescent point of view

Too many of our high school texts in civics are written by college professors who have little or no experience and knowledge of adolescents. James W. Garner, of the Department of Political Science of the University of Illinois, is the author of a standard college text on political science. J.A. James and A.H. Sanford are college teachers. J.A. Woodburn, the author of The American Republic, is a writer on larger phases of political science and professor of political science in the University of Indiana. S.E. Forman writes both high school and college texts. Charles A. Beard, Associate Professor of Political Science in Columbia University, is the author of college

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Preliminary report, "Status of Civics Teaching", p. 3.

texts and also joint author of American Citizenship, a book for high school freshmen. It is not to be understood that because the author of a book for high school pupils is a college professor the book has no worth. But there is great probability that such an author has the college point of view and has little knowledge of the needs and interests of students in secondary schools.

One of the objections to the college attitude is that advanced civics is treated as the technical science of government, i.e., as political science. There are very few texts which do not begin with a chapter on the various theories of the origin of the state, the process of evolution, definitions of government, of sovereignty, of nation, of state, of constitution, of the forms of the state, or, with the forms of the state, classifications of governments, the division of powers and the functions of the state. These topics are in the outline of the first chapter of Gitteau's Government and Politics in the United States. Woodburn, in his The American Republic, devotes the first chapter of forty-five pages to "The Principles of the Fathers." The following are some of the paragraph topics: "Right of Constitutional Government," "Right of Self-taxation," "The Science of Government is an Historical Science," "Political Doctrines are Relative," "Locke, and the Right of Revolution and Resistance," "Consent of the Governed," and "Self-government is the Ideal, the goal."

The chapter continues with a discussion of theories of political science which is technical, abstract, and wholly beyond the experience or interests of the high school student. The material is not only unadapted to the needs and nature of the student, but it does not satisfy the social demands of the community. It may be that these theories would be of value to the individual who understood the conditions giving rise to the need of governmental agencies and to one who is familiar with their workings, but certainly not to one who has very little knowledge about any of these matters. Instead, society would have the student know the social problems and their solutions and respond to the immediate civic "stimulus." The knowledge and appreciation of social needs must exist before there can be any constructive theorizing on principles of social control.¹

Over-emphasis on governmental machinery

A second defect in present day civics texts is the emphasis placed on the machinery of government, whereas the real need is an understanding of the social situations which require co-operative action on the part of citizens.¹ The criticism is very well stated by the Special Committee of the National Educational Association in the following: "Many courses in civics fail because they fix attention upon the machinery of government rather than upon the elements of community welfare for

¹ Goodwin, F.P., Ohio Educational Monthly, p. 59.

which government exists; that is, they familiarize the pupil with the manipulation of the social machinery without showing him the importance of the social ends for which this machinery should be used. Consequently, the pupil, upon leaving school, uses his knowledge for the ends which are most evident to him, namely, his own selfish interests".¹

The writers of texts in civics evidently assume that the student is thoroughly familiar with his social environment. If the school does not provide definite instruction and training in citizenship, how can the average student whose parents have little time to explain community conditions and responsibilities, or, more likely, are themselves ignorant of the essential facts in regard to their community be expected to play an intelligent part in the complex social life of today? Present day traditional civics fails miserably to adjust the high school student to his social environment and fails to give him such information and attitudes as will make him a constructive agent in society.²

Do the present day texts in civics meet the interests and needs of the high school student ?

" My aim in the presentation of this book has been to present in an elementary way the leading facts concerning the organization and the activities of the national, state, and local government in the United States".³

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1. Teaching of Community Civics, United States Bureau of Education Bulletin 1915; 23, p.12.
 2. Sheldon, W.D., Education, Vol.36, pp. 80-81.
 3. Garner, W.B., Government in the United States, p.3.

"In presenting each of these fields (local, state, and national) of study, the same general plan of treatment has been followed: first, the origin of government has been briefly outlined, so that the relation of government to history may be understood; second, the structure or machinery of government has been described; and third, the function or activities of government have been presented, special emphasis being laid upon this phase of the subject." ¹

Gitteau--whose book is most widely used--devotes three chapters to the discussion of municipal government, viz., "The Development of the Municipality," "Municipal Organization," and "Municipal Activities". "Municipal Organization" has the following headings of paragraphs: "Organization of the council," "Legislative powers of the council," "Council's political power," "Financial power of the council," "The mayor's administrative powers", "Judicial powers of the mayor," "Administrative officials," and "The board system versus the single commission system".² The next ten pages of the book were devoted to "Municipal Development". From the reading of the topics in the next chapter, "Municipal Activities", among which are "Control of public health," "Public recreation," and "Poor Relief," one would judge that the text was taking up some really practical problems. But upon examination one finds only a few statements in regard to the topics, a treatment wholly inadequate to indicate the necessity of social control. The adult citizen does not study civic problems by making a strict scientific classification of

¹ Gitteau, W.B., Government and Politics in the United States, Preface, p. iii.

² Ibidem, p. 50-58.

of the governmental agencies according to the spheres of local, state, and national action. He does not approach the study by finding the agency, but rather by finding the need of some improvement or reform which calls for the action of some social agency. It is his problem to see the social needs and then try to find out how society can best handle it for the highest welfare of the group. It is little wonder that the civics text is so "dry", being a mere outline description of governmental machinery, with most of the human elements left out.

Over-emphasis on the historical

Civics is too often treated as an offshoot of history.¹ The defects here are two: (1) Much of civics is treated as constitutional history, and (2) it is written with the intention that it be studied together with or following a course in history. It seems reasonable to the writer that civics should stand on its own merits--of interpreting the social environment to the students so as to give them necessary knowledge and a sense of their responsibility to meet their civic obligations in an efficient manner. There can be little doubt that the historical survey will aid in the development of a sense of appreciation, but not more so than a realization of immediate social needs which are matters of common responsibility and call for collective action. If there must be a choice between the two, let it be in

¹ Report of the Committee of Five, Proceedings of the American Political Science Association, 1908, 233.

favor of the latter. There may be a great deal of debate over the statement that the understanding of present day institutions is made clearer by the study of their development; there can be little question as to which is the more valuable to the citizen, a discussion of the "History of Municipal Growth" or "The Workings of the Kansas City Board of Public Welfare".¹ This lecture was a lesson in civics. The audience was realizing some of the needs of a large municipality and how they are met. At present a keen classification of the values of civics and an acceptance of these values is needed. In such an evaluation, the study of present social conditions and of contemporary methods of control should supercede the study of origins and historical developments. If time and value warrants it, and if there is absolute assurance that the students understand modern problems and agencies of control, there may be some value in an historical survey. But there is a further objection to it, on the ground that the experiences of the student are not sufficient to understand such a study. If his experience were large, there would be little reason for the study of civics at all. It is false to assume that the high school student will approach the study of his own environment, his own community, through the historical route. At present there is a decided movement on the

¹ Billikoff, Jacob, Lecture at University Assembly, April 7, 1916.

part of civics teachers to separate civics from history and likewise to minimize the amount of historical material in the study of civics.¹ In 1904 the New England History Teachers' Association remonstrated that too much civics was taught as constitutional history, and that civics was treated as a "poor relative of history". In 1908 the American Political Science Association advocated the complete separation of civics from history.² James Sullivan, Principal of the Boys' High School, Brooklyn, says:

"Notwithstanding the great activity of civic bodies and civic associations in all parts of the country, civics, as a subject in school, is still in a very unsatisfactory condition. In spite of the emphatic statements of various committees, it is still taught in the form of constitutional history and the pupil gets little notion of the way in which the government is actually being carried on at the present time."³

Artificial separation of social activities

Another defect in civics text-books is the arrangement of the material according to the divisions of government--local, state, and national--instead of according to the needs which the individual may have wherein these agencies would function. It is pretty well agreed today that the local government should be the starting point of study and should be emphasized. This is an advance over the older notion, and is a partial recognition of the psychological principle of apperception. But to put the principle fully in force, it would seem logical to use the individual in his relation to

¹ Report of the North Central Association of Secondary Schools, op. cit., p. 2.

² Monroe, Paul, Cyclopedia of Education, "Civics".

³ Monroe, Paul, ibidem.

social needs as the center around which converge all of the governmental and non-political agencies which may affect him. As an example, the citizen does not first study the offices and the organization of the Health Department and then find out its functions; rather, unsanitary conditions, a smallpox epidemic, contaminated food, or the increase of infant mortality, cause him to find out ~~what~~ agencies control these situations and how these agencies can be made more efficient. The specific breakdown of the normal social condition gives rise to a problem; the need of readjustment is felt; a solution is found; and there is an appreciation of the situation.¹ The social needs give rise to the question of agencies and machinery and the administration. The older civics begins the study with the agency and then takes up its function.

In practical life there is no "Chinese Wall" between the functions of the local, state, and national governments. In a great many cases all three serve in the same activity. For example, in food protection, the city has health or food ordinances, the state may have additional laws and machinery to protect foods, and the national government has the Food and Drug Act of 1906. The problem of the citizen is to know how he may be protected against adulterated and unsanitary food. All three governmental agencies co-operate for his protection.

¹ Charters, W.W., Theory of Teaching, pp. 187-188.

Is not the problem of purity of food the rational approach to study in this case? The problem of community welfare must first be found, and then the agencies studied, whether they be local, state, or national.

Neglect of local government

In a lecture some years ago, Charles Zueblin said that the salvation of the nation would come through the political regeneration of our cities. Judging from the texts in civics, it would seem that this salvation would come from the national government. Professor Gillette, writing on "The Reconstruction of History for Teaching",¹ said that it was more important to know how community health is safeguarded than to trace out the intricacies of a presidential election. The administration of our local governments is extremely inefficient. The fundamental cause is the ignorance and stupidity of the citizens. An enlightened citizenship, aroused to civic action, is greatly needed. How do the texts in civics treat this important problem? The following table indicates the treatment given in three well known texts.

Allotment of pages to Divisions of Government

		Local		State		National	
	pages	percent.	pages	percent	pages	percent.	
Gitteau ^u	36	8	133	30.6	205	61.4	
Ashley	25	6	161	40.7	209	53.3	
James and Sanford	43	12	64	18.0	249	69	

¹ School Review, Vol. 17, pp. 548-557.

In the case of state government, there may be some pages which also belong to the local government, but the results would not be changed to any great extent. It can be clearly seen that there is an undue amount of space given to the larger agencies of government with which the average citizen has very little to do. On the other hand, that part of the government which is nearest to him and which affects him most is woefully neglected. The query may be raised in regard to certain grave omissions in the chapters on local government. The consideration of rural agencies is almost wholly neglected, despite the fact that the larger percent of our people live in rural communities and despite the fact that more pupils attend the three teacher-high school than any other type. It must not be inferred from this statement that all students should make a study of rural problems but it does mean that adequate treatment of such problems should be found in the texts which are used in the rural communities.

Omission of the non-political agencies

One of the most significant defects of these texts in civics is the omission of any discussion of the voluntary or non-political agencies. There is no mention of many of the civic organizations which are so potent in community life.

" Old time civics concerned itself only with the governmental agencies for community welfare, whereas this course (Community Civics) in civics includes also

I. Gillette, J.M., Constructive Rural Sociology, Chapter I.

those voluntary agencies that are established by certain members of the community either for the promotion of the interests of a group of people, or for the welfare of the entire community. This inclusion is of course in every way for the establishment of governmental agencies when the community is educated up to that point." 1

Neighborhood improvement clubs, civic leagues, charity organizations, commercial clubs, social center organizations, health societies, educational societies, charitable and educational foundations, juvenile organizations, recreational associations, and a great number of other institutions, are all intimately bound up in the community life. Should not these voluntary agencies be a part of civics as well as the political agencies?

III Criticism of the Teaching of Civics

Lack of spirit and purpose in civics teaching

In addition to good material to work with, the teacher must have a definite purpose in teaching civics and must show enthusiasm. The very teaching itself is a civic obligation. If the teacher does not possess initiative and interest in such work, there is little need to try to arouse youthful citizens to a more appreciative sense of citizenship. Too often the teacher lacks the social viewpoint.² There are many teachers who do not feel the importance of the common social problems of today. The State does not need

¹ Briggs, T.H. "Report on Secondary Education," in Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1915.

² Dunn, A.W., "The Trend of Civic Education," in Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1914.

teachers merely, but teachers who are citizens and patriots as well. G. Stanley Hall advocates instilling in teachers the "gospel of social service":-

"The vocation of teaching should furnish many true saints for the calendar of this new religion, and would if the schoolroom were indeed a workshop of the Holy Ghost and if teaching were done with the abandon and self-abnegation which makes the work an inspiration to both teacher and pupil and which gives some of the spirit of consecration to the race which should be the religion of business of whatever kind..... We are testing ourselves as well as our institutions by this new touchstone of service. Service is the highest criterion of the worth of lives. It is the modern judgement day version. Its still small voice is now murmuring in the ears of all who can hear it and is asking each, What are you doing to help the world, you, here and now, to make those who come in contact with you better and happier? Indeed, these things should be taught with religious, if not pentecostal fervor. In honoring and serving men as we long served God, and in living for and in the present as we long did for a future life, we seem to be at the dawn of a new dispensation, imminent rather than transcendent, and perhaps already hardly less full of promise and potency than the old." ¹

The school should take up the work of social service and there is no crime in the acceptance of the fervor of social reform as long as it is consistent with our best knowledge. There is every reason why the teacher of civics and of the social sciences should treat his opportunity as a social trust and teach with the hope of promoting social welfare.

Lack of sociological preparation

One of the most serious causes of this purposeless teaching is the lack of training in sociology and the other social sciences. It is also necessary that

¹ Hall, G.S., Educational Problems, Vol. 2, pp. 671-675.

teachers participate to a greater extent in civic activities, proving his or her efficiency as a citizen, or the civic teaching will be a sham. There are two serious difficulties, however, in the way: (1) a taboo on the entrance of teachers in civic affairs, and (2) slight civic experience on the part of teachers, a large percentage of whom are women.¹ There may rightly be serious objection to the teacher being a politician, but there should be no opposition to his exercising the rights and duties of an efficient citizen. If the teacher is vitally interested in the community life, his value as a teacher of youthful citizens is greatly enhanced.

Lack of ethical training

In a large measure civic teaching has been the teaching of facts.² There is more in the subject than this. Facts are necessary and fundamental to civic instruction, but ethical training is as important.

Herbert Spencer, while visiting this country, in answer to the question whether universal education would fit men for free institutions, said, as quoted by Sheldon:

"No. It is essentially a question of character, only in a secondary degree a question of knowledge. The idea that mere education, mere knowledge, is a panacea for political ills is a universal delusion."

Mr. Sheldon continues: "Our experience as a nation has abundantly confirmed the truth of his words. The cultivation of the general intelligence counts for little if we stop there. Nor is it enough, valuable as this is as a help to civic efficiency, to indoctrinate our youth in those subjects commonly included in what is called "Civics"--in the machinery of the government

¹ Connolly, R., National Municipal Review, Vol. 3, p. 341.

in city, state, and nation, and in the duties and the functions of its various departments and officials. Some of our most unprincipled politicians have been past-masters in this kind of knowledge, which they have used as a facile tool of their trade, to compass their own personal ends." ¹

Mere learning of facts will not make for civic efficiency.

The dependence on the hope that the real purpose of civic education will manifest itself through the acquisition of knowledge, is false. If suggestion is really to become effective, it must be brought up in the focus of attention. If civic teaching is to profit the individual student, the specific significance of civic attitude or organization must be pointed out. It is true that civics alone will not suffice in the development of the ethical nature of the student. All school subjects should contribute to that end. But it is within the province of civics to point out the social environment and the social responsibilities of the student. Civic teaching must not be "preaching" civic righteousness, but it must be so taught as to inform the youthful citizen of the nature of civic life in such a way as to make him act in his social group-relationships as to further the welfare of the whole.

Need of participation in civic activities

One fundamental weakness in the teaching of civics is its failure to incorporate, through activity, many of the ideals set up in study. The school is not

¹ Sheldon, W.S., Education, Vol. 36, p. 82.

wholly to blame for this condition. Society should recognize the advisability of utilizing the energy and the idealism of youth in promoting civic welfare. It is not within the scope of this chapter to discuss how this may be done, but it may be indicated. School activities may provide some training. Civic leagues, neighborhood improvement associations, and junior chambers of commerce, may provide opportunities for useful activity.¹ Certainly the schools should participate in all civic activities within their ability. Schools could well aid in "clean-up campaigns", "fly crusades", playground agitations, and in some cases the older high school students could aid in making surveys of various natures.²

Limitation of time

As long as only one-half year is devoted to the study of civics in the high school, meager results must be expected. Four years are devoted in many cases to the study of the past and but one-half year to the conditions existing in our own community life. The course as it is today includes too much valuable material to be covered in such a brief time. The material is given in outline and then must be covered at a rapid rate. If the community is studied with any degree of thoroughness, at least one year should be given to its study.

1 "Another shoot for the young idea", Survey, Vol.36,p.62.

2 "Winston-Salem Plan of Training for Citizenship". Senate Documents 188, 63rd. Congress

"Abstract of Final Report of Committee on Instruction, of the American Political Science Association."

CHAPTER IV

CONTENT OF A COURSE IN COMMUNITY CIVICS

I. Definition of Terms

History of the term "civics"

In the previous chapter the defects of the traditional course in civics were indicated; in this chapter the content of a course in community civics will be outlined. The name of the subject will be altered from the traditional name of "civics" or "civil government" to suggest a contrast in the nature of content and aims. The word "community" is added to emphasize the idea of the study of the social elements of the group and of the agencies for social welfare in the immediate environment of the individual. Already the term "community civics" is being freely used in discussions of civic education in secondary schools. The general acceptance of the term began with its espousal by the special committee on Social Sciences of the larger committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Educational Association.¹ But the principles of the course had been worked out before that time. The first attempts at any such course grew out of outlines on city government.² In 1905, at the annual meeting of the National Municipal League and the National Conference for Good City Government held at New York

¹ Civic Education Series; 4, United States Bureau, 1915.

² Committee on Political Science Instruction, American Political Science Association Proceedings, 1908, p. 251.

City, Dr. William H. Maxwell and Dr. J.J. Sheppard presented a report on "Instruction in Municipal Government in Secondary and Elementary Schools". The outlines in these reports marked a radical departure from the older civil government. The use of the historical background was still very prominent, but there were many progressive topics such as: character of officials, influence of political machinery, municipal corruption, reform leagues, actual workings of public officials, public charity, and public morals. From the time of this report, many cities began working out studies of local government, among them Boston, Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago, New York, Philadelphia and Indianapolis. The work of Mr. A.W. Dunn at Indianapolis did more than any other to promote the growth of community civics. Although his labors have been confined almost wholly to the elementary school, yet the general character of his work has been utilized by the Special Committee on Social Sciences in making outlines for the secondary school. Mr. Dunn's ideas have been incorporated in his little book, The Community and the Citizen, and in his bulletin, Civic education in the elementary schools as illustrated in Indianapolis.¹ As yet the outline made by the National Educational Committee is the only constructive work done.

¹ Dunn, A. W., United States Bureau of Education 1915; 17.

Definition of civics

In the past, "civil government" has been the name applied to the study of civics. It had for its task the discussion of the machinery of government, with emphasis on the national government. It is generally recognized by students of the secondary curriculum that the "old" civics is not adequate in its treatment of the social surroundings of students. The "new" civics must recognize that, while the political relationships are still important, there are a great number of social elements which are not understood, as well as various non-political agencies which young citizens should know. In other words, civics can no longer be a study of the phases of political science exclusively, but must include much which belongs to sociology, economics, and current history. In this sense civics has a broader conception; it is the study of those elements of the group life, institutions and agencies, which should be appreciated by the average citizen. It must ever be kept in mind that the need for a course in civics arises out of the necessity for greater civic intelligence in the community.

Definition of "community"

When "community" was first associated with the word "civics", it was given the meaning of the local geographical unit, namely, a township, a town, or a city. But it was soon found that this limited definition would

not include a great deal which is vital for an efficient citizenship. It excluded many of the functions and agencies which belong to the larger social groups but which still play an important part in the everyday activities of any community. To take a concrete case: For the protection of life and property, the local government provides police, marshals, or constables; the county provides the sheriff; the state and national governments have police officials, the militia, the army and the navy. All of these agencies have a relation to the individual citizen. Similarly, in the problem of correction, the local government provides lockups, police stations, detention homes, municipal farms, etc.; the state provides reformatories and a penitentiary; the nation provides national prisons. As far as the individual is concerned, there is little difference in their functions. Merely to discuss the local government of a community would be totally inadequate today when both state and national organizations play such an important part in the social life.

"The federal government is not so far away from the life of the citizen as it once was, and as the economic organization of labor and capital increases the extent of its ramifications throughout the social body, the federal government will inevitably come nearer and nearer the private citizen.....Nevertheless, the function of the state will also increase in importance and the state as a guardian of the fundamental and private interests should grow in the esteem of the citizen." 1

1 Beard, C.A., American Government and Politics pp. 442-443.

With all the modern means of transportation and communication the community has expanded to a far greater sphere than it formerly was. The clearest explanation of the meaning of "community civics" is given by the Committee on the Social Sciences:

"Community civics lays emphasis upon the local community because (1) it is the community with which every citizen, especially the child, comes into most intimate relations, and which is always in the foreground of experience; (2) it is easier for the child, as for any citizen, to realize his membership in the local community, to feel a sense of personal responsibility for it, and to enter into actual cooperation with it, than is the case with the national community.

But our Nation and our State are communities, as well as our city or village, and a child is a citizen of the larger as well as the smaller community. The significance of the term "community civics" does not lie in its geographical implications, but in its implications of community relations, of a community of interests..... It is a question of point of view; and community civics applies this point of view to the study of the national community as well as to the study of the local community." 1

It can be seen that there are several phases of the study of community civics. The first and most important is to acquaint the student with the various elements which go to make up the social welfare of the community. Take a concrete example- the citizen must know those conditions which make for good and bad health of the community, the significance of these conditions of life to the group, and his own personal obligations in the matter. It is more important to know the causes of typhoid fever and the individual's obligations in regard to it than to know the organization of the health department. In the second

1. Teaching of Community Civics, United States
Bureau of Education Bulletin 1915, 23, p.11.

place he should know the political and the non-political agencies which have for their functions the control of the social needs of the community. In this study such agencies as the courts, the fire department, the Department of Agriculture, the state board of health, the civic league, and the public utilities commission are taken up. The agencies of other communities are also studied with the hope of suggestion or improvement. In the third place, throughout the whole study, there must be an attempt made to develop the civic appreciation of the youth in order to produce civic initiative and activity.

Relation of community civics to the social sciences

"Is not community civics infringing upon the fields of some of the social sciences such as sociology, economics, and history?" may be asked. Necessarily a study of the social environment requires the knowledge and the technique of a number of special fields. But this is an advantage in that it is a study wherein the various subjects contribute their important findings. There is a distinct need on the part of the young citizen to know the nature of his social life. The interests of the citizen lap over into various fields and yet he does not hesitate to use material from any field or several fields of the social sciences if that material will aid him in solving a problem.

Almost all civic activities touch several of the social sciences. There seems to be no wrong in accepting this truth and in using all that the various technical fields

will contribute to bring about a better understanding and appreciation. It is not expected that the student will get a scientific knowledge of the fundamentals of the social sciences. He will get little or no theory. The main object is to give him ~~the~~ information and methods which will be of service to him in his participation in the social activities of his community. Incidentally community civics should be an introductory course to the social sciences. It gives a general survey of the social field and should arouse a number of problems which could well be incentives to further study. It has much the same function to the social sciences that General Science has to the natural sciences.

II. Principles Underlying the Selection of Content-Matter

Social requirements

Since the cardinal object of community civics is to acquaint the youthful citizen with those things which vitally concern him as a citizen, the problem is to determine just what things are necessary in such training. To determine this an analysis of the community life is necessary. It must be remembered that such general topics which could well fit any community would have very little practical value in the study of a particular community. That was one of the defects of the old civil government. Each community must, in a large measure, find its own problems. The needs of a rural community are far different from those of a small city or a larger one. Cities, too, differ widely in their problems. What is the best method of determining the social needs and agencies of a community? Today the

survey is fulfilling that function. Social, vocational, and educational surveys are becoming very common and are forming the basis of a great deal of constructive reorganization. The data determined from a social survey would be of the greatest service in determining the content of a course in community civics for the civic needs would be clearly indicated. If, however, no such survey has been made, it would seem advisable to send out a questionnaire asking the judgment of those most familiar with the local conditions in regard to the essentials in a course devised for the training of youthful citizens. It is far better to use a number of judgments in evaluating the material than to depend wholly upon the judgments of the superintendent and the teachers of civics. Those who outline the course should be familiar with the community problems. There is likewise a serious need of a more reliable evaluation of those general topics which concern the individual's relations to the state and national governments. Today there is no determination as to the relative importance of the many items. In the selection of material for civic instruction these questions should be kept in mind: What should the average citizen know about community conditions and agencies ? Is this material adapted to the interests of the adolescent ? Will this material aid in creating such a sense of appreciation that the young citizen will take initiative in civic affairs ?

Individual requirements

The second question above implies another requirement namely, that the material be adapted to the psychic nature of the adolescent. In the past this factor has been largely neglected save in a feeble effort in which college texts were abridged and a simpler terminology used. Educational psychology has found certain well defined characteristics of the adolescent. As long as instruction does not recognize these findings, there will be great difficulty in producing satisfactory educational results. In the first place the material in civics must be closely related to the experiences of the youth. One of the most serious defects of the traditional civics is that the topics are so far removed from the experiences of the student. The study of the workings of the Executive Department, of Congressional methods, and of interpretations of the Constitution are too far removed from the experiences and interests of the high school student. On the other hand community civics answers many of the questions which the student is interested in. High school students like to be looked upon as adults and be considered as having adult interests. They take a great deal of interest in city elections, the question of suffrage, the workings of the courts, the treatment of poverty, and in fact almost all of the things which interest adult citizens.

High school boys and girls are filled with a spirit of progress and reform. This spirit can well be

directed to the exposure of evils in community life and to discovering improved methods and agencies of other communities. In studying "Public Health" at the University High School the class in community civics was anxious to know why the city did not take greater interest in the problem of public health especially in the negro districts. The high school period is the age of idealism and altruism. This period of life furnishes the golden opportunity for the establishment of social ideals. The ethical sense seems keener and moral perception seems more acute. The material should be such as to aid in the development of a civic conscience. Boys, especially, refer in a contemptuous way to the corruption in public offices and the expense of "log-rolling". A young high school boy told the class about a federal appropriation of \$10,000 for river protection for worthless land which belonged to an influential politician. Any number of cases could be cited to show that the high school student is very much interested in civic problems.

Another characteristic which should be observed in the selection and organization of content is variation. The one great difficulty with all of the high school textbooks is that they are arranged in logical and not psychological form. The organization of the course in community civics should be such that the larger topics such as "Public Health" and "Recreation" are independent, to a large degree, of one another. This scheme allows for shifting of topics according to need and interest. The material used should be for

the most part concrete. Principles of sociology, political science, and economics are to a large degree unintelligible to the high school student. The more practical and the more local the examples of problems are, the more interest the student will take in their discussion. In talking about wages more interest was manifest when the question was asked as to what price the shoe-employees in Columbia got per day and how a normal family could be supported on that amount.

The place of community civics in the curriculum

The place of community civics, as yet, has not been determined in any scientific way, but has been largely influenced by the place of the traditional civics. The fact, too, that the students are more mature and are nearer to entrance into the more aggressive type of citizenship also determines its place in the junior or senior year of the high school course. This course is intended for such a place. It must be said here that there are strong arguments for having a course similar to this one, but simpler, in the freshman year. This is especially true when it is known that the grammar school civics has been inadequate and also when the elimination of students in the freshman and sophomore years is very heavy. Community civics should have a place on the same plane as any other subject in the secondary curriculum. A full year with five recitations per week should be devoted to it. The time is none too long in the light of its function nor in the amount of

1. Committee on Instruction of the American Political Science Association, Final Abstract of Report.

material available. If the course in community civics has for its function the training of citizens , it should be made a required subject. The high school students of today, to a large degree, are to be the future leaders of the community. The State has a right to require all students to take a course which means training in citizenship.

IV. Suggested Topics for Study

Selection of topics

Since there has been no careful survey of the community, the topics suggested by those who have studied the problem of the reorganization of civics will be helpful. The general topics are helpful in that they point out the important topics in the study of community. However, the detailed information in the development of the topics must be such that it suits the particular needs of the community. In a following chapter the method of developing a general outline to fit the needs of a particular community will be given. In this chapter the general content of topics will be indicated. There is no special significance attached to the order of the topics.

General outline of topics

" Public Health ": Social and economic cost of disease and preventable death; importance of health to the individual; personal health rules; importance of health to the home; importance of sanitation to the home; protection of food; agencies for food protection; methods of sewage and garbage disposal; prevention of filth diseases;

importance of health to school life; sanitation of school buildings; health study in the schools; importance of medical inspection; social and economic importance of health to the worker; the significance of industrial accidents to the worker and to society; the importance of health to child and women workers; and the administration of health agencies, local, state, and national.

" Recreation ": Importance of recreation to the individual and to society; the child's need for recreation; agencies for child recreation-playground, school supervised play, athletics, training for leisure occupations, Boy Scouts, and Campfire Girls; importance of moving pictures; regulation of recreation: importance of recreation to the adult; recreational agencies for the adult- parks, national parks, public baths, concerts, libraries, art galleries, social centers, and dance halls; and agencies of recreational control.

"Protection of Life and Property": Police protection, need of; systems of police, local, state, and national; military protection in state and nation; problem of national defence; organization of military forces; protection in transportation- street protection, prevention of railway accidents, agencies of protection, and navigation safeguards; fire protection- causes of fire loss, economic significance of fire loss, methods of prevention and control; flood protection- importance of the problem, methods of control, and dangers of the "pork barrel"; protection of patents

and copyrights-purpose of protecting inventions and work of the Patent Office; work and administration of local courts; work of municipal courts, juvenile, police, courts of domestic relations, and morals court; problem of socializing the courts; work of legal aid bureaus; systems of probation; work and administration of state and national courts

"Charities": The importance of the problem of dependency; problem of low wages and low standards of living--relation of wages to family life, causes of low wages; measures of relief--labor unions, mothers pensions, outdoor relief both private and public, restriction of immigration, minimum wage laws, co-operation; problem of unemployment--causes, personal and social effect, and agencies; problem of sickness and accident--causes, effect, and agencies of relief, sickness insurance, accident insurance, protective legislation, workmen's compensation and charity relief; problem of mental and physical defectives--significance of the problem, care of defectives, and preventive measures; problem of non-support--causes and agencies of relief, insurance, pensions, correction of desertion, almshouses, old-age homes, orphanages; problem of defective character--laziness, intemperance, thriftlessness, prevention through education, and control.

"Correction": Purpose of correction; social and economic cost of crime; problem of causes-- defectives, alcohol, drugs, poverty, bad training, spirit

of adventure, and lack of social amusements; problem of adult correction--agencies of adult control, agencies of correction such as police stations, jails, criminal courts, treatment of first offenders, probation and parole, fine-paying by installments, pledge system, psychopathic department, state penal institutions; causes of juvenile delinquency; problem of juvenile correction--home discipline, truant officers, special classes, juvenile courts, probation system, detention homes, reformatories and the follow-up system.

"Education": Importance of education to the individual and society; amount and causes of illiteracy; character and purpose of elementary education; character and purpose of secondary education; financing and administration of schools; other educational agencies; colleges and universities--entrance to these schools, value of a college education, professional schools, university extension work; work of state educational department; educational needs.

"Civic Beauty": Home beautification; tree planting, parking, garden plots; street lighting; signboards and overhead signs; beautification of school and other public grounds; beauty in architecture of public buildings; functions of the board of public works; city art commissions; voluntary civic beautifying leagues; state and national parks; preservation of scenic values.

"Communication and Transportation": Influence and value of easy communication; the postal system, its service and administration; significance of the parcels post; regulation of express companies; control of telephone and telegraph; work of public utility commissions and the Interstate Commerce Commission; the distribution and importance of newspapers; the significance, both economic and social, of easy transportation; good roads movements; political and voluntary efforts for better roads; the relation of street railways to the community; problems of public ownership or regulation; the importance of railroads; the regulation of railroads, state and national; the regulation of steamship traffic.

"Vocations": Danger of no vocational preparation; importance of vocational training to individual and society; agencies for vocational training; general principles underlying the selection of a vocation; study of local vocations--character of the vocation, preparation, social advantage, and remuneration.

"Migration": Country to city movement--causes, importance, and methods of control; need of socialization of the country community; need of better schools; migration to new country--agencies aiding colonization both state and national, homesteading, state and national employment bureaus; influence of railroads on migration; foreign immigration--importance of the problem, present rate, present methods of regulation, proposed regulative measures

such as the literacy test, admission of immigrants, methods of distribution.

"Wealth": Methods of production; natural resources, raw materials, conservation of natural resources; local industries and local capital; various forms of capital, interest, methods of obtaining capital; labor supply--source of supply, wages, working conditions, functions of labor unions, strikes and lockouts, methods of control, labor organizations, industrial agents; commercial clubs, merchant associations, boards of trade, municipal bureaus, educational agents; agencies for saving--banks and their control, clearing houses, national reserve system, rural credits; life and property insurance.

"Government Finance": Sources of revenue--taxation, tariffs, excises; state and local revenues; methods of apportionment, collection and expending through the budget, general appropriations; methods of borrowing money; agencies for administering local, state, and national finances.

"Governmental Administration": Party government--principles of parties, party organization, party methods, importance of parties; selection of officials--party conventions, primaries, elections, short ballot, civil service, suffrage qualifications; direct methods of government--initiative, referendum, recall, town meetings; representative government--principle of representation,

units of representation, gerrymandering; general governmental divisions.

"Finance and Administration of Private Agencies": Sources of revenue--gifts, bequests, tag days, subscription, endowments; general method of administration; methods of publicity; governmental regulation; study of local voluntary organizations.

CHAPTER V

METHODS OF TEACHING COMMUNITY CIVICS

I. General Treatment of Topics

Nature of general method

The nature of the subject-matter and, in a way, the method of study, have been indicated in the previous chapters. It has been shown that the subject-matter must meet the social and psychological needs of the high school student. The psychological nature of the youth determines, in a large part, the methods of study. Method is the means of transmitting the information and the attitudes which society holds worth while to the youth. Since there are certain problems which arise in the mind of high school boys and girls in regard to their social surroundings, it is the function of the instructor to help the students solve them--to give them methods of study whereby they may be able to solve like problems independently, and to develop in them certain social attitudes which will work for the best interests of the social group. The nature of the adolescent and the nature of the social demand require the use of the problem method. The queries in the minds of the students are the results of the realization that there is a lack of adjustment in the social life about them. The problems are distinctly of the community, and their solution must come from citizens of the community. In the light of these

facts, there are no text-books which have the material necessary for the answer to the problems, and there is a general acceptance of the fact that memory work from texts is not study. The lecture method is no better because it does not allow enough class-room participation and does not stimulate independent study. Besides, there is no reason for making the study of community problems in the school any other than that of the same study outside of the school. The situation is this: certain problems of community welfare confront the youthful citizen and there is a need of meeting them in some way. Why not meet the situations directly? The school offers special opportunities for such study in that it is a real society; it provides a teacher who can direct; and it has means of collecting materials servicable in such a study.

Recognition of the problem

Although the adolescent is interested in his social environment and has certain problems in his mind, yet, in attempting a study, it is most important to help him realize that the problem has a personal value to him.¹ Such is true of the adult as well. The problem must be clearly in mind. This can only be done through the realization that the normal activities are hindered or suddenly broken off by some circumstance in a particular situation. The five hundred twenty-eight (528) deaths in Missouri last year due to railway accidents cause one to feel a

¹ Charters, W.W., Methods of Teaching, pp. 159-165.

need for some regulation whereby the accidents could be prevented or minimized. In accordance with this idea, and to quicken the attention toward the problem, it is well to introduce the topic to be studied by an array of significant facts, graphs, statistics, or illustrations. In the study of "Public Health", the number of preventable deaths in the United States, in Missouri, and in the locality, the annual cost of sickness and death, and the annual expenditure for the protection of health--such topics as these might well introduce the subject.

Approach through local problems

The psychological principle of association or the pedagogical principle of apperception must be used. All of the social experiences of the youth have originated in the local group. His information and his attitudes are the result of his experiences in the community. His problems are mainly local and the approach to studies outside of his immediate locality must be made by tracing the same activity from the local relationships. In studying "Roads", the first problem is the way in which the city, the county, or other local unit provides for the construction and maintenance of roads; then, the aid given by the state and the work of the national government for the promotion of good roads is studied. The non-political agencies would also be included.

Development of appreciation

Mere civic knowledge will not make good citizenship. The most important test of civic instruction is the amount of initiative and activity students take in civic affairs. The great civic need is a citizenship with proper social attitudes and habits of action. It is true that the ethical element is strong in civic instruction and the ethical standard must be the controlling factor in judgement. But how can the ethical standards be taught without "preaching" and without the individual feeling that he is bowing down to authority? To lead the student to feel that social attitudes and social actions give him a sense of personal satisfaction-- is the problem of appreciation. In other words, the problem is to make the attitude of the social group the attitude of the individual. It is then of the utmost importance for the teacher to know how to develop a sense of appreciation,-- to make the student feel that the thing in hand is worth while for him. Some of the general principles underlying appreciation are:

- a. The thing to be presented must have worth to the individual. This object of worth is called value.
- b. The new value must be built on old values.
- c. The value must bring satisfaction to the individual.
- d. Through feeling and reason, the individual must feel that the value will function in his life.
- e. Habits of appreciation must be developed.
- f. Methods of suggestion are very useful. 1

¹ Charters, W.W., Lectures in Appreciation in Education, 1916.

II. Method of Class-room Instruction

Outline of method

The plan here outlined is that used in the University High School. It is used because it seems best adapted to a problem study. The general divisions of the class hour are: recitation, class study, and assignment.¹ In the class period these require about fifteen, thirty, and five minutes respectively. It is believed that this division of time and the purpose of the divisions, indicated by the titles, will make for greater educational progress than that produced by the commonly used recitation and assignment method. The main function of this method is to provide for class study in which students and teacher, through collecting data, evaluating it, organizing it and testing it, find some solution to the problem in hand. In other words, the school is attempting to solve the problems of normal life in the most economical and efficient way in the light of educational principles and not according to educational traditions.

Method of recitation

"The recitation here proposed is only a compromise. Eventually no recitation, as such, will be needed!"² In real life there is no recitation, but study is the normal procedure. As a compromise two parts of the reci-

¹ Meriam, J.L., Suggestions to University High School Teachers.

² Ibidem.

tation are arranged. In the first part the problem of the previous day is discussed. There are two purposes in this: to establish more firmly in mind the significant facts concerning the problem, and to allow the presentation of the results of further independent study on the part of students since the class study of the previous day. The latter purpose gives students an opportunity to study the problem independently and contribute their own judgements on the problem. The second part of the recitation is devoted to bringing out the facts which are to be used in the study of the day's problem. In this division the teacher asks factual questions whose answers are essential to the intelligent study of the problem. In some cases reports are given at this time, and frequently visits of investigation in regard to some community problem are conducted for the purpose of obtaining data.

Methods of class study

The class study is the main division and the most important part of the class hour. During this time the problem is studied in class by the students and teacher. The problem must be specific and definite. But there are some essential conditions which make for the realization of the problem. In the first place it is necessary to have the students feel the worth of certain things.¹ As a general rule there is no specific need of instruction, but it is essential to know that the

¹ Charters, W.W., op. cit., Chapter X.

facts in hand are considered worth while. There must be a distinct feeling of need--a situation in which there is a realization of incompleteness, of the failure of the usual factors to function in such a way as to produce satisfaction for the individual. This feeling of need may be the result of knowledge of social experience, or it may be the result of the "break down" in the facts which are being studied. The feeling of need leads to the formulation of the problem in definite terms. The next step is to find data which will solve the problem. The data collected, selected, evaluated, and verified, to such an extent that there is a feeling of satisfaction, are the important steps in solving the problem. Finally, there must be the realization of the meaning of the problem to the individual, and this is called appreciation.

In order to make clear the above method, a brief outline of class study is presented here. Recently the class in community civics at the University High School was discussing the "Problem of the Feeble-minded". It is recognized that feeble-mindedness is a misfortune to the individual and a detriment to the whole community. The experiences of the students with the problem were called forth. Then those facts were brought out which would go to show that feeble-mindedness interferes with the normal activities of society and that consequently each individual's well-being is hampered. There was a

distinct feeling that society should do something to prevent feeble-mindedness if possible and in some way provide for the training of these unfortunates. "What shall be done with the feeble-minded child?" was taken up as a problem. The term "feeble-minded" had to be defined; classes of the general group were made; the number of feeble-minded in the nation, state, and locality was found; the mental tests were examined to some extent; and the social and economic costs were determined. Agencies best adapted to the care of feeble-minded were discussed. The class spent some time discussing what the public school should do for mentally defective children. Other agencies such as children's hospitals and colonies for the feeble-minded were discussed. Throughout the whole study the idea of society's and the individual's responsibilities was prominent.

Nature of assignment

The assignment has two divisions. In skillful teaching it is unnecessary to give the first part of the assignment i.e., thought questions on the class study just finished. In class study the problems are skillfully raised; the students begin the study of the problems under the teacher's guidance with material at hand; as soon as the method of study is realized, the study stops; and the students are expected to study out the rest of the problem independently. As has been indicated it is not the purpose of the class study to complete the study but to aid the students to have a clear understanding of the

the problem and to indicate the nature of solution. If this has not been accomplished in the class study, then the significant thought questions should be assigned in the first part of the assignment. The second part of the assignment is merely the statement of the next topic of study and the assignment of references.

Comment on class study

The problem is based on the feeling of concern on the part of the students and consequently must in some way related to students' experiences. The significance of the concern is emphasized so that students feel the need of more knowledge which will make for a more comprehensive appreciation of the problem. In some cases the teacher formulates the problem into thought questions and at other times the students suggest the problem in their discussion. The lesson must have a definite purpose and all must realize that purpose. Prior to class study references have been read so as to economize time, but during class study text-books and references are freely consulted. The teacher should furnish inspiration, information, and guidance. In the class study the problem is not completely solved but rather commenced in order that the students may have an opportunity for independent study.¹ On the whole it is hoped that students will develop initiative in solving problems and will take a tentative attitude toward all questions. Since the ethical factor is so significant in

1. McMurry, F.M., How to Study, p. 233

civic life, the teacher must constantly have in mind the development of the student's personal appreciation of problems considered.

Devices of class study

In class study there are a number of devices which have been found to be very useful. The graphical method of demonstrating statistics as well as the pictorial method is used. The student should be familiar with the latest methods of presenting facts. Local and state data are made in graphs by students. Sometimes the whole class makes a large graph. A number of the boys in the civics class upon their own initiative made a scrap book of clippings, illustrations, and photographs of local conditions with comments recommending reform. The book was very well described by one of its authors as a "book with a punch". Reports on local conditions and comparative studies of local conditions with those of other communities are made by both groups of the class and individual students. Representatives of the class helped the Civic League in a sanitary survey. Frequently students are asked to outline the important items of a supposed ordinance. Students aid in the collection of data from local sources, newspapers, and magazines.

It would be well if such organizations as the commercial club, the city board of health (as the Kansas City Board of Health used the Boy Scouts in the "Clean-up" campaign), city club, and the charity organization would ask the cooperation of high school students. The school ,too,

could well provide such activities that all students would receive some civic training. It is frequently suggested that such training could be given through student government associations, school improvement clubs, student civic clubs and the use of the school as a social center. The classes in civics could well make charts and devise exhibits which would be valuable in a city exhibit. Aside from the regular class work the class in civics should discuss current events, especially those of civic nature.

Materials for study

The materials used in study are varied. There is no text-book which can in any way be the guide to class study. The material must be gathered from books on modern problems, magazines, pamphlets of various organizations, bulletins of all kinds, reports of government departments, year books, newspapers, blank forms, diagrams, charts, and pictures. If the school has a lantern, slides should be included. An important problem is the finding of material suited to high school students and usable on problems of the day. It can be seen that the teacher and the pupils will constantly be collecting new material and discarding material which is out of date. The class in civics must be dynamic- it must keep up with the social needs of the community. The best device used in cataloging materials is the card index. The divisions in the index can well be the main topics and the subdivisions of the topics i.e., " Health " -- -- Food inspection. Boxes

should be used for filing pamphlets and bulletins. Important clippings should be kept and magazines should be bound.

List of materials

A great number of publications can be secured free or at a very low cost. One should constantly be in search for new material. One of the most economical ways is to ^{secure:} a List of Publications Available for Free Distribution from ^{the} Superintendent of Documents at Washington; ^{to} read the book reviews in the standard weeklies; and especially ^{to} notice the division called "Municipal Publications" in The American City and "Pamphlets" in The Survey. Bibliographies of standard books are also useful. Material of a general nature is listed here:

Publications of the National Government:

Congressional Record
 Congressional Directory
 Senate and House Documents
 Yearly Abstracts of the Census
 Statistical Atlas
 Special Census Reports
 Annual Reports of Departments
 Bulletins of;
 Bureau of Labor Statistics
 Children's Bureau
 Bureau of Education
 Public Health Service
 Report of the Interstate Commerce Commission
 Report of the Civil Service Commission
 Report of the Industrial Commission

Publications of the State Government:

Annual Year Book (Missouri Blue Book)
 Report of the State Labor Commissioner
 Report of the Public Utility Commission
 Report of the State Superintendent of Schools
 Report of the State Board of Agriculture
 Report of the State Board of Charities

Bulletins of
 State Board of Health
 State Board of Agriculture
 State Schools

Local Reports:

Annual report of city government
 Reports of departments and commissions
 Reports of county officials
 Report of the school district
 Legal blanks

Materials from Volunatry Agencies:

Russell Sage Foundation
 Proceedings of various civic and
 sociological societies
 National Civic Federation
 National Municipal League
 Civic Leagues
 Commercial Clubs

Magazines:

American City
 Survey
 National Municipal Review
 Outlook
 Independent
 Review of Reviews

Books:

Allen : Civics and Health
 Ashley: The American Federal State
 Beard : American Government and Politics
 Beard : Woman's Work in Municipalities
 DeWitt: The Progressive Movement
 Bryce : American Commonwealth
 Croly : Promise of American Life
 Progressive Democracy
 Ellwood: Sociology and Modern Social Problems
 The Social Problem
 Gillette: Constructive Rural Sociology
 Howe : The Modern City
 The City: The Hope of Democracy
 Nearing: Social Adjustment
 Loeb : Civil Government in Missouri
 Young : The New American Government
 Zueblin: American Municipal Progress

CHAPTER VI

TYPICAL OUTLINES OF MATERIAL

I. Outline of a Topic

Explanation of the outline

One of the main topics is given in this chapter to show the general character of organization and the nature of content. The outline proper is given on the left hand side of the page and the directions and aids to the teacher are given on the right hand side of the page. This outline and similar ones were used by the practice teachers in the University High School. Only a few references were given as the teachers made a working bibliography.

In development of a topic these principles are kept in mind:

The individual's appreciation must be aroused at the beginning of the discussion in order to make the problem clear.

That part of the topic which is most closely related to the student's experiences is taken up.

In the study of specific problems these divisions are discussed;

General importance of the problem
Nature of the problem and causes
Remedies or agencies of control

The material is adapted to the needs of the student.

In teaching there is no hard and fast rule that the outline must be followed as arranged. The

interests of the students and the circumstances arising in class may vary the order.

Outline of " Charities "

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>I. General problem of Charities</p> <p>1. Number of dependents</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">a. In United States</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">b. In Missouri</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">c. In Columbia</p> <p>2. Extent of poverty</p> <p>3. Cost of supporting dependents</p> <p>4. Social cost of dependency</p> <p>II. Problem of Low Wages and Standards</p> <p>1. Relation of wages to family support</p> <p>2. Relation of wages to standards of living</p> <p>3. Problem of the "living wage"</p> <p>4. Problem of low standards of living</p> <p>5. Effects of low wages and standards</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">a. Personal</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">b. Social</p> <p>6. Agencies of relief</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">a. Labor unions</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">b. Mothers' Pensions</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">c. School lunches</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">d. Municipal loan bureaus</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">e. Outdoor relief</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">f. Industrial cooperation</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">g. Vocational education</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">h. Limited immigration</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">i. Minimum wage laws</p> <p>III. Problem of Unemployment</p> | <p>To what extent is dependency increasing? Illustrate graphically, if possible. If possible, secure local data. In class try to define "dependency" and make classification.</p> <p>What is the cost of support for dependents in this county? In the State?</p> <p>What is the average wage in the community? Make out a weekly budget for a family of five on a \$2.00 wage per day. What should be the minimum family budget for a year? See <u>Pittsburgh Survey</u></p> <p>What is the annual wage of an unskilled laborer? Skilled laborer? See <u>Census and Reports of Labor Department.</u></p> <p>How should wages be determined? How do low wages affect the laborer, his family, and society? How can labor unions aid? What are the best methods for the state to use? Is a mother's pension justifiable? if so, why? What methods does this community use in poor relief? Is it efficient? Why? What relation should the state have to private charity organizations? Make a chart showing local agencies of relief. Why would you favor or disapprove profit sharing? What is the Ford plan? What justification is there for a minimum wage? What schemes are in use in Europe?</p> |
|---|---|

1. Causes

- a. Seasonal occupations
- b. Immigration
- c. Labor troubles and panics
- d. Casual trades
- e. Inadequate education

2. Effect on individual

3. Effect on society

4. Amount of unemployment

5. Agencies of relief

- a. Living wage
- b. Free employment bureaus - local, state, and national
- c. Limited immigration
- d. Better economic distribution
- e. Government employment
- f. Municipal work
- g. Municipal lodging houses
- h. Private charity

III. Problem of Sickness and Accidents

1. Effect of sickness and accident on living conditions

2. Causes of sickness and accident

3. Agencies of relief

- a. Labor unions
- b. Welfare bureaus
- c. State insurance
- d. Lodges
- e. Insurance companies
- d. Workmen's liability and compensation acts
- e. Outdoor relief
- f. Private charity

References:

Devine: Misery and Its Causes, III

Pigou: Unemployment

Ellwood: Sociology and Modern Social Problems

Nearing: Social Adjustment XIV

How do any of these causes operate in this community ?

Why should everyone who desires to work have the opportunity?

To what extent is there unemployment in this community? In this state?

What attitude should Business take in regard to this problem? How could Business aid? Why would labor organization aid?

Why should private employment bureaus be discouraged?

How has the Federal Government aided this problem?

How have city's aided?

See Zueblin: American Municipal Progress: 163 seq.

Report of Kansas City Board of Public Welfare.

(The causes should be briefly reviewed for they were discussed in "Public Health".

What effect does sickness of the wage earner have on the family? Why is sickness so common among laborers? Why is the employees health of concern to the employer? To society? Why should great care be taken in buying insurance? Why would the State be justified in establishing insurance? What is Health Insurance? How can the health department aid in this problem? How do some of the European countries solve this problem? See Ogg: Social Progress in Contemporary Europe; Seager: Social Insurance.

IV. Problem of Defectives, Mental and Physical

1. Problem of Mentally Defective Children

- a. Number in state and nation
- b. Importance of problem
- c. Care of defectives
 - 1. Ungraded classes in schools
 - 2. Colonies for the feebleminded

2. Adult Mental Defectives

- a. Importance of the problem
- b. Causes of insanity
- c. Agencies of care
 - 1. State hospitals
 - 2. Local boards of public welfare
 - 3. Charity organizations

3. Physically Defective Children

- a.
- a. General causes
- b. Number of dependents
- c. Care of blind, deaf, and crippled
 - 1. Local agents
 - a. Special class in schools
 - b. Children's hospitals
 - 2. State control

4. Physically Defective Adults

- a. Causes of defects
- b. Policy of street begging
- c. Agencies of relief
 - 1. Pensions
 - 2. Homes for aged
 - 3. Old age pensions
 - 4. Almshouses
 - 5. Charity

Why is it almost criminal to teach the feebleminded in the ordinary school?

Why is the problem of importance? What are the classes of mental defectives? What are the mental tests? What use is there to train the defective? How can this best be done? What is Missouri doing with this problem? Why should a state survey be made? What relation does this problem have to juvenile crime? What have the mental investigations at the Reformatories shown? How is the work carried on at Marshall? See: Blue Book.

Why is the problem of mental defectives a serious one? What should be done about insane out of institutions? What relation does this problem bear to crime and poverty? How should the state control the actions of defectives? How does the state provide for the insane? How can the "crime" of political influence be removed?

Why should more attention be paid to these defectives? How does the State provide for the blind and deaf?

How is society to blame for many cases of defectiveness? How does the state deal with this problem? Why is the state justified in giving old age pensions and pensions for the blind? How do some of the European states deal with this problem? What can we learn from the Great War in regard to training the cripples?

V. Problem of Non-support

See Devine: Misery and Its Causes, V

1. Effect of problem
2. Causes of non-support
 - a. Sickness and death
 - b. Desertion
 - c. Imprisonment
3. Agencies of relief
 - a. Insurance
 - b. Widows' pensions
 - c. Employment bureaus
 - d. Outdoor relief
 - e. Prison wages
 - f. Almshouses
 - g. Orphanages

Why is this a serious problem ?
 What should be done about desertion?
 Why is it unjust for the family of a prisoner to suffer ? How can this be remedied?
 How are almshouses and orphanages controlled ?
 Why would a local board of public welfare in the county be an aid ?

VI. Problem of Defective Character

1. Problems of
 - a. Laziness
 - b. Intemperance
 - c. Thriftlessness
2. Agencies of control
 - a. Education
 - b. Home training
 - c. Reformatories

How can defective character be prevented?
 What is the function of the home ? The school ?
 How is society responsible
 What is the individual's responsibility ?
 What measures of reform should society take ?

II. Outline of Lesson Plan

Explanation of lesson plan

The plan is submitted for the purpose of making clear the principles underlying the general method of teaching. The main topic is " Public Health" and ^{the} sub-division out of which this lesson is taken is " Health and the Worker". In order to show the proper relationship of this particular lesson with the other lessons, three consecutive lesson topics are given:

Health Agencies in the School

Importance of the Problem of the Worker's Health (The plan is on this topic)

Destroyers of the Worker's Health

The plan has three general divisions: recitation, class study, and assignment. It will be noted that the recitation has two divisions: "Recitation A" which is composed of thought questions on the class study of the previous day and "Recitation B" which is composed of factual question based on the assignment. In "Recitation" A " thought questions are asked by the teacher on the problems of "Health Agencies in the Schools" and the student is expected to make some definite answers which show the results of independent study. "Recitation B " is a series of factual questions asked on the day's lesson, " Importance of the Worker's Health " and the student is expected to give information in concise language on the lesson of the day. The purpose of this questioning is to obtain or make sure that the students have the information necessary to discuss the problem. In the class study the teacher and ,in some cases, the students present the problems for study. The first problem in this plan is: Why is the worker's health a vital problem of the worker and his employer ? The study is taken up by the whole class with the information presented in " Recitation B " and data secured from texts and references. The teacher aids in methods of study and supplements information. As soon as the students see the real meaning of the problem and sufficient study has been made to indicate the general manner of solving the problem, the class study

stops. In this manner the problem is not solved but left for further independent study on the part of the students. The incompleting problem is the study assignment for the next day. If the study in class has been successful, there is no need for a restatement of the problem in "Assignment A". In "Assignment B" the topic, " Destroyers of the Worker's Health" is given and the references for reading given.

Outline of lesson plan

General topic: Public Health

General problem of "Health and the Worker": To study those conditions which work against the physical efficiency of the worker and to see what means the individual worker and various social agencies should use to prevent disease and encourage health of workers.

Topics of three consecutive lessons:

1. Health Agencies in the School (Previous day's study)
2. Importance of the Problem of the Worker's Health (The problem of the plan)
3. Destroyers of the Worker's Health (Problem of the next day)

RECITATION

- A. On the class study of the previous day (This was on the topic: Health Agencies in the Schools.)

1. On what grounds should the public school look after the health of school children ?

(The following statements indicate the general nature of the answers expected from students.)

- a. Good health means better scholarship.
- b. Good health of school children means regulation of a large part of the population in regard to health.
- c. The school can be a great agent in distributing health information.

2. How can health work in schools be best promoted ?
 - a. In the present system the Board of Health should cooperate with the schools.
 - b. The more efficient plan is to have medical inspection of all school children.

3. How would medical inspection help ?
 - a. Medical inspection would mean that the child's health would be under constant observance.
 - b. Medical inspection would correct many minor defects.
 - c. School buildings would be made more sanitary.
 - d. Health publicity would result.
 - e. Medical inspection would mean the following up of the child's case in the home.

- B. On the reading assigned the previous day. (This reading was on " Importance of the Problem of the Worker's Health in the following references:
- Michigan State Board of Health , Health News, July 1915, pp. 364 seq.
- Price and Peterson: Hygiene and Public Health Chaps. IV and XII.
- Independent, Vol 80 pp.333 seq.
- Henderson, C.R., Citizens in Industry, Chap. II.
- Fisher, Irving, Conservation of National Vitality Chap. XII.
- United States Census Report on Occupations

1. What percent of the population is made up of working men in the United States ? In Missouri ? In Columbia ?
2. How many of the preventable deaths are found in the working population ? What percent ?
3. What is the annual sick census in the United States ?
4. How many sick days per capita ?
5. What is the economic loss of thirteen days of sickness to the laboring man ?
6. What is the annual doctor's bill of the laborer?

7. What are some of the results of the laborer's sickness ?

II. CLASS STUDY (On information of "Recitation B" above)

Problem: To see the importance of good health to the worker and its significance to society.

1. Importance to the worker

- a. Why is the worker's health a vital problem of the worker and to his employer?
- b. How does ill health affect the working efficiency of the laborer ?
- c. How does sickness affect the social and the economic welfare of the laborer and his family ?

(Students are to supplement this study by independent study outside of class. This takes the place of "Assignment A".)

2. Importance of the worker's health to society

- a. Why should society at large be interested in the worker's health ?

(The following should indicate the general thoughts of the discussion.)

1. There would be increased economic production.
2. There would be less poverty, crime, and social maladjustment.
3. Disease would be greatly minimized.
4. Posterity would be better.

III. ASSIGNMENT

(If these problems have not been brought out clearly in class study, they should be given in "Assignment A ".)

A. On class study

1. Why is good health a vital consideration to the worker and society ?
2. Why is the worker's health your problem ?

B. On advanced reading

Topic: Causes of Ill Health of the Worker

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