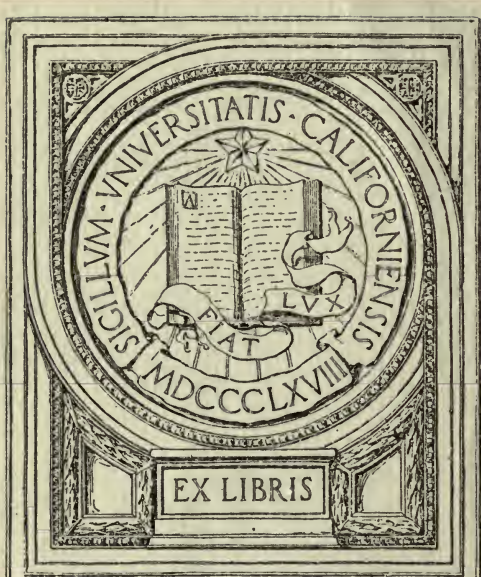


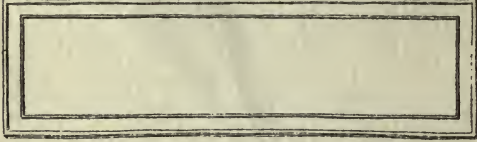
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THE TEACHING OF GOVERNMENT

REPORT TO THE AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE
ASSOCIATION BY THE COMMITTEE
ON INSTRUCTION

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PREFACE

VARIOUS national organizations are vitally interested in the effort to improve the teaching of government in the schools. The American Political Science Association is naturally one of the foremost among these and from the time of its formation has given special attention to methods of instruction in political science. As a result of the interest manifested in the first sessions of the Association a committee of five was appointed to investigate and report upon the teaching of government in secondary schools. The report of this committee and the conclusions resulting therefrom mark an important stage in the movement to improve civic instruction. To supplement the work of the committee of five and to extend the scope of its investigations it was voted at the annual business meeting of the Association held at Buffalo in December, 1911, "that a committee of seven members be appointed to consider the methods of teaching and studying government now pursued in American schools, colleges and universities, and to suggest means of enlarging and improving such instruction." The following members were appointed by the President to constitute this committee: James A. James, Professor of History, Northwestern University; Mabel Hill, Associate Director Garland School, Boston, Massachusetts; Frank E. Horack, Professor of Political Science, State University of Iowa; Edgar Dawson, Professor of Political Science, Hunter College, New York City; Walter L. Fleming, Professor of History, Louisiana State University, J. Lynn Barnard, Professor of History and Government, School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia; and Charles Grove Haines, Professor of Government, University of Texas.

The committee first prepared a survey of the activities of other organizations which are interested in civic instruction. Among such organizations particular attention was given to the discussions and reports of the American Historical Association, the National Municipal League and the National Education Association, as well as the report on secondary schools by the committee of five of the American Political Science Association. After completing this survey it was decided by the committee to secure information through: (1) an investigation of courses in political science offered in colleges and universities; (2) an inquiry regarding courses and methods of instruction in elementary and secondary schools; (3) a consideration of the aid and encouragement given to instruction in government by state departments of education and other organizations and societies. Preliminary reports dealing with instruction in colleges and universities were presented at the annual meetings of the Association in Washington, December, 1913 and in Chicago, December, 1914.

At the meetings of the committee held during the sessions of the Association in Washington, December, 1913 it was decided to continue working along the following lines: first, to pursue the investigation of the teaching of political science in colleges and universities in order to obtain a more complete report; second, to report upon the progress recently made in the teaching of government in secondary schools; and third, to prepare for teachers concrete suggestions as to courses and methods of instruction to be submitted along with the proposals of the committee relative to elementary and secondary schools. On account of the difficulties involved in securing a meeting of the committee at a time and place convenient to all members, group conferences were held in Washington, D. C., New York City, and Chicago. Through these conferences and through the submission in advance of all proposed recommendations a full discussion has been secured on all phases of the report

and a unanimous approval is accorded by the members of the committee to the recommendations offered. Moreover, one session and two conferences during the annual meetings 1913-15 were devoted to the presentation and discussion of various phases of the report.

The committee aims to offer primarily such information and data as are available relative to the present status of instruction in government with some recommendations and suggestions to teachers. Its report is presented with a view to aid in the process of reconstruction which is now well on its way as to the teaching of government in the schools.

In the pursuance of investigations and in the collection of data the committee is under great obligations for assistance received from many instructors who prepared reports on local conditions and from state committees comprised of teachers and administrators actively engaged in public school work. To the Honorable P. P. Claxton, Commissioner of Education, acknowledgment is also due for the privilege of sending circulars to secondary schools and colleges through the medium of the Bureau of Education. Naturally, in a report of such an extensive character dealing with many controverted problems of instruction the Association is not committed to all of the expressions of opinion and suggestions herein contained.

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THE TEACHING OF GOVERNMENT

THE TEACHING OF GOVERNMENT

PART I

RECENT PROGRESS IN THE TEACHING OF GOVERNMENT

RELATING CHIEFLY TO INSTRUCTION IN ELEMENTARY AND
SECONDARY SCHOOLS

IT is difficult to determine the exact time at which instruction in civil government was begun in the public schools. One of the first evidences of an interest in the study of the subject is to be found in the plea for civic instruction before the National Education Association in 1859. Information as to the nature of the course offered at this time is indefinite. It seems that the first result of the special plea for the study of civil government was the introduction of a course devoted to the Constitution of the United States. This course at first involved merely a reading of the Constitution with general comments on the special features of the fundamental law.

I. Stages in the Advancement of Civic Instruction.

Since the meagre beginning made in the third quarter of the nineteenth century, the teaching of civics has progressed through three rather well marked stages:—

1. Study of the Constitution.
2. The Deductive Method.
3. Community Civics.

1. *Study of the Constitution.*

Civic instruction, which was at first based primarily upon the Constitution, resulted in the preparation of certain manuals taking up the Constitution clause by clause. This type of manual was the natural outcome of that veneration for our national charter which has won both admiration and caustic comments from foreign critics. It is undoubtedly true that a spirit of veneration for American institutions and for the principles embodied in federal and state governments was thus fostered. Although no very exact or useful knowledge of practical political affairs resulted from this type of course, it nevertheless marked the first step in anything like definite instruction in government. The influence of this period of civic instruction is still apparent in certain texts which are in use in the schools of some of the states. Fortunately, the scope of instruction has been broadened and texts which cover a wider range of matters of general interest to the citizen have rapidly replaced all but a few of the former constitution manuals.

2. *Deductive Method.*

The formal presentation of the provisions of the federal Constitution was soon expanded into a more comprehensive plan of course involving also a consideration of the state constitution and including in most cases a list of officers, federal, state and county. Although changed in its scope, this course was very similar to the earlier constitution study. It was based upon a deductive method, beginning with the provisions of the constitution and going on to the names, terms, salaries and the formal functions of these officers as determined by law. The method ordinarily pursued required chiefly an exercise of the memory in learning sections and divisions of constitutions and the names, duties and salaries of public officers. Just as the old constitution manual has remained despite the many evidences of change and progress in civic training, so the deductive method

is still retained by many who are trying to educate the young minds in the ways of citizenship by a memory process in the temporary accumulation of a host of facts which are fortunately soon forgotten.

This method of instruction likewise dealt chiefly with the federal Constitution and government and gave only an incidental and cursory consideration to state and local affairs. There was little or no effort to educate toward a citizenship in the community surrounding the children by a study of the simpler and more interesting functions and responsibilities of the school, the home and the community. Those things which could be of the most general and distant interest were emphasized to the exclusion of the many matters of vital importance and local concern which affect profoundly political and social conditions of the community. Much attention was given to the President, Congress, the cabinet officers and their multifarious duties, a slightly less complete account of the state government, and a mere passing consideration to county officers and their legal duties. National affairs usually occupied the greater portion of the short time allotted, leaving opportunity for only passing reference to state and local matters.

American History and Civil Government.

On account of the close relationship between American history and the civil government course based on a study of the federal Constitution an arrangement was eventually devised by which these two subjects were combined, especially in the high school curriculum. American history dealt largely with political and constitutional matters, and government was thought to be comprehended in the continuous evolution and unfolding of the federal fundamental law. There was thus evolved a combination course—American history and civics. Teachers began to adopt one of three methods of procedure: first, to announce a combined course but to give all of the time

to history, on the theory that all that is worth while in government was of necessity comprehended within the scope of history; second, to announce and offer the two in combination by means of a special elaboration of such topics as were deemed to be governmental in nature, this differing from the first only in that there was a tendency at least to give some separate consideration to government; third, the major part of the time was given to history, but a few periods ranging from a week to four or five weeks were given to a study of government. Under this plan an effort was sometimes made to deal briefly with the various divisions of government, federal and state. Such a plan offered an opportunity to the conscientious teacher to give at least a modest and not altogether futile introduction to the study of government. The arrangement might have proved fairly satisfactory except for the fact that as a rule the time for government was not definitely set apart and when the claims of the history outline were met there was not even enough time to give an introduction to government as a functioning organization. A compromise was sometimes effected by which history was given full time and the children were encouraged to begin their training in citizenship by reading, incidental to the course, a civics manual. It is needless to suggest the result. This condition has been gradually superseded either by an arrangement which gives three hours per week to American history and two hours to civics throughout the fourth year of the high school or by giving half of the year to each of the two subjects. The latter plan is growing in favor particularly in the schools of the South and West.

No one would be so foolish as to propose to neglect the close relationship between history and civics. Nor would anyone attempt to deny that history and civics should be closely correlated throughout the entire curriculum. It is only intended to emphasize here that civics comprises a content and method which cannot be treated adequately in connection with history,

since the subject can no longer be regarded as simply a study of the constitution and framework of government in its historic development.

If the public schools are to fulfill their function in a country where democratic theories and practices prevail, if they are to contribute to the development of civic intelligence, provision must be made in the elementary schools, in the secondary schools and in the colleges for thorough courses in the "co-operative functions of society," and above all to that organization in which these functions are concentrated and unified. In fact it is now coming to be recognized that instead of a meagre allowance of a week or two here or there in the school curriculum civic instruction must be placed on a par with such subjects as English and the natural sciences and be given prime consideration in the making of school programs.¹ That this consideration is already being given to the subject by progressive educators is evidenced in the interest manifested in a revised and vitalized study of social affairs under the designation community civics.

3. *Community Civics.*

The study of the constitution manuals, and the use of the deductive method have been slowly giving way to a form of course commonly referred to at this time as the new civics or community civics. The new civics practically reverses the method of procedure which was formerly pursued. Instead of starting with officers and legal duties as outlined in constitutions and in statutes, the study begins with community needs and the methods by which government satisfies these needs. It is based essentially upon the theory that those things which are near at home are of more vital importance and should receive consideration prior to those more remote and, as a rule, of less direct

¹ For a very able and suggestive discussion of the function which the public schools should perform in the United States consult *Democracy's High School* by Principal W. D. Lewis in the Riverside Educational Monographs.

significance. The new civics comprises then a study of community functions and emphasizes rather the physiology of government than its anatomy or framework. It begins with the local environment—the immediate community in which the child lives and with which he comes in daily contact. And then from village or city activities the study reaches out to the wider functions of state and nation. The analysis of what the government is doing to protect health, life, property and social needs in every direction becomes more important than constitutional provisions. A knowledge and appreciation of what the government of a community is accomplishing to satisfy community needs, and government activities in their immediate touch upon the citizen, come in for consideration and study.

On the other hand, the new civics does not necessarily result in a neglect of the study of constitutions and of governmental forms. All of the essential phases of organization may be retained in the new course. Constitutions, statutes, officers and their duties are merely approached from the standpoint of the functions which are being performed by the agents of government in any political unit. The natural steps are, first to raise the question, what methods are devised to protect the health, the life and the property of the community. The answer to these queries will lead, secondly, to the consideration of the functions of local and state officers as well as to the services rendered by the federal government.

Thus, that portion which is of real value in the earlier form of civil government is retained. To be sure, some minor details are necessarily eliminated, but usually those which have no relation to citizenship, and it will be no loss to drop them from the courses now given in our public schools. Matters of detail such as the names of officers, the salaries received and the statutory provisions of official duties give but little indication of the part performed by government officials and they can be dispensed with, thus saving the energy of memorizing a mass of

petty and useless stuff, immediately forgotten when the course is completed. Such facts as are necessary for the study of government functions can readily be rendered available in a reference manual which can be prepared for use along with the text-book.

It is community civics and the group of ideas comprehended therein that have resulted in a nationwide movement to reorganize the courses in government, to revise the methods of study and to vitalize a subject which has heretofore shown little promise of value either to the individual citizen or to the community. It is of interest to consider the efforts by which instruction in government is being revised and to trace the introduction into the schools of courses based upon the new content and revised methods of instruction.

II. Efforts to Improve the Teaching of Government.

In considering the steps which have been taken along this line, it is necessary to note a surprising lack of interest in the subject on the part of many administrators and teachers in the public schools. The plea of no time for the study of civics has been so frequent and widespread that it might be supposed that the public schools have no interest in nor any relation whatever to the state, its organs, activities and departments. To quote Dr. George Kerchensteiner, "Schools totally ignored the fact that while the economic conditions of the present day require a technical and commercial training from the worker, the social conditions imperatively demand for him a civic training. In a word, it was forgotten that civics is at least as necessary an element in the syllabus of our schools as are drawing and arithmetic."¹ In contrast with this opinion it has been customary to dispose of the subject with the rather typical comment,—“If no class in civil government can be organized, let the teacher give some instruction in this line during general

¹ "Hygiene, Civics and Trade History." See pp. 38-39.

exercises. Let us strive to teach an intelligent patriotism." There was time for Latin, history, geography, geometry, algebra, botany, and physics and for a number of other no less important and useful branches of study, but the common reply of many of those who prepared school programs was that no separate time could be found in the curriculum for the study of government.

It was suggested occasionally that the public school itself and all that it is undertaking is the result of government and that school administrators were inclined to ignore this fact. It is the state that is giving life and being to the public school; it is the money of the state secured through its methods of taxation that keeps the school going; it is the law of the state through which the school performs its functions, and it has been intimated that the school could not refuse to give some consideration to the organization which brought it into life and made possible its very existence. There was a protest that some time must be found in the school curriculum for the study of that most important of all social and political organizations—the state. And slowly time has been discovered. First a few weeks were allowed, then a few weeks more, and finally the importance of further study resulted in extending the time in both elementary and secondary schools. An account of the developing appreciation of the vital need of civic instruction is to be found in the activity of the great national organizations interested in the reconstruction of our educational system and in the evidences of a recent trend toward the social viewpoint in industrial and political affairs. A brief survey of the activities of each of these national organizations will show the impetus given within recent years to the advancement of government instruction.

1. *National Education Association.*

The effort to improve instruction in the various fields of study in the secondary and elementary schools began in an organized

way through the interest and activities of the National Education Association. To be sure, the improvement of other subjects was begun very much earlier, and much more definite and effective results have been secured than in the teaching of civil government. Prior to 1893 the only interest manifested in the subject of civics is evidenced in an occasional address relative to instruction in this field. A definite indication of an awakening on the part of teachers to the value of this subject is shown in the Madison conference on history, civil government, and economics. The conference was held in 1892. The report and conclusions of the conference were adopted by the committee of ten, and were issued by the Bureau of Education and reprinted later by the American Book Company. It was in this conference that for the first time the claims of the social sciences were brought to the attention of the educators of the nation. The program adopted included four years of history for the grammar school and four years for the high school. While the chief interest and emphasis in the report is on history, and the main contribution made by it resulted along the line of the improvement of history instruction, the subjects of civil government and economics also received some attention. On the former subject the report of the committee observed: "While they are of opinion that political economy should not be taught in secondary schools, they urge that in connection with United States history, civil government and commercial geography, instruction should be given in the most important economic topics. . . . The subject of civil government they would associate with both history and geography.

"They would introduce it into the grammar school by means of oral lessons, and into the high school by means of a text-book with collateral reading and oral lessons. In the high school they believe that the study of civil government may be made comparative—that is, that the American methods may be compared with foreign systems."

Later the Association showed its interest in civics in the report of the committee of twelve on rural schools. This report goes somewhat further in its recommendations and provides for a normal training course with one half year of United States history and civil government, and among the recommendations it is suggested that "the introduction of such studies as will have a tendency to connect the school and the home, especially those having direct bearing upon the everyday life of the community, is to be especially commended." This brief recommendation may be said to indicate the tendency to direct attention to the study of community functions, which is the great feature of the new civics. With the exception of an occasional place on the annual program and some incidental discussions fostered by the Association, the subject of civics received very little consideration for a period of more than ten years. It was not until the committee on articulation of high school and college was appointed and its report to the Association in July, 1911, was rendered, that civics again received serious consideration. The committee, as is well known, recommended that the satisfactory completion of a well-planned high school course should be accepted as preparation for college. In the definition of a well-planned high school course, it was proposed that there should be included at least three units of English, one unit of social science (including history), and one unit of natural science. With regard to the work in social science, it was recommended: (1) that history should always be taught so as to function in a better understanding of modern events and current movements; (2) that economics should be encouraged because economic discussions are paramount, and ignorance of economic principles is appalling; and (3) that every high school student should be given a practical knowledge of affairs in his own community, political, industrial and philanthropic, of the basic principles of state and national politics, and of movements for social reform and international peace.

A more recent effort to aid in the process of reorganization of courses in civics has been that of the national commission chosen several years ago for the purpose of reorganizing the entire curriculum of secondary schools. Appointed as an outgrowth of the movement on articulation between high school and college, this committee has arranged for a subcommittee on social studies, which is working in coöperation with the Bureau of Education and has presented a preliminary report in which the following proposed outline for five units of social studies is offered:

1. Community Civics and Survey of Vocations.
2. European History to 1600 or 1700 (including English and Colonial American History).
3. European History since 1600 or 1700 (including contemporary civilization).
4. United States History since 1760 (including current events).
5. Economics and Civic Theory and Practice.

Recently this committee has aided in the preparation of a syllabus for community civics to be used in the junior high school, and anticipates the preparation of a similar syllabus for an advanced course in social science for fourth year high school. As the work is carried on with the coöperation of the Bureau of Education and the National Education Association, its conclusions and recommendations will have a great influence upon the public schools, and consequently upon the entire educational system of the country.

2. *American Historical Association.*

One of the first organizations to offer suggestions relative to the teaching of civics as well as that of history was the American Historical Association. The recommendations of the Association are embodied in the following reports: (a) Report of Committee of Seven, 1898; (b) Report of the Com-

mittee of Eight, 1909; (c) Report of the Committee of Five, 1911.

It has already been indicated that the first step toward the improvement of the teaching of history and government was taken in connection with the Madison Conference which was largely directed by leaders interested in the subject of history. The report of this Conference was a mere prelude to the more systematic and effective work begun and completed through a series of very active committees appointed by the Association.

(a) Report of Committee of Seven.

One of the most important committees covering the field of history was the committee of seven appointed by the American Historical Association in 1896 and rendering its report in 1898. The recommendations included therein are familiar to all secondary school teachers and administrators. It is only necessary to note in passing the chief conclusions of the committee: a full four years' course of history and civil government is recommended in the following arrangement: first year, ancient history; second year, mediæval and modern European history; third year, English history; fourth year, American history and civil government.

This report has been widely accepted and followed in planning the programs of secondary schools. It has resulted in a great increase in the time given to history and in a marked improvement of methods of teaching. Its effect upon the teaching of civics has been rather indirect and incidental, but it has undoubtedly encouraged the tendency to combine civil government with American history and has consequently tended to delay somewhat the movement favorable to the introduction of the study of civics as a separate and independent course. In so far as the committee report emphasized the close relation between history and civics and provided the basis for civics in the study of the development of English and American in-

stitutions, the effect has been salutary. On the other hand, the report of the committee has been frequently interpreted in such a way as to be detrimental to the development of anything like an effective course in civics. Where these recommendations were carried out so as to bring about the introduction of a year's course in American history, with only an incidental consideration to the problems of government based usually upon the supplementary reading of some text on civil government, the effect of the report has not been favorable to the development of a proper type of civic instruction. In any comment on the report of this and other committees of the American Historical Association, it must always be remembered that these committees were primarily interested in the study of history and they could not be expected to give special consideration and emphasis to instruction in government. It remains for those interested and engaged in the teaching of government to render similar aid and direction to teachers.

(b) The Committee of Eight.

In the report of the committee of eight relative to elementary school instruction the subject of civics also received consideration. The following extracts from the report suggest the point of view of the committee:

We believe that elementary civics should permeate the entire school life of the child. In the early grades the most effective features of this instruction will be directly connected with the teaching of regular subjects in the course of study. Through story, poem, and song, there is the quickening of those emotions which influence civic life. The works and biographies of great men furnish many opportunities for incidental instruction in civics. The elements of geography serve to emphasize the interdependence of men—the very earliest lesson in civic instruction. A study of pictures and architecture arouses the desire for civic beauty and orderliness.

It is recommended that civics and history should, so far as possible, be taught as allied subjects with the emphasis at one time upon history and at another time upon present civics. Along with the

incidental instruction in civics, there should be given suitable lessons in the present-day political activities connected with the life of the child. He should gradually come to realize that each political unit, town, city, state, nation, is a group of people organized in such a manner as to do for the members of that group those kinds of work which all need to have done.

The *special* aim in the teaching of civics therefore should be to help the child realize himself as a member of each political group that does work for him. . . .

The committee is of the unanimous opinion that the best results can be secured in the teaching of government in the seventh and eighth grades when pupils are assigned definite readings in a good text on civics. Many of these assignments should accompany the regular lessons in history. Others would be taken more advantageously as separate lessons, for which provision should be made in the program.

Stated approximately, the time to be given civics should be at least twenty minutes a week for a half year in grades five and six; forty minutes in grade seven, and sixty minutes in grade eight.

The above suggestions are commendable and it is noteworthy that in a complete program for elementary schools it is only necessary that the brief recommendations of this committee be expanded and made more specific with full instructions, devices and available material, and that provision be made for the beginning of civic instruction in the grades preceding the fifth.

(c) *The Committee of Five.*

On account of certain criticisms of the report of the committee of seven and the growing need of some slight revisions, a second committee was appointed in 1907 and rendered its report in 1911. Considerable attention was given to the relation between United States history and civil government.

After discussing briefly the relation of history and government the committee concluded that

in light of all the facts we can gather we are justified, probably, in saying that there is an undoubted desire on the part of many teachers to have the opportunity to give a separate course in government,

especially for the purpose of dwelling on certain phases of actual politics and government that cannot be readily and adequately discussed in connection with American history . . . we desire to say clearly that we do not think that the two subjects, despite their interdependence, should be so taught as to crowd out government or give insufficient time for its proper study. More and more as the days go by it becomes plain that the schools have the clear duty of giving full instruction on the essentials of American government and practical politics. We have no desire to underestimate this need and this duty.

The committee thinks, however, that much that is commonly called government can best be taught in connection with history. On the other hand, it is admitted that such subjects as the state constitutional system, local government, party organization and party machinery cannot be adequately treated in connection with history and that these will require separate and independent consideration. For a separate course the suggestion is offered that

the distribution of time between government and history in the fourth year should, we believe, be in some such ratio as this—two-fifths of the time may be given to separate work in government and three-fifths to the course in history. This arrangement will not appear to all teachers as ideal; some teachers will desire more time for history, others more time for government. But on the whole the distribution appears to be the best that can be proposed, and we should be the last to assert that no teacher should modify any adjustment or arrangement to suit his own needs and inclinations, if they are based on an intelligent regard for the subject and his pupils. Many teachers will prefer to give the civil government separately after the history work is concluded. But while this plan may have its advantages in some respects, the continuous study of government throughout the year side by side with history has also advantages that merit consideration. Where the study of government extends through the whole year, there are many opportunities for concrete illustrations and even learning by observation, which are not allowed in a shorter time: elections are held; municipal problems arise and are discussed in the newspapers; important appointments to office are announced; the

usual presidential message appears. These advantages will induce many teachers to prefer the system of carrying government through the year side by side with history.

By the time this report was presented the movement in favor of greater time and attention to the study of civics was well under way and naturally the recognition of the trend of the times is shown in the recommendation that the year's work in American history and civil government be subdivided on the basis of 3-5 to history and 2-5 to civil government. Although the recommendation has been made rather recently, there are many indications that the suggestion has been followed by superintendents and principals. The report scarcely goes far enough to suit teachers especially interested in the field of civics, nor for that matter, many others who have an incidental interest in the subject, but a long step forward was taken in recognizing the growing demands for the study of modern political organizations and their functions.

History Teachers' Associations.

Among those who have aided in improving the teaching of civics are to be found some of the active members of the teachers' associations, including the associations of New England, the Middle States and Maryland, the Mississippi Valley, and the Pacific States,—all of which have at various times given considerable attention to the discussion of methods of instruction in government. The most effective work has been done by the New England History Teachers' Association and by the Middle States Association. The first of these has not only considered the matter of civics in many of its meetings, but also through a special committee it has prepared an outline for teachers which has been published as a volume entitled, "An Outline of the Study of American Civil Government," with special reference to training for citizenship. The outline presents a comprehensive survey of topics and material for study and adds a list of

select references for the study of governmental organizations and for certain principles of government. It is one of the most useful guides now available for teachers.

As an evidence of the modern trend of discussion may be cited in particular the session devoted to this subject by the Association of the Middle States and Maryland at Albany in November, 1913, in which "The Teaching of Civics in the Elementary Schools" was discussed by J. Lynn Barnard; "Civics in the High School and Training for Citizenship" by James Sullivan; "Training for Citizenship from the Standpoint of Colleges and Universities" by Charles A. Beard. At the close of the conference the following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

HOW SHALL SCHOOLS TRAIN FOR CITIZENSHIP?

Elementary and Secondary Schools.

1. The order of teaching should be from the functions to the machinery of government, with special emphasis on function rather than machinery.

2. The work should be based on the pupils' experience and immediate surroundings.

3. There should be a continual connection of civics with current events, and the student should be made to form the habit of keeping up with the news.

4. The keynote of the course should be the obligation of the citizen to serve the community.

5. Means should be found for the actual participation of the students in civic activities. This means more than the usual visits to courts and public buildings. They should do something to help, either as individuals or through civic associations.

6. Civic training should be secured through the organization and discipline of the school. If the organization is such as to develop in the pupils personal responsibility, initiative, a social conscience, and high ideals of conduct, the best civic lesson has been learned.

7. Civics should be given a place of its own separate from history.

8. This association should take steps to secure separate examinations for United States history and civics and examination questions for civics which call for something besides a knowledge of the machinery of government.

3. *National Municipal League.*

Another organization which has been interested and active in the movement to improve the teaching of government and civics in the schools is the National Municipal League. In fact, this organization was one of the first to enter the field and some effective results have been accomplished particularly along the line of the teaching of municipal government. Various committees have been appointed and reports presented dealing with all phases of civic instruction. The results of these committees along with the papers and discussions relating thereto are included in the reports of the Conferences on Good City Government published by the League and in the recent issues of the "National Municipal Review." The first report of the committee on instruction in municipal government in American colleges was presented in 1901 and includes the results of a questionnaire sent to several hundred institutions covering the work offered along the lines of government and law. A list of works bearing on the general subject of city government was also offered, and the tendency to improve courses in municipal government in the colleges was very strongly commended. James T. Young discussed university instruction in municipal government and two outlines of courses on municipal government were presented, one prepared by L. S. Rowe of the University of Pennsylvania, the other by R. C. Brooks of Cornell University. These outlines indicate the effort made at this time to systematize and render effective the instruction in municipal government.

The continuance of interest is shown in a further discussion of the teaching of municipal government in American educational institutions at the annual meeting for 1902, and in the presentation of suggestions for courses on municipal government. Again in 1903 the subject was discussed by John A. Fairlie, who offered the following conclusions relative to courses in civil government: first, simple lessons in the duties of public agents,

in the elementary schools; second, the systematic study of one city, in high schools and academies; third, a comparative study of American municipal government, as a part of a general study of government in colleges and universities; fourth, a comprehensive study of municipal government for advanced students in the universities, leading to fifth, the technical courses in the various professional departments in the universities. His valuable paper was followed by a discussion of the teaching of municipal government in the high schools of our large cities. Wilson L. Gill of Philadelphia presented an account of the School City which is now well known as one of the special devices to increase interest in practical civic affairs. This address contains a code of laws for the School City, and includes the comment that "public schools and colleges, boasted bulwarks of our liberties, have unwittingly but ceaselessly nursed the spirit of monarchy."

In 1904 a second report on university and collegiate research in municipal government was presented. In the course of the report it was observed that "there has been no searching analysis of the civic usefulness of the college bred man," and that the leading subjects of the public schools "do not contribute toward the development of civic instincts, nor to the strengthening of civic effort." At the same session a tentative program for the teaching of municipal government and civics in the elementary schools was offered. A further discussion of the School City and the results of another committee, were submitted under the title, "Instruction in Modern Government" at the annual session in 1905. The report contained an outline of a course in municipal government for high schools. In 1905 Frederick L. Luqueer offered a syllabus for civics in the grades and Jesse B. Davis reported on a high school program, with the observation that "the committee does not favor the teaching of civics or municipal government in the earlier years of the high school course, but would recommend the plan of the committee

of seven on the teaching of history, in which civics is a part of the unit in American history.”

After several years the status of instruction in municipal government in the universities and colleges was again discussed by a committee of which William Bennett Munro was chairman in a report which contains a strong presentation of the importance and task of the teacher of political science, and the aim and purpose of instruction in municipal government. A further report bringing the tables and data up to 1914 was prepared on behalf of the committee by Professor Munro and published in the “National Municipal Review.” The efforts of the League along the line of improving the teaching of government in the schools has culminated in the appointment of a committee on Civic Education. This committee rendered a preliminary report at Toronto in 1913 and continued its work under the leadership of Arthur W. Dunn, who has recently become associated with the Bureau of Education as special agent in Civic Education. The plan under which the work is being conducted is thus described by Mr. Dunn in a circular issued under the direction of the Bureau of Education:

With the coöperation of the National Municipal League and other organizations long interested in the problem of education for citizenship, the United States Bureau of Education is undertaking a comprehensive study of the whole problem of civic education. . . .

In this field of activity the government bureau of education hopes to do officially and systematically what has heretofore been attempted by a number of organizations working independently. Many civic associations throughout the United States have been agitating in behalf of education for citizenship; valuable results have been obtained; and many communities have made important experiments in improving citizenship through the schools and through other agencies. The Bureau will seek to coördinate these hitherto separate efforts; to bring coöperation where independent action has prevailed; to make known everywhere the results of civic education so far accomplished; and to formulate a constructive plan for definite work in this important field.

In announcing the Bureau's new work Commissioner Claxton points out that in the larger sense all education is really education for citizenship; that not only is citizenship training co-extensive with effective education in general, but that "the final justification of public taxation for public education lies in the training of young people for citizenship." The work already accomplished through the agency of the United States Bureau of Education in the publication of bulletins and in rendering assistance to schools in reorganizing courses is one of the most encouraging evidences of increasing interest in government instruction.¹

4. *American Political Science Association.*

(a) *Committee of Five.*

No systematic effort was made by teachers of government toward the improvement of instruction until the formation of the American Political Science Association in Baltimore in 1902 and 1903. At the meetings of this Association each year papers were offered which have proved of special interest and value to teachers. At the meeting of the Association in 1903 a section was devoted to instruction in government and a paper was presented by William A. Schaper of the University of Minnesota on the subject, "What do our students know about American government before taking college courses in political science?" The interest created by this discussion resulted in the formation of a committee of three which was appointed at the meeting of the Association in Providence in the following year. The members originally appointed were: William A. Schaper, University of Minnesota; Isidor Loeb, University of Missouri, and Paul S. Reinsch, University of Wisconsin. The following year at Madison the committee was increased to five by the addition of James A. James of Northwestern University and James Sullivan of Brooklyn, N. Y. A very thorough investigation of

¹ See Civic Education Series and Bulletins No. 41-1913; 17-1915; 23-1915.

the entire field of secondary school instruction was made by the committee, and its report marks one of the greatest steps forward in the way of bringing to the attention of teachers the necessity of more time and better instruction in this subject. To quote from the report:

Is it not a curious fact that though our schools are largely instituted, supported and operated by the government, yet the study of American government in the schools and colleges is the last subject to receive adequate attention? The results of the neglect of this important branch of study in our educational institutions can easily be seen in the general unfitness of men who have entered a political career, so that now the name of statesman is often used as a term of reproach, and the public service is weak, except in a few conspicuous instances. Are the schools perhaps to blame for the lack of interest in politics shown by our educated men until the recent exposures arrested the attention of the entire nation?

We think the best place to begin the work of regeneration and reform is in the American secondary schools and colleges. Here we find the judges, legislators, diplomats, politicians and office-seekers of the future in the making. Here are the future citizens too, in their most impressionable years, in the years when the teacher has their attention.

The inquiry of the committee centered about five main features:

1. Number of students enrolled and the time given to the subject.
2. The nature of the course and the plan of instruction.
3. The teacher.
4. The text-book.
5. The school library.

The report dealt with the important phases of civic instruction in secondary schools. The recommendations offered are as follows:¹

¹ This entire report is especially valuable to teachers of government. Only a condensed statement with a few extracts can be given here. The report is in the volume containing the Proceedings of the American Political Science Association for 1908.

A. Elementary Schools.

The committee recommends that the discussion of the simple and readily observable functions and organs of local government be introduced into all the grades beginning not later than the fifth. The early instruction should take the form of observations by the class under direction of the teacher, talks or readings by the teacher, intended to add to the pupils' common stock of information, accounts of happenings and experiences, etc. In the eighth grade more formal instruction in local, state and national government should be given using an elementary text and some reference books. This work might well occupy the time of a subject for one-half of the eighth year. The emphasis in the grammar grade work on government should be on local and State governments and should deal with actual projects, activities and methods of doing things rather than consist of a mere collection of lists of officers and their salaries or an analysis of the constitution. The eighth grade classes can profitably be taken by the teacher to observe a session of a local court, city council, convention or polling place. Simple rules of parliamentary procedure can be explained and practiced.

For this work the essential thing is a teacher who understands and appreciates the subject and knows the community. The teacher needs a small collection of well chosen books, some current magazines and newspapers and the latest local official reports and bulletins.

B. High Schools.

In any system of schools where the subject has been properly treated in the grades, it is a simple task to plan the work for the high school. American government should follow upon the work in history and should be a required study to occupy at least five recitations per week for one-half of the fourth year, or three recitations per week for that entire year. This is the minimum time which should be given to the subject. Some high schools are now devoting a full year to it with profit.

In case the subject has not been taught in the grades, and especially in towns where many boys drop out of the high school before reaching the fourth year, it is highly desirable to offer an elementary course in government in the first or second years, so as to place it within reach of the greatest possible number. In the larger city high schools this elementary course can be offered as an additional elective without serious inconvenience.

There may be wide differences of opinion as to what constitutes an education, but surely these three things are essential:

A reasonable facility in the use of our country's language, including an acquaintance with its best literature; a reasonable comprehension of the practical workings of our country's government; and a fair understanding of its past history.

There are two methods of presenting the subject: one begins with the local government near at hand and proceeds to the study of the state and then to the national government. The other begins with the national government and proceeds to the state and local. In a high school course either plan may be adopted. If the school is situated in one of the older commonwealths, the first plan seems more logical and natural, while if situated in one of the newer states, admitted long after the formation of the union, and governed meanwhile as a territory under acts of congress, the second plan may for an equally good reason be adopted.

In any case, the emphasis should be placed on the government of the locality, especially of the city, the town and the state with which the citizens come in contact most frequently. It is the local and state governments which largely determine the conditions under which we live. The attention of the future citizens should be directed, therefore, primarily to a study of their organization and their problems, rather than to the national government as the text-books have done in the past.

C. Specially Trained Teachers.

The greatest need to-day is more teachers especially trained in political science. The practice of attaching the subject of government to the duties of any high school teacher on the force, whose time is not fully taken up with a multitude of other things, is universally condemned.

D. College Entrance.

The entrance conditions of every university should allow credit for at least one-half to one unit of American Government. Where entrance examinations are given the questions should be so framed as to test, not merely memory work, but also the understanding of the actual workings of governmental organs and information on current public questions.

E. The Teacher's Training.

Another matter of vital importance is the proper training of teachers of government. The subject should receive its due proportion of time in the training schools for teachers and in teachers' institutes. A number of states now make a knowledge of the subject an essential requirement in qualifying for any teaching position in all the public schools. Such a provision in the law regulating the qualification of teachers is reasonable and is a very direct way of stimulating instruction in the subject.¹

F. The Library for Government.

Every high school whether large or small, should have as a part of its equipment a collection of books, reports, documents, current literature and legal forms for the study of government. Some of this material is primarily for the use of the teacher. No teacher can hope to keep up in this subject who does not follow the current discussions, public acts, messages and reports concerning the actual doings of government departments, officials, committees and political parties.

G. Observations of Actual Government.

Much interest can be aroused and the hazy impressions about government can be made clear and definite by occasionally witnessing the procedure of government bodies and by encouraging the students to follow the actual workings of government by reading the newspapers and magazines.

(b) Committee of Seven.

About five years after the appearance of this report it seemed advisable to the officers of the American Political Science Association to constitute a new committee to investigate and report upon changes in the secondary school field as well as to make further inquiries along lines not comprehended within the scope of the committee of five. As a consequence it was voted at the annual business meeting of the Association held in Buffalo, December, 1911, "that a committee of seven members be appointed to consider the methods of teaching and studying government now pursued in American schools, colleges and

¹ The committee also made some useful suggestions as to text-books, see Proceedings, 1908, p. 255.

universities, and to suggest means of enlarging and improving such instruction." The nature and scope of the work undertaken by this committee is indicated in the ensuing report.

(c) *Committee on Practical Training for Public Service.*

To further extend the influence of the educational efforts of the Association there was constituted at the Boston meeting in 1913 a committee of five with a view (1) to examine and make a list of places where laboratory work for graduate students in political science can be done; (2) to recommend to the various college and university faculties that due graduate credit be given to such places; (3) to use its best endeavors to obtain scholarships for this laboratory work and to secure an endowment for the building up of a trained body of public servants; and (4) to make, if possible, a system of card records and efficiency standards for graduates doing practical work in political science.¹ A joint committee on conference was appointed by the American Economic Association. A preliminary report was presented to the American Political Science Association in 1914. Subsequently a plan was submitted for training schools for public service with proposed standard regulations for the degree of doctor of philosophy.² As an outgrowth of the work undertaken through this committee two national conferences were held and a society was formed for the promotion of training for the public service.

One of the significant things in the present movement to improve the teaching of government in the schools and colleges is the apparent unanimity of opinion among the various committees interested. While each is approaching the subject from a somewhat different angle and while the results and conclusions offered

¹ Charles McCarthy, Madison, Chairman, Albert Bushnell Hart, Harvard University, Benjamin F. Shambaugh, University of Iowa, William F. Willoughby, Princeton University, Raymond G. Gettell, Amherst College.

² For information relative to the work of this committee write to the Chairman, Dr. Charles McCarthy, Madison, Wis.

will no doubt vary somewhat, all indications point in the direction that the several Associations are working toward a single end, that is, to make the study of government an essential feature of our educational system, to tie the instruction to the interest and conditions of local communities, to stress functions and to approach the study of governmental forms and of general principles through the avenue of functions. It is fortunate that several organizations of national importance are offering recommendations at the same time, and are preparing suggestions as well as concrete aid to teachers. The subject of government has too long been made a subordinate and minor matter in the school curriculum. It is now well on its way to secure the prominent place in the schools which the content of the subject and its significance to the community so well deserve.

III. The Purpose of Instruction in Government.

1. *Aims of Civic Instruction.*

The prime purposes of a study of civic relations are so obvious as to require little in the way of discussion. They may be summarized thus:

1. To awaken a knowledge of the fact that the citizen is in a social environment whose laws bind him for his own good.
2. To acquaint the citizen with the forms of organization and methods of administration of government in its several departments.

These objects it is believed can be better attained if the school begins to aid the young citizen not only to think in terms of society but also to translate civic thought into action. Instead of abstract theories and facts which have no meaning children can readily be taught to read government reports and to learn what are the significant facts to look for. In the words of Henry Bruere, "Why should not a high school pupil learn that the efficiency of the health department may be gauged by some such facts as: the death rate, infant mortality rate, measles,

scarlet fever and diphtheria rates (morbidity and death), the bacteria count of milk, maximum, minimum and average, the number of school children treated for defects, the number of nuisances abated—all as compared with previous records.” Such is the viewpoint emphasized in community civics in which the chief object is to help the child to know his own community. The specific aims of community civics are designated in the Bureau of Education Bulletin on the Teaching of Community Civics as:

1. To see the importance and significance of the elements of community welfare in their relations to himself and to the communities of which he is a member;
2. To know the social agencies, governmental and voluntary, that exist to secure these elements of community welfare;
3. To recognize his civic obligations, present and future, and to respond to them by appropriate action.

These three aims are given in the above order because it is essential to the success of this course that at the outset the interest of the pupil be attached to the element of common welfare, and that he be taught to think of each agency as a means to an end and not as an end in itself. Each part of the study should culminate in a recognition of personal responsibility as a good citizen, and, as far as possible, in appropriate action.

Many courses in civics fail because they fix attention upon the machinery of government rather than upon the elements of community welfare for 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 ends which are most evident to him, namely, his own selfish interests.

2. Civics for the Education of the Electorate.

One of the chief reasons why the teaching of government has appeared useless and futile is that the subject was treated as designed mainly to educate voters. Accordingly its direct application could only be to those who would in the future be

qualified to exercise the suffrage and the practical applications were so remote as to be nearly negligible. Moreover, the voter is called upon to fulfill this high function only on special occasions and in such a manner as to render it questionable whether any course in civic training could be of much value. As long as civics was thought of as chiefly devised to educate voters its value and utility, however important the exercise of the franchise might be, would be considered as exceedingly remote. The information in the course would be of such a character as to be forgotten long before any practical application would be possible. Whereas if civic training were conceived as a training to fit citizens of all classes, ages and conditions to lead lives of usefulness and service in the community of everyday affairs the course would become at once vital, interesting and practical. It is a change in emphasis, a development of a new point of view, more than any other thing that has contributed to the growth of interest in civic studies. Although training to participate in the everyday social and political activities of the community is unquestionably the foremost aim of social studies it nevertheless remains true that some special attention should be given to those matters which have to do with the rights and obligations of the future voter. Naturally creating an interest and desire to participate in community affairs will give the most effective preliminary preparation for the future elector.

It is strange indeed that educators have been so slow to recognize their duties and responsibilities to the community in a nation where democratic rules and practices prevail. Nowhere has the citizen been accorded such heavy burdens and far reaching responsibilities as in the United States. The task of the citizen who is commonly lauded as the sovereign in this country is performed, among many other duties and responsibilities, in the election of officials, local, state and national. In addition to the election of a host of officials, the citizen as voter is called upon to nominate these officers. Finally, he is called upon to make con-

stitutions and by frequent revisions and amendments to change the fundamental law under which he lives. Moreover, through the initiative and referendum he may have the responsibility to vote upon the laws which shall govern him. In the same election, he may be expected to vote on dozens of propositions to be enacted into law and for candidates for scores of offices.

We have lauded the spectacle of the common people rising to the height of free government through the ballot, we have heaped additional burdens upon citizens, but what have we done and what are we doing to educate the people to use intelligently the mighty weapon of democracy?

It is not an exaggeration to say that little attention has been given to practical instruction in the devices which make democratic government possible. To be sure much has been written and much more said about education for citizenship. It has been the stock in trade for political orators and commencement speakers.

But politicians, bosses, machine manipulators and ward heelers, have long since discovered the utter sham and foolishness of this twaddle about citizenship which ends in rhetoric. They have busied themselves with ballot legislation, cultivating constituencies, delivering votes, filling offices and controlling the men who fill them. They have studied the art of citizenship while teachers have been wont to elevate and inspire by theoretical dissertations on good citizenship. While students have memorized, lauded and worshipped our federal Constitution and doted upon the wonders of our unique plan of government political leaders have quietly garnered a harvest by mastering the art of manipulating the machinery of government.

Although the entire public school system has as one of its aims the training of citizens it can scarcely be claimed that anything more than a beginning has been made to educate and train definitely for actual service in the community the citizens who pass under the influence of our public school system. We

have yet to learn the lesson which received convincing demonstration in Greece, that democracy is possible only with an electorate trained in the most complete sense in civic affairs.

3. *Civics and Social Service.*

The recent development of civics from obscurity to a leading place in education indicates that educators are coming to appreciate their responsibilities in this respect. According to G. Stanley Hall, "The one word now written across the very zenith of the educational skies, high above all others, is the word service." This is coming to be as it should be, he maintains, the supreme goal of all pedagogical endeavor, the standard by which all other values are to be measured. In this dispensation, the very best thing the schools are beginning to do is to inculcate some knowledge of and sympathy with the simple duties of civic virtue. The new process places great emphasis and high responsibility upon the teachers of the social sciences, history, economics and civics, the latter not being the least of the three in furnishing its part of the training for the new calling. The beginning of civic education is the betterment of the group spirit. To continue from the admirable characterization of the high purpose of civic instruction by Professor Hall:

Our schools were established to give an intelligent basis to government of, by, and for the people, and in civics we are restoring the school to this prime original function, the need of which has greatly increased by reason of the growing complexity of governmental machinery. Owing to the progressive educational neglect of these fields in recent decades and to the great influx of foreigners who needed to be inducted into the very elements of democracy, the chasm made by this increasing political ignorance, on the one hand, and the increased intricacy of methods and the vast multiplication of problems and agencies, on the other, we have passed through a period of miscarriage that will soon be regarded as tragic and pathetic. The old basis of intelligent, independent, patriotic, rural yeomanry of the post-constitutional days has gone forever or become an element of dwindling significance, and in its place the average voter is urban,

unenlightened, thinks, feels, and acts in squads and at the dictation of interested leaders, who often acquire despotic power, animated by the hope of gain, while they and legislators are often coerced by the public-be-damned private interests, trusts, etc. The new socialization seeks to put an end to all this by teaching young children sound and loyal sentiments and inducting older ones into the technique of public administration. The civic movement would make every school and university a solidarity of mutual helpfulness, would arouse and capture the very greatest power for good that exists in the world which is the enthusiasm of youth.¹

The period of civic awakening thus, thinks Professor Hall, presents a pedagogical situation of unexcelled opportunities. It marks a new order in which civics becomes the religion of service of the public schools. If it is the chief end of education to fit one to respond intelligently to that high calling which is the common call to every man to take his place, to do his work in the community of his fellows, the new civics must be given a much greater place in the school curriculum than is now commonly accorded.

4. *Danger in Civics Teaching.*

Viscount Bryce long ago called attention to a danger which is likely to occur in the teaching of government. The difficulty seems to be that information is presented to enable recipients to think they know something about the great problems of politics, and yet this information may be insufficient to show how little they really know. This danger is so obvious that some writers go so far as to oppose all civic instruction because of superficial knowledge and snap judgments which are based thereon. In the words of Professor Hall again, "the cause of civic righteousness is so vast and all conditioning, especially in a democracy, that it often makes feeble and untrained minds fanatic and discredits the very cause they would advance."

Teachers of civics recognize this difficulty and realize that it is

¹ "Educational Problems," vol 2, Chapter on Civic Education, pp. 667-682.

necessary at the same time that instruction in government be presented to impress the spirit of humility and the necessity of deferring to the judgment of experts on many questions relating to civic affairs. Relative to this matter, David Snedden, Commissioner of Education of Massachusetts, in discussing the nature of a liberal education observes: "The essence of general civic education is to produce good employers of civic workers, that is, persons who will know how to choose efficient and honest employees. From this standpoint, shall we continue to be able to call a man liberally educated for the conditions of modern life who manifests incapacity and professes indifference in exercising his social responsibility in the joint purchase of expert political service?" A similar opinion is that expressed by Ex-President Eliot who says: "To produce such experts and to instil respect for expert judgment is one of the most urgent duties of the American university. For insufficient appreciation of the value of expert labor is one of the worst afflictions of American life."

The problem which confronts instructors in civics is one which inheres in every phase of our national life. How far can questions of government be considered and determined by the electorate and through public opinion, and how far can they best be determined by experts trained for the governmental service and practical affairs of administration? It is necessary to realize in this regard a distinction which is also beginning to receive consideration among practical men of affairs as well as among students and teachers of politics, one which is much more generally understood in the European countries than in the United States, namely, that political matters may properly and logically be separated into two distinct classes. One class comprises questions of a general nature, questions of policy and of the point of view and attitude of the community toward government and its activities, and of questions which are essentially political in nature and on which public opinion and the electorate

may determine with a great degree of certainty and accuracy. On the other hand, there is a large part of governmental affairs which is technical in nature and on which no one but an expert is qualified to form an opinion of any value whatever. The great majority of governmental issues and problems particularly in the complex society of to-day come within the second class, but the expert in his field must be tempered and directed by the predominant voice of public opinion as determined in the settlement of public questions. The teacher of civics then has with respect to the education of future voters a twofold aim: first, to aid in the appreciation and consideration of the underlying principles and of the great political issues which the citizen is called upon to decide; second, to offer sufficient knowledge and appreciation of the administration of government so as to render possible the understanding of the work of the expert and to aid in the selecting process which belongs to the citizen. Moreover, the chief function of civic instruction, it must always be remembered, is not simply to give a kind of preliminary training for casting the ballot for this is but a small part of the duty which citizenship entails. To appreciate the social and governmental institutions of his community, to fulfill his part in making those institutions agencies of progress and helpfulness in the great struggle for good government and liberty, such is the high function of civic instruction.

IV. Methods, Material and Devices.

While the content of government teaching has undergone a marked transformation within recent years, the methods and material of the course have been subject to no less reformation. The old text-book style of instruction with the memorization of constitutions, names of officers, etc., was relatively simple and it is not surprising that the subject of civics was assigned to some member of the high school faculty to fill an otherwise incomplete schedule. Fortunately, this type of instruction as

well as this kind of teacher are rapidly disappearing, and the new civics requires a knowledge of a wider range of material and involves difficulties of method which will soon render it entirely impracticable for any but the specially trained teacher to undertake the presentation of the subject.

1. *Ways of Rendering Instruction Practical.*

The method which is being adopted in the progressive courses of civic instruction includes a diversity of material and a variety of ways of handling the same. No course in secondary civics can now be presented effectively without a good text as a basis for the course, a considerable number of prescribed supplementary readings, a library of important works of reference combined with a reference bureau or special department of civic affairs. Modern magazines and newspapers are extensively used and the instruction is carried out into practical lines involving field work, investigations and observations. According to the opinion of Ex-President Eliot, the fundamental principle of education is "that children are best developed through productive activities, that is, through positive, visible achievement in doing, making or producing something." Effective training for citizenship therefore requires that pupils shall be held responsible for making investigations upon matters of local application as they arise in the work.

To render the instruction in the subject concrete and to demonstrate the practical nature of government itself, the following duties of citizenship must be stressed at every available opportunity:

1. Compliance with school regulations; care of books and school property; obedience to laws and rules laid down for the good of the community and of the school.

2. Responsibility to the poor and helpless; prevention of cruelty to children and animals; necessity for independence and self-support.

3. Care for and protection of playgrounds and park property such as trees, flowers, and benches. The school and home garden can be made a valuable adjunct to inculcate some practical civic lessons.

4. Keeping cellars, yards, alleys, roads and streets clean, free from rubbish, filth and dirt. Many cities have already learned the practical utility as well as the educative value of interesting the young citizens in civic welfare.

Wherever feasible the class should be taken to a session of court, a meeting of city council or commission, the county court house, and perchance the state and the national capitols. Classes can with profit be organized as a town meeting, court or legislative assembly. Trials can be held and elections participated in by the school in such a way as to demonstrate the practical procedure of government. The principles as well as the practice of civics can be demonstrated in no better way than by the encouragement and development of student self-government. The School City,¹ the George Junior Republic, student organizations to control athletics and debate, indicate clearly that under careful supervision junior citizens may be trusted with a large measure of responsibility. In fact it is difficult to understand how children can be trained to take their part in the democratic control and management of government unless they are treated as responsible beings by school instructors. Teachers have too long assumed that it was necessary to organize the school on the principles and procedure of a despotism. The remarkable success of self-government in many cases where it has been given a fair trial demonstrates its value not only as a plan of school discipline but also as a training in practical civics.

An effective method of securing results and encouraging in-

¹ For information as to the organization and operation of the School City in various schools consult *The Boys and Girls' Republic* and *A New Citizenship*, by Wilson L. Gill, or write to the American Patriotic League, Independence Hall, Phila.

terest in this line has been found in certain communities in the formation of civic clubs such as: The Two Rivers plan, The Georgia Club, The Winston-Salem Junior Civic League and the Newark scheme for an organized study of local government and community interest. The Winston-Salem idea devised primarily as a method of training for citizenship involves the following purposes:

1. Coöperation between public schools and local board of trade.
2. Establishment of a department of government and economics, in the high school.
3. Formation of a boys' department or juvenile club of the board of trade.

The success of this club is such as to commend the plan to teachers of civics in towns and cities particularly where there are local chambers of commerce, although it is quite apparent that great modifications are necessary to apply any device of this sort so as to meet the peculiarities of local environment.

In connection with the civics department of the high schools of Newark, N. J., a plan was developed by which pamphlets were issued on the industries of Newark and the government of the city in all its departments, while such matters as city health, sanitation and milk supply were taken up in separate bulletins prepared by the civics teachers. These bulletins were used as texts on local government and the students were encouraged to help in gathering the information for other bulletins.¹ Another method of rendering the study of local government effective is that of the Rockford High School, Rockford, Ill., where the instructors in civil government have prepared a thorough syllabus on the "Government of Rockford and

¹ A feature of the Newark plan is the coöperation of the public library in making available to the pupils and other citizens of the city well selected printed material relating to every phase of Newark's development and community life. Cf. Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1914, p. 410.

Winnebago County." The early history and the commercial and educational advantages of Rockford are presented, followed by an outline of local government in all its phases with some select references added for the special study of each topic. While it is not necessary to provide so extensive an outline as this the civics department in each school may find it helpful to prepare a method of procedure in the study of local government. Because of the wide variations in local communities no general plan can be recommended for use by all teachers. All general outlines must be greatly modified to meet the needs of any special community. It is always to be remembered that the community is in the nature of a laboratory and the work must be kept close to local conditions and needs.

Special mention may be made also of The Two Rivers plan put into operation during the past six years in Two Rivers, Wisconsin, where the aim of the work has been to develop a spirit of coöperation and civic pride through the medium of the city school system by awakening interest in the homes of the pupils in the schools. Civic activities are centred around the work of the public school system in the following manner:

The meetings of the Parent-Teachers' Association, the various civic clubs, industrial schools, etc., are all held in the Central High School building which is at the geographical centre of the city. The civic movements have been started by discussions in the various literary groups and classes of the schools. These discussions are carried into the homes by the children. The local newspapers are used to the full extent, both in editorial and news departments. When the subjects in question have been fully discussed in the homes, one or more general meetings are held in the high school auditorium which has a seating capacity of 800. Here an address is given by experts, usually officials of the city, and definite action is taken either by resolution of the citizens present or promise of action by the city officials.

Womens' Clubs, Parent-Teachers' Association, Civic Leagues, Commercial Club and City government are all encouraged to work through the civic department of the public schools. The success of

the plan bids fair to encourage its acceptance and application by many communities similarly situated.¹

Another movement which offers interesting possibilities along the line of civic training is to be found in the Home County Club. This has been developed somewhat in Georgia and more definitely in North Carolina under the leadership of E. C. Branson. The main purpose of these clubs is to form a clearing house and ready reference library about local and state affairs. Special emphasis has been given in both of these states to economic and social questions, but political matters receive incidental consideration, and the Home County Club offers excellent possibilities for the study of public health, sanitation, public charity and correction. County officers and the functions which they perform can thus be studied in a much more effective manner than has been possible heretofore. Such clubs may readily become centres of information and improvement in the organization of the county, for better schools, better roads, better health, better justice, better protection to the social and industrial interests of the community.

2. *The Community Survey.*

No step forward within recent times offers so great possibilities for the purpose of civic instruction in local affairs as is involved in the social or community survey. The idea is comparatively new and the methods involved have only recently been clearly formulated. The original purposes are thus presented by one of the leading advocates of this device:

“1. To bring a group of experts together to coöperate with local leaders in gauging the social needs of one city.

“2. To study these needs in relation to each other, to the whole area of the city, and to the civic responsibilities of democracy.

¹ Furnished by W. J. Hamilton, Two Rivers, Wis.

“3. To consider at the same time both civic and industrial conditions, and to consider them for the most part in their bearings upon the wage-earning population.

“4. To reduce conditions to terms of household experience and human life.

“5. To devise graphic methods for making these findings challenging, clear and unmistakable.”¹

It was intended that the survey record and present essentially the industrial and economic conditions of the community. To this original purpose has now been added the comprehensive study and presentation of political organization and methods. In this regard the survey idea has developed so as to form a useful device for civic instruction. The activities of the Georgia Club give some idea of the work which may be done in this field. The Russell Sage Foundation of New York City and the extension department of the state university are always ready to furnish information and to coöperate in aiding local communities to make surveys. A beginning may be made by any high school instructor who thoroughly familiarizes himself with the literature now available on social and community surveys.

3. *Reference Library on Civic Affairs.*

Few of the modern methods and devices can be used to advantage or with any degree of effectiveness without the accumulation of a Reference Library on Civic Affairs. These libraries have been formed and their usefulness tested with the result that a veritable government laboratory can be prepared and made a most important adjunct to the government department. Material of great interest and practical value is issued in the form of pamphlets or reports, and no teacher can afford to neglect this material especially in the teaching of current political problems. Sample ballots, copies of laws and ordinances, reports

¹ See Pamphlet on Social Surveys issued by the Russell Sage Foundation.

of officers and departments, maps and charts showing comparative statistics, are readily available and will add greatly to the interest in government studies. Graphic methods which have been used to such advantage in social and governmental exhibits can be followed in the preparation of many charts of local interest, and will display matters of importance not only to the civics class but also to the community at large. A separate room should be set aside in which maps, charts and other graphic devices can be prepared and displayed, and a part if not all of the time given to the study of government may well be spent in this room. The methods employed in the various legislative and municipal reference libraries offer many suggestions which can be profitably applied in preparing a library on civic affairs. Civics teachers wherever practicable would find it an advantage to visit one of the reference libraries either in connection with the city public library or a state bureau of research and reference.

All such methods and devices must necessarily be used with caution. An overzealous interference in local affairs at once defeats its own end. The chief object always to be kept foremost is the education of the young into the principles and practice of better citizenship. While the aid of these young citizens may be enlisted in clean-up programs and civic reform such efforts should be incidental to regular methods which are devised to inform and interest growing citizens in the conditions and problems of local community life. They will undoubtedly receive more benefit in an enlarged vision of community needs and of plans to better social conditions than the community will profit by the efforts of youthful reformers, although not a little can be accomplished by interesting children in improvement campaigns.

Moreover, field work, observations and investigations while extremely useful, in fact indispensable, in a civics course can never take the place of regular class room and library reference

work based upon a good text. All that field work can do is to add life and interest to the formal class room and book study. Practical devices, local surveys, observations of local government ought never to be engaged in with any other purpose than to supplement definite and systematic class room work. A course that is merely inspirational without the necessary background of information and data to support it must be largely ineffectual, and there is danger that field work or sociological investigations poorly directed may lead to a superficial view of government tending to create visionary and impractical citizens who without necessary knowledge or the proper perspective set about to reform society. No practical methods can take the place of a careful and painstaking study of governmental principles and practice. The main body of a civics course will always have to be this sort of study based on regular text-books with definite class assignments. It is extremely important that civic instruction be put into close vital touch with government in actual operation, but this vital touch can never compensate for a lack of an indispensable knowledge of governmental forms and the fundamental principles of political affairs.

4. *State and National Government.*

While emphasis has been given throughout the consideration of instruction in the public schools to the study of local government and community functions it is necessary to call attention to the fact that it is not intended to depreciate the study of state and national government. In elementary courses state and national affairs may be presented more effectively in connection with the study of government functions. For junior high school pupils some definite and specific assignments in the course will necessarily deal with the organization and functions of these departments. In senior high school much more attention can be given to governmental organization than would be possible or advisable in the earlier grades. Here the study of

such subjects as the separation of powers, the organization of government into departments, the houses of Congress, the organization of the executive department, the methods of administration as well as the similar divisions of the state government including many of the boards and commissions will necessarily form a considerable portion of the course. Throughout this report it has been assumed that the study of community functions, the problem method and the introduction of practical devices will result in the elimination of some of the useless details of the former civics course and will involve a changed viewpoint in the presentation of government topics rather than a totally different selection of topics. By directing attention to local affairs it is by no means intended that less attention be given to state and nation.

There is danger, however, in the urgent demand for community civics and for the study of local government that time may be frittered away in considering purely local affairs and matters of petty detail to the exclusion of the fundamental issues of state affairs and national politics. The development of local civics will be largely a failure unless the work is tied up closely throughout with the study of the functions performed by the state government, as well as those of the national government and the important place of each of these divisions in our complex federal system.

It is not to be forgotten that the new civics means rather the introduction of a new point of view and a new method into the instruction in civics. It means a vitalization of this instruction by indicating its direct connection with citizenship and the life of individuals as lived in a community. It cannot therefore involve a mere study of local affairs and local conditions but of necessity results in more attention to and more intelligent consideration of the affairs of the state and the nation.

Not only is it necessary that a large part of the course in

civics still be confined to a study of state and federal government, but there is good reason to believe that the comparative method may be introduced with profit, particularly in senior high school. Such comparisons as are made in Bryce's "American Commonwealth" may be introduced by teachers in such a way as to render civic instruction far more useful and suggestive. While the comparative method can be used only to a slight extent, and only by teachers trained to handle such material effectively, it can undoubtedly be made the basis of some very interesting discussions, particularly if the pupils have the opportunity of studying modern European history either previously or parallel to the government course. The committee wishes, therefore, to emphasize the fact that in the discussions and suggestions heretofore offered it is not a change in the content of the subject and the elimination of material formerly presented so much as it is a different viewpoint and a more effective method in the presentation of the material that is particularly commended to teachers.

5. *Thoroughness.*

Finally, the committee wishes to be clearly understood as not favoring the consideration of such a large list of topics and such a range of affairs as to develop a wholly superficial attitude in the study of the subject. It will be far better to select several topics and to discuss these somewhat fully rather than to attempt a survey of a large list of agencies or functions. A mastery of a few things rather than a superficial view gathered from a wide and discursive study is always to be preferred. A few topics well chosen and carefully considered may be treated in such a manner as to develop the most important principles and methods which are involved in the ordinary governmental processes, and although there is a complexity in the subject which cannot be ignored or eliminated, it may be well to remember that thoroughness is one of the greatest, if not the greatest need of the

public school system at the present time. No plan of civic instruction can be worthy of retention in the school curriculum which does not require steady, persistent work and involve thoroughness in the instruction itself, in the methods of study and in the subject-matter selected.

PART II

REPORT ON THE TEACHING OF CIVICS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

ADVANCED CIVICS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

I. Report of Committee of Seven in Coöperation with the Bureau of Education

THE purpose for which the Committee on Instruction was appointed comprised an investigation and a report upon the teaching of government in schools and colleges. In view of the present situation relative to the teaching of government it seemed to the committee that college instruction should receive first attention. Consequently more than a year was given to an investigation of courses offered and methods of instruction in higher institutions. The improvement of civic instruction in elementary and secondary schools was also given careful attention. The valuable report of the Committee of Five presented in 1908 covered the secondary schools thoroughly and the task for the committee in this field was to discover the progress made since 1908 and to offer such additional suggestions as might seem advisable in the light of changed conditions.¹

By an agreement with A. W. Dunn, specialist in civic education, it was decided that the committee would coöperate with the Bureau of Education in an effort to procure data on the present status of instruction in secondary schools. An inquiry prepared by the committee and revised by Mr. Dunn was printed and distributed by the Bureau of Education to a select

¹ The recommendations offered by the committee of five naturally form the starting point for any suggestions towards improvement in secondary school instruction. The noteworthy recommendations of this committee are included in the summary presented, pp. 23-25.

list of teachers of civics. Only a portion of the valuable data made available in this inquiry can be presented herewith.

The letter of transmission and the questionnaire were as follows:

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
WASHINGTON

To the Principal and the Instructor in Government:

In coöperation with a number of civic and educational organizations, the Bureau of Education is seeking information in regard to education for citizenship in the schools of the country. It is the aim of the Bureau not merely to coöperate with the various organizations that are seeking to render service in a common field, but especially to *coördinate* their efforts so that, instead of numerous inquiries conducted independently of each other, there may be *one* inquiry covering all the essential information required, the results of the inquiry to be made available to all. It is hoped that this will be a distinct service, not only to the several agencies seeking information, but also to school authorities and teachers, by reducing the number of inquiries, official and unofficial, undertaken in this field.

One important line of inquiry in this field is that relating to direct instruction in government in secondary schools. In this study the Bureau is coöperating especially with the Committee on Instruction in government appointed by the American Political Science Association. This committee has already made a somewhat exhaustive study of instruction in political science in colleges and universities, the results of which are now in. The committee consists of Charles G. Haines, chairman, University of Texas; J. Lynn Barnard, School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia; Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, New York City; W. L. Fleming, Louisiana State University; Mabel Hill, Dean Post-Graduate Department, Dana Hall School, Wellesley; F. E. Horack, State University of Iowa; J. A. James, Northwestern University.

The following schedule was prepared by this committee, and has been repeatedly revised in the light of conferences with representatives of the Bureau and others, and put in a form to render response as complete and as easy as possible. It is expected that the results of the inquiry will be published by the Bureau and made available, not only to all seeking the information, but to all who coöperate in furnishing it.

You are earnestly requested, therefore, to provide the information called for in the following schedule, filling in each item as fully and as carefully as possible.

Sincerely yours,
 P. P. CLAXTON,
*Commissioner.*¹

1. City or town.....Name of school.....
 Total school enrollment.....
2. Instruction in government is given in this school as follows:

	<i>Hours per week.</i>	<i>Number of weeks.</i>	<i>Number enrolled</i>	<i>Elec- tive</i>	<i>Re- quired</i>	<i>Sep. Comb. course</i>
First year						
Second year						
Third year						
Fourth year						

3. Text-books used:.....Supplementary books used:

4. The principal defects of secondary school text-books in government are (in my opinion):.....
5. The time allotted to instruction in government should be
 increased How much?.....
 decreased
- Additional time for instruction in government could be provided by the following method:.....
6. We now devote approximately.....per cent of the course in government to national government.
per cent of the course in government to state government.
per cent of the course in government to local government.
per cent of the course in government to municipal government.

¹ It is the purpose of the Bureau of Education to issue a bulletin containing the data and summarizing the results of this inquiry. For information write to A. W. Dunn, Specialist in Civic Education.

This relative time allotment would be advantageously changed as follows:

- National.....per cent
- State.....per cent
- Local.....per cent
- Municipal.....per cent

7. We place the main emphasis upon, { Organization and operation of government.
Community functions and duties and obligations of citizens.

8. We use the following devices to supplement instruction:

- (a) Civic scrap book.
- (b) Regular drill in current events.
- (c) Debate on public questions.
- (d) Reading of nonpartisan periodicals (give names):.....
- (e) Talks to class by public officials on applied politics.
- (f) Other devices (mention):.....

9. Local government (is)made a subject of field investigation by (is not)pupils. If it is, state how:.....

10. Our pupils (do) study (appropriation bills) of the (local) (do not) (health reports) (state) (other reports) (national)

departments in order to compare with results achieved

- { in former years.
- { in other localities or states.

11. Our pupils (do) make surveys of (streets and alleys) with ref- (do not) (public buildings) erence to (sanitation) (safety) (appearance)

12. (a) We (do) have a system of pupil participation in school (do not) management, as follows (briefly describe):.....

(b) This system (is) effective as a means (is not) { for school discipline.
for teaching govern- ment.
for developing a sense of civic relations.

13. Assuming that the purpose of instruction in civics is to train for citizenship, I (do) consider our course in government adequate for (do not)

this purpose, and for the following reasons:

14. I (the teacher of government) have had the following preparation for teaching government:

(Note.—This information will not be published as relating to individuals.)

(a) Schools attended

(b) Degrees received

(c) Major subjects

(d) Pedagogical training

(e) Experience

15. I would make the following suggestions for the improvement of instruction generally in government and civics.

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Signed

Official position

Some Results and Conclusions from this Inquiry.

2. *Time given to the course.*

Civics is given as a rule in the third or fourth year of the high school, although occasionally an elementary course is scheduled in the first year. The general practice seems to favor placing the subject in the fourth year. While less than a half year is sometimes reported as given to this study, most high schools give at least a half year and many schools now devote a full year of four or five hours a week to civic instruction. The large number of city schools now giving a full year course indicates the growing desire on the part of the public schools to fulfill in a more effective manner the duty of providing better civic training. While it is difficult for any but the large high schools to make provision for a full year, it is very evident that the subject is of such significance and the content so extensive that a full year is considered very desirable wherever such an arrangement can be made. In the readjustment of studies in the socialized high school there seems to be little question but that a full

year will be allotted to social science and that the major portion of this course will be devoted to the study of government. Some teachers of the subject favor the giving of one-half year to civics and community problems in the first year high school and a half year to an advanced study of the problems of government and political institutions in the fourth year. Whatever may be the decision as to the best arrangement in the curriculum there can be little doubt from many indications in the replies that a full year will soon be granted for the study of civic affairs in the high schools which provide four years of secondary instruction.

3. (a) *Text-Books.*

A great variety of text-books are in use, two types of which are worthy of special mention. First, there is a form of text-book dealing with the subject in a general way and designed for use in the public schools of any one of the states. As a rule, these text-books deal rather fully with the federal government and in a general way with state and local government. A few aim to give special attention to the fundamental principles involved in government and politics. Frequently they begin with local affairs and proceed to national. Among those which are widely used are the following:

James and Sanford, "Government in State and Nation"; Garner, "Government in the United States"; Ashley, "American Government"; Forman, "Advanced Civics"; Beard, "American Citizenship"; Moses, "The Government of the United States"; Boynton, "School Civics"; Hinsdale, "The American Government;" Guitteau, "Government and Politics in the United States."

Another type of book which is frequently used, sometimes as the only text-book in the course, and often as a supplementary text to one of the works mentioned above, aims to deal exhaustively with the system of government of an individual state.

Efforts have been made to adapt a general type of text-book

to individual states in the preparation of state editions, the general portion of the work being supplemented on state and local affairs by some representative of the public school of the state, thus rendering the book of special local interest and value.

(b) *Supplementary Books.*

The time allotted to the course in civics is frequently so short and the interest and preparation of the teachers are such that supplementary reference books are not used to any extent. However, in a gratifying number of cases supplementary books are in constant and effective use. Among the books most frequently mentioned are:

Bryce, "American Commonwealth"; Hart, "Actual Government"; Haskin, "The American Government"; Willoughby, "Rights and Duties of Citizenship"; Beard, "American Government and Politics"; the volumes of the "American State Series" edited by W. W. Willoughby; Kaye, "Readings in Civil Government"; Hart and McLaughlin, "Cyclopedia of American Government"; Reinsch, "Readings in American Federal and State Government"; Munro, "The Government of American Cities"; Goodnow, "Municipal Government"; Beard, "American City Government." Other works are occasionally mentioned, and some instructors indicate the use of an extensive list of reference material. The most important thing is the evidence that the old method of confining the study to a single text is fast disappearing.

4. *Defects of text-books now in use.*

Teachers are generally disposed to criticise the present texts now available for class use. The most common objections are: first, that they are dry and uninteresting in style; second, that they give an excessive amount of detail on matters of little interest and value to the average high school pupil and neglect entirely other matters of more vital concern; third, that they

give as a rule a most inadequate treatment of current problems and matters of great interest to citizens; fourth, that too little emphasis is given to local government, i. e., to the political and social institutions of community life. There is an evident tendency on the part of teachers to make use of the texts now available for a portion of the course and to supplement the work with special outlines and guides for the study of local affairs. Teachers are beginning to find it necessary to prepare outlines adapted to the needs of a particular community and thus to supplement a text on general civics with a carefully planned guide on local government and community affairs. Such guides have been prepared and are being successfully used in typical local communities, for example, the "Government of Rockford and Winnebago Counties" prepared by the instructors in civil government in Rockford High School, Rockford, Illinois, and an outline on community problems such as that now in use in Mishawaka High School, Mishawaka, Indiana.

Teachers seem to be of the opinion, as a rule, that text-books in civics are capable of considerable improvement although it is often suggested that the present text-books can be used with a fair degree of effectiveness when supplemented in a definite fashion with respect to local governmental affairs.

5. *Time allotted to course in civics: Should it be increased or decreased and how much?*

While the answers to this question vary greatly, some teachers being satisfied with the present arrangement and many more being greatly dissatisfied, a few general conclusions are evident in the replies. In the first place, an overwhelming number favor an increase of the time now given to the subject. In many cases where a half year is given it is recommended that this time be doubled. It is only where there is at present a full year of four or five hours a week that there is a disposition to regard the time as sufficient. It is very evident that less than a half

year is totally inadequate and that the course in civics comprised of a few generalizations emphasized in a course of several weeks is almost universally condemned. It is evident that a half year to the subject fails to meet the needs and the necessary requirements of a course in civics such as ought now to be given in secondary schools. The chief difficulty with the present course in civics seems to be summed up in the one phrase, "Lack of time." As teacher after teacher puts the case, "Our need is very evident . . . TIME."

Additional time for the instruction may be provided, it is thought, in the following ways: first, it is suggested that less time might be given to ancient and mediæval history provided the ancient periods were not so extensively treated. Other subjects selected for a reduction in order to give time to civics are algebra and Latin. The general consensus of opinion is, however, that it is not necessary to modify greatly the present curriculum or to reduce seriously the time given to other standard subjects in order to find the necessary time for a thorough and adequate course in government instruction. Only a slight readjustment is necessary to provide in the school curriculum that type of civic instruction which modern conditions demand and which the social awakening in community life requires. The real need lies rather in the acceptance of a new point of view and the adoption of more modern methods of instruction.

6. *Time given to*

- (a) National Government.
- (b) State Government.
- (c) Local Government.
- (d) Municipal Government.

A majority of teachers of civics at the present time give the national government first place, using anywhere from 30% to 75% of the time. The common arrangement is to give 50% to the national government and 50% to state, local, and municipal

government. This arrangement is considerably modified in places where local government is stressed. Here it is customary to find about 25% given to national government, about 25% to state government and the remaining time is given to community affairs. Throughout the suggestions made as to change of time it is apparent that instructors favor giving a great deal more attention to local government than is now customary in any but a comparatively few schools.

7. *Emphasis placed on:*

(a) *Organization and operation of government.*

(b) *Community functions and duties and obligations of citizens.*

The practice in most high schools seems to be to divide the course evenly, giving one-half to organization and the other half to community functions. A difference of opinion is apparent here in that the advocates of the old style of civics favor giving most of the time to government organization, whereas the newer viewpoint now prevailing in many schools encourages greater attention to community functions and the duties of citizenship. About an even distribution appears to be the arrangement which is meeting with the greatest success.

8. *Use of devices to supplement instruction such as:*

(a) *Civic scrap book.*

(b) *Regular drill in current events.*

(c) *Debate on public questions.*

(d) *Reading of nonpartisan periodicals.*

(e) *Talks to class by public officials.*

(f) *Other devices.*

Many instructors indicate in their reports that either through lack of time or through want of interest in the practical side of the subject these devices are neglected. On the other hand, a surprising number of teachers have begun to vitalize the ordinary class and book instruction with one or more and frequently

all of the above devices. Such periodicals as the "Independent," "Outlook," "Pathfinder," "Current Events," "Literary Digest," "Review of Reviews," "World's Work," etc., are used specifically by classes in order to create an interest and develop a knowledge of current public issues. The policy of asking city officials to speak before classes and to explain the operation of government departments is a practice which is followed with marked success by many teachers. It is now commonly recognized that the supplementary study of public questions and an interest in current events must be encouraged in every way possible in order to render the course interesting as well as useful.

9, 10, 11. *Field investigation, study of government reports, and the preparation of surveys on local government.*

From the many reports received it is evident that the method of encouraging field investigation as well as a definite and concrete study of government reports is receiving acceptance slowly by teachers of government. However, in many of the city high schools field investigation is carried on quite successfully and the reports are made the basis for a criticism and analysis of the efficiency of the various government departments. Many of those who have begun to stress community functions by means of observations and field investigation have found the survey an invaluable asset in the effort to study and report more effectively upon various phases of local government. From all indications it seems quite apparent that the survey will come to be an important adjunct in encouraging the special study of local government and in the gathering of valuable material for class discussion. No other method gives such a vital touch and interest to civics teaching as does the survey with respect to the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the government in dealing with the problems growing out of community needs. The possibilities of field investigation and surveys made under the

direction of departments of civics have only begun to be appreciated.

12. *Pupil participation in school management.*

The development of a civic conscience through placing responsibilities upon high school students in the management of school affairs is now recognized as one of the very best means of developing civic methods as well as the civic viewpoint. Many schools place practically all student activities in charge of a board of control, and matters of discipline are left in part at least under student management. Self-government is one of the well recognized and generally approved methods of putting civic knowledge into practice. There are few schools which do not use pupil participation in school management to some extent. In the recent progress toward democratic management in political affairs it is especially desirable to encourage the extension of such participation and the placing of greater responsibility upon high school pupils. That pupils have measured up to this responsibility is the report of a majority of those who have given the matter a trial. That such participation is a natural corollary to effective civic teaching and to the preparation of citizens for later participation in democratic government few will attempt to deny. All who are interested in modern educational development look with hope and confidence to the growth of this sentiment of democracy and to the extension of self government which has gained headway slowly in our public school system.

13. In answer to the question whether instructors regarded their course in government as adequate to train for citizenship, very few seem to feel satisfied with the results at present attained. The chief reasons for dissatisfaction seem to be suggested under the headings, *lack of time, inability to create vital interest in the subject, too much formal instruction, too little practical touch with actual affairs, insufficiency of civic material, and too little aid to*

teachers desiring to improve their courses. Where community civics is taught there is a disposition to feel that the course does train adequately for citizenship, but the older type of civic training is seldom defended.

14. *Preparation of teachers.*

The information presented relative to preparation to teach the subject of government is of peculiar interest and value. The failure to make civics of real worth in the school system is apparently due to the fact that the subject is too frequently given to a teacher who either has had no special preparation whatever or has given no evidence of interest in the subject throughout his preparatory course. That this unfortunate condition is disappearing is quite evident. A large number of teachers report that they not only have completed an ordinary college course but have also taken advanced work in a university, and many times it is stated that the major subject for the college course was in the field of history, government and economics. While few teachers have had any special preparation for the teaching of civics, many have undoubtedly had an excellent groundwork in a series of valuable courses dealing with the history of political institutions and with the theory and practice of government. In many high schools the teacher in the course has prepared himself specially for the teaching of his subject, and has developed throughout his college course the modern social viewpoint and a knowledge of institutions such as is of inestimable value to supplement the ordinary text-book material and method. The one deplorable fact in the reports received is the lack of the proper kind of training to prepare teachers of civics for their important work, in the schools which now give training for teachers along almost every other line. But little improvement in the teaching of the subject can be hoped for until training schools present as thorough instruction for the teaching of civics as is now being

given for the teaching of mathematics, languages, and the sciences.

There is a disposition on the part of some educators to think that civics can be effectively taught only by men. The error in this opinion is clearly demonstrated by the fact that many of the best courses now given in the new civics are offered by women, and it is evident that what is needed, be the teacher a man or a woman, is adequate training and the social viewpoint.

15. *Suggestions for improvement of instruction.*

Merely a list of the important suggestions offered can be given. Those which the committee regards as of primary significance are included in a subsequent summary. A few which recur in many reports are:

1. More time for the course in this subject.
2. The necessity of civic instruction in the grades.
3. Encourage pupils to maintain a system of self-government.
4. Place emphasis on local government and good citizenship.
5. Concerted action to compel colleges to give admission credit for courses in civics.
6. More and better collateral material such as
 - a. Reference books on government.
 - b. Maps of city, county, state and nation.
 - c. Periodicals of current events.
 - d. City, state and national government reports.
 - e. Legal forms, ballots, etc.
7. Better preparation of teachers.
8. Greater use of the problem method of instruction.
9. More economics, government and sociology in the high school course and less time to the ancient world and middle ages.
10. Greater use of the laboratory method.

11. Greater interest by the government, particularly through departments of education, in the improvement of civic instruction. Systematic outlines for such instruction should be prepared by state and federal departments of education.

12. More field investigation and less text-book work.

13. Compulsory course in civics for eighth or ninth grades and a compulsory course in the eleventh or twelfth grades in all of the states.

14. Instruction by teachers trained in government, economics, and sociology rather than by those specializing almost solely in history.

15. Students should visit municipal buildings, court houses, court sessions, etc., and prepare definite reports on the visits.

SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS APPROVED BY THE COMMITTEE

1. That a year of social science (exclusive of history) be given in the senior high school of which at least a half year shall be devoted to the study of government, and that four or five hours per week be given to this subject.
2. That pressure be brought to bear on colleges to accept a full year of social science for entrance when the subject is effectively taught. High schools are much less likely to do justice to this branch of study as long as colleges either accept no work in civics or give credit for only a half unit.
3. Better preparation of teachers. Courses in normal schools, colleges, and universities designed to prepare teachers of government.
4. More emphasis on local affairs.
5. Better material. Collection of a civics library with reference works, government reports and pamphlet literature illustrating all phases of government work.
6. Instruction to be made more practical. Such devices are particularly recommended as observation of local government departments, surveys of local conditions and talks to classes by officials and others interested in governmental problems.
7. Put civic instruction into practice by such devices as self-govern-

ment in school, by organizing classes on the model of government departments, by the formation of civic leagues and community clubs.

8. Coöperation with local government and local civic bodies. Invitations to city officials to speak before the class and encouragement of students to visit city departments. Coöperation between chambers of commerce can be secured through formation of junior civic leagues and the development of the schools as community centers.

General Conclusions.

That the civic awakening which is evident in many schools has permeated only a part of the public school system is apparent in replies from individual cities as well as in the state courses of study. Such comments as these are not infrequent: "No regular time allotted; the work is taught incidentally"—"Taught only in connection with United States history"—"No special hours for civics"—"No separate course at present—subject is taught more or less incidentally in the High School"—or the comment of a state Superintendent of Public Instruction "civics is one of the subjects in the course but not a regular study." And certain city schools merely add to history the reading of the state constitution and the federal Constitution.

The committee is obliged to report that as a rule there is a deplorable deficiency in definite plans for courses in civics and also that there is a lack of anything like adequate bibliographies. Instances such as these are typical: After a fairly complete outline of all other subjects in the curriculum a note is attached to the section devoted to American history and civics, "time will be taken for civics proper"; or, "the usual aspects of the different units of government are studied in detail." Perchance a heading, "history and civics," is given with no indication whatever in the statement that government receives consideration, or bibliographies are appended for "history and civics" with not a single reference to works on government. Some

state courses of study give no indication of the topics comprehended under the title "civics" and no guide whatever to the valuable literature available for teacher and student. Evidence of this character might be added indefinitely, but it is useless to multiply instances. A letter from the chairman of a state committee suffices to close a rather discouraging record of the present situation in many communities:

At the end of a letter I sent out with each questionnaire, I asked whether it was thought best to try to get a meeting to discuss the teaching of government before our annual state Teachers' Association next spring. Each member I heard from replied in the negative, and that is my own view on the matter. The subject of Civics Teaching has been neglected so long in the state, and the interest is so poor, that I feel sure we could not get a full attendance of our committee. Again, if we have the work that your committee is preparing before us as a guide and stimulus, I am sure it will be much easier to get something done when we do meet.

I would like to write a more hopeful and encouraging letter than this, but the truth forbids. No subject is poorer taught in the rural and graded schools than government, and none needs attention right now more than it. The Normal Schools are grappling with the subject the best we know how, and conditions will, I hope, soon improve.

Perhaps the chief reason why school boards, superintendents and teachers have been prone to ignore civics is that its importance and the subject-matter involved have not been clearly brought to their attention. Few of the courses of study prepared by state or city departments of education give special outlines for courses in civics and seldom are bibliographies suggested. A subject which is mentioned incidentally in connection with history, geography or ethics and which appears worthy of only a few lines in a hundred page outline is not likely to be given a prominent place in the curriculum by teachers who depend upon such guides. No great improvement can be expected until those who prepare the school programs give as much care and

attention to providing for civic instruction as is given to other subjects. Outlines by grades with references for teacher and pupil are indispensable, and some of the more recent programs issued give promise of better things for those interested in the improvement of training for citizenship.

The time has come to cease berating teachers of other subjects for preëempting the field and superintendents and principals for failing to give due consideration to the vital matter of training for citizenship. All agree that more time and attention should be given to this subject than is usually allotted. The sole difficulty now is the determination as to what shall be included in this course and how that which is selected shall be presented. While many organizations and individuals have busied themselves with pointing out the deficiencies of the schools in this regard, few have set themselves to the task of preparing constructive suggestions and material to aid both administrators and instructors. What is needed now above everything else is an effort to direct the movement which is well on its way to bring instruction in civics to a foremost place among the required subjects of elementary and secondary schools.

A few illustrations of the progress made in city schools will indicate the rapid improvement which is being made in the direction of remedying former defects. Within the past few years special outlines have been prepared introducing civic lessons in the early grades and continuing the study throughout the elementary school. This introductory work is then followed by three to four years of social science in the high school. The plans of Two Rivers, Wisconsin, Marshalltown, Iowa, and Berkeley, California, are notable examples of this kind which have been brought to the attention of the committee. It is gratifying to state that many cities are beginning to introduce a study of community and civic relations in the early grades and that this study takes the form of a definite consideration of the functions of government usually introduced in the

seventh or eighth grade. These elementary foundations are supplemented and developed in the high school in a separate course for a half year at least and in many instances for an entire year. In some cases the material and content for both elementary and high school courses are worked out with a carefully arranged sequence of topics and select bibliographies, such for example as the outline study for Yonkers, N. Y., in grades 3, 4, and 5; the course of study in civil government for use in the Louisville schools for the 6th, 7th, and 8th grades; that of Jersey City, covering grades 5, 6, 7, and 8; and the systematic lessons of Salt Lake City in grades 1-8. Mention may be made of the outline for geography, history, and civics in the elementary schools of Indianapolis, the outline for civic and vocational studies of Cincinnati, and the outline for social science prepared by the state department of education in North Dakota as instances of progress in the right direction. Among the states in which the state departments of education have issued well prepared outlines are Maine and New York.

The course of study in ethics used in the St. Louis schools deals with many phases of civic conduct and presents lessons on rights, duties, and the necessity of a knowledge of community functions. For an application of the study of civil government to local affairs the Schenectady course in history, geography and civics is suggestive; for special emphasis on city government, the eighth grade civics in Erie, Pennsylvania. The laboratory method and the actual study of government in operation is used with remarkable success in many city high schools. A committee was recently appointed by the Superintendent of Schools of Philadelphia to revise the civics course in the elementary schools of the city. It is planned to have civics in the eight grades of the elementary school. There are many other instances of a sincere effort to improve and vitalize the study of civics and to make it a separate study in the school curriculum, but only these few typical instances can be cited.

II. Some Data on the Training of Teachers.

A. Normal Schools.

If one were to seek for the chief cause of the deficiencies in the teaching of civics in the public schools that cause might readily be discovered in the utterly inadequate and ineffective training received by those who teach the subject. The deficiency in this regard will be considered with respect first to the normal schools and second to the colleges and universities. It has been impossible to secure reports from all of the normal schools, but from the results obtained through several of the state committees¹ some representative facts are available relative to civic instruction in normal schools. These facts are presented merely as illustrative of present conditions.

Provision for the training of teachers of civics can be disposed of for many such schools with the one word *nothing*. What percentage of schools are to be ranked in this class cannot be determined, but reports available would indicate that a large percentage make no effort to give instruction to prospective teachers. A typical instance of this kind is shown in the report on the normal schools of one of the states:

There are three normal schools in this state, two of which report that they are offering regular courses in civics and they classify these courses as of high school rank. One normal school offers no civics of any kind.

These courses are in charge of teachers who have had no special preparation for the work, and none of the devices suited to this work are in use.

The courses of study in the normal are already overcrowded, and it will be difficult to find time for an adequate presentation of the subject of civics.

The men who reported upon the work in the two normals where civics is taught do not hesitate to say that the ordinary teacher going out from the institutions is not qualified to teach this subject.²

¹ See Appendix.

² Submitted by H. C. Crumpacker of the Washington state committee.

A similar situation is to be found in New Jersey in which a state committee reports: "The subject of civics is not mentioned in the courses of study of the normal schools."

Somewhat more encouraging replies come from some of the states. The California state committee reports:

The normal school situation in California is peculiar. We have eight normals. One is so new as to be hardly organized. A second is devoted to training teachers in home economics and manual arts. Of the remaining six, I finally obtained some communication from five. From their reports, on instruction, I find no uniform practice. There seems to be a general tendency to accept the high school history and civics as sufficient if upon proper credentials or examination it appears that the pupil did his high school work well. In this connection, you should know that students in the California normal schools must hold high school diplomas. In one case, the work in history is done with the normal students when they are in the training school, teaching the American history to eighth grade pupils. They are asked to hand in reports and, in groups, to meet the head of the history department. Generally, no text-book is used. Frequent use seems to be made of the ordinary high school text and of Bryce's "American Commonwealth" (Abr. ed.). The methods of instruction used are generally the same as used by the high school teachers, except that more emphasis is placed upon lectures by the instructor and upon the outlines and readings of the student. They all agree in beginning civics with the local government and seem to prefer the functions of government following the machinery of government.

In Missouri, for example, courses in civics are offered though little attention is given to methods of teaching the subject. Provision is made for the training of teachers in Oregon normal schools, and in the normal schools, state university and agricultural college of New Mexico. The programs of normal schools in a few states which offer special instruction for prospective teachers are given by way of illustration as to what can be done to improve civic instruction.

(a) Illinois State Normal University at Normal, Illinois.

1. A twelve weeks' course in political science for upper grades.
2. A year course in political science, political parties, and municipal problems,—for prospective high school teachers.
3. Two years' work in sociology, advanced economics, and industrial history.

A half unit in civil government and one and a half units in history are required of all students for admission to the normal school. They may present five additional units in this field if they choose. Teachers of upper grades may take a twelve weeks' course in political science in the fall term of the senior year. A student expecting to teach civics would take the year's work in political science, political parties, and municipal problems. We should expect him to take also the two years' work in sociology, advanced economics, and industrial history and in addition to these as many courses in history as he may see fit to elect.

(b) Western Illinois State Normal School, Macomb, Illinois.

Three courses are offered for the first time:

1. Course for country school teachers based on Beard's "Citizenship."
2. Course for academic students, based on Garner's text and Child's "Government in Illinois."
3. Course for normal school students, using Guitteau as a text, with assigned readings.

(c) Southern Illinois State Normal University, Carbondale, Illinois.

The method of study and instruction provides for a study of *subjects* rather than the text, though we find the text very satisfactory. Comparisons between our political institutions and those of other countries are made. This is chiefly the work of the teacher. Talks are sometimes made by men who have wide knowledge or experience in the practical workings of the various phases of our political institutions. A member of the legislature, or congress, or a judge, can bring a discussion very close to the pupils. Emphasis is also placed upon our civil institutions in the various history courses which precede and follow the course in civics.

We are more and more separating our work in this subject into "Problems in Civics," and a "Description of the Civil Machinery." The problems in civics open a wide field all about us, whether we live in rural communities or in city organizations. There are ten

opportunities for the exercise of an independent judgment in the study of civic problems to one in the study of our civil machinery.¹

In the Kentucky state normal at Richmond two years' work in civics is offered, the elementary course is based on Forman's "Elements of Civil Government" and the advanced upon Garner's "Government in the United States" along with Keith's "Notes and Outlines in Civil Government." Books such as Bryce's "American Commonwealth," Garner's "Introduction to Political Science," Willoughby's "Rights and Duties of American Citizenship," and Beard's "American Government and Politics," along with current magazines, are used for select supplementary readings.² The West Kentucky Normal at Bowling Green gives a course of ten weeks based on Stickles, "Elements of Government." Supplementary readings are used extensively and also various devices to create an interest in practical affairs.³

The normal schools of North Dakota give a required course of 5 hours for 3 months based upon books such as Guitteau and "Government of North Dakota" by Boyle. Special devices in the way of clippings, class government and study of current problems are made use of to increase interest.⁴ In Minnesota the schools devote 12 weeks to this work and one school extends the time to 24 weeks. Texts, reference readings and the direct study of local government are employed. One instructor reports "Laboratory method is used, i. e., direct study of whatever public business is going on. Current events are studied by means of periodicals and class discussions. Class organizes as club and as such conducts parliamentary meetings and is in turn town meeting, legislature and congress. This club also

¹ Furnished by the Illinois state committee.

² Furnished by Professor Charles A. Keith, head of department of History and Civics.

³ Furnished by Professor A. M. Stickles, Chairman of Kentucky Committee.

⁴ Furnished by state committee for North Dakota.

attempts to give actual practice to civic virtues both personally and coöperatively by, e. g.,—keeping campus clean—planting shrubs—protecting birds—having club entertainments, urging needed public action.”¹

That civics in training schools for teachers need not be neglected or ignored is indicated in the course of study of the normal training school of the University of Utah. Civics receives attention in the work offered to teachers for all of the grades. In the first grade the home, family and occupations are treated as contributing to the daily life of the children. Matters of trading, industry and the school community are considered in grade two. A more specialized study of occupations and social activities of the community follows. The city organization in its most important departments is introduced in grade four, ventilation and sanitation in grade five and matters of civic improvement and civic beauty in grade six. Grades seven and eight introduce the political organization of the city and the beginning of a study of state and national government. Moreover, in the University of Utah every student who is preparing to teach history and civics is required to take a course in political science which comprises a specialized study of the government of the United States and the general principles of political science.²

Among the states in which liberal provisions are made for the training of civics teachers is Wisconsin. The State Normal at Oshkosh gives two courses—one to prepare teachers in the grammar grades, another for teachers in high schools. Full outlines are prepared for these courses based on the constitutions of Wisconsin and the United States and including a study of select problems and matters of current interest throughout the course. These outlines show how the old formal method of civic study may be vitalized by constant reference to current

¹ Furnished by state committee for Minnesota.

² Furnished by the state committee for Utah.

conditions and problems. The School at Platteville also offers two courses on a similar plan. A statement of courses offered and methods pursued at Milwaukee and River Falls are given as illustrations of some suggestive courses offered in normal schools:

State Normal, Milwaukee.

Civics. Twelve weeks, five times a week, class period 50 min. required of all students in the senior year.

Closely related with sociology, both subjects being taught by the same teacher.

Both the academic and professional sides of the subject are stressed. The city of Milwaukee course of study covers the subjects of policeman, fireman, garbage disposal, lighthouse, street cleaning, weather bureau, common council, a general civic knowledge of the city.

Our course trains teachers to this end and by adaptation fits all teachers to teach in any community.

The aim is to relate civics to the everyday life of the pupil, not only by furnishing knowledge, but also by arousing the desire and will to do for his community those acts which make for good citizenship.

In connection with this work teachers are taught to tell stories exemplifying deeds of civic valor, poems are learned bearing upon the same subject and students are familiarized with literature bearing upon the subject.

Visits are paid to the fire department, health department, city hall, garbage plant, city courts, etc.

Out of this study arises the subject of taxes.

Students are required to make out lesson plans for teaching the subjects in grades 3-7.

They are also taught how to prepare the pupil for the use of the text-book and how to use the text intelligently.

River Falls, Wisconsin.

Foreword:

The courses in civics offered in River Falls state normal school proceed upon the belief that the day of the old cut-and-dried course in civil government, with its memorizing of the constitutions and detailed analysis of government forms and machinery is past. We believe that from the time the child enters school until he is ready to leave it, it is the teacher's business to socialize him, i. e., to make him

conscious of his membership in several communities by leading him to see how the community helps him, how it needs him and how he can help it.

I. Aims in all courses offered:

- (1) Proceeding from the home-life and school-life as basis to help the student-teacher to realize himself a responsible and helpful member of several social groups.
- (2) To awaken and stimulate motives which shall find their culmination in law, order, cleanliness, cheerful coöperation, and sympathetic, intelligent service.
- (3) To help the student to a life of broadened unselfishness instead of to the narrow individualism so characteristic of American life. In other words, to emphasize the intimate reciprocal relation between individual welfare in home-life and social welfare in community life.
- (4) To train in citizenship in its broadest, most social sense along such lines and to such a degree as will enable the student to effectually assume the responsibilities which modern community life thrusts upon him.
- (5) To develop teachers prepared and full of a desire to give such training to others through well organized courses in civics in *all* of the grades in the schools in which they shall work.

Scope of Courses.

CIVICS A

This is a course offered to the sophomore classes. The members of this class are of about sophomore high school grade. It proceeds upon the assumption that most of these people will teach in villages and cities. Accordingly village and city needs are emphasized, but students are by no means confined to what the local communities do and can do to meet these needs. It is our belief that the so-called purely "local civics" fails to give the student of this grade the essential working acquaintance with great departments of activity in the larger units which the intelligent citizen needs.

Topics suggestive of work done in Course A.

Pioneer community life contrasted with modern community life; characteristics of modern complex industrial life, noting interests and needs of citizen consumers, citizen wage earners and citizen

owners in various industries; protection of life, health and property; care of unfortunate classes; conservation; protection of laborers; regulation of public utilities, roads and streets; recreation; education; refuse disposal in urban districts; the schools and the state; community control of private business; social centres; conducting the people's business from neighborhood to nation; social, political and economic consequences of city growth; penal reform; making of Americans; juvenile courts; the part the teacher should take in village and city life; should a teacher teach the truth at any cost; how to make a community survey.

CIVICS A. I

This course is designed to meet the needs of those who are planning to teach in rural schools. (These students, as a rule, are of about second year high school grade though there are some who are high school graduates.) It studies many of the problems and functions in their more important aspects suggested in *Course A*, but emphasizes especially rural community problems and activities.

Topics additional to some of those suggested in *Course A*: Rural roads and road-sides; connection between good roads and social, economic and political phases of rural life; rural homes and their enemies; rural sanitation and hygiene; waste disposal in rural communities; how to organize improvement associations in school; how our city cousins live; how the rural school may lead the community; how to get the aid of department officials in solving rural problems; the needs of rural schools; how to make a rural survey.

ADVANCED CIVICS (18 weeks)

This course is an advanced course open to election by juniors, seniors and post-graduate students. It is designed to fit the needs of those students desiring to make a more thorough study of the lines of work suggested in *Course A*. In it, for example, party government, methods and machinery are critically studied; evils of party domination in local affairs are described and discussed; causes and effects of rapid urbanization are studied; dangers of commercial and reactionary domination of schools are pointed out in order that the student teacher may know what to expect and prepare against; recent government reforms are critically considered; the "Wisconsin Idea" is analyzed and discussed; the dangers of newspapers that do not publish the truth are pointed out; the need of teachers who dare

to teach the truth is explained and investigated. Many of the topics in *Course A* are here considered more broadly.

In all of this work an attempt is made to have the student acquire a working acquaintance with the great organs of public opinion. Assigned readings, special reports and original investigations are given. Government reports and bulletins are used constantly, and at every opportunity participation in local civic activities is encouraged.

COURSES IN HISTORY METHODS FOR PRIMARY AND GRAMMAR GRADE TEACHERS (9 weeks each)

In both of these courses, in connection with outlining and criticizing courses of history for the grades and studying special methods of presentation, courses in civics for all of the grades are presented and the method of teaching is explained.

The head of the department of history and civics is at present conducting a nine weeks' demonstration course in seventh and eighth grade civics in the model school for the purpose of indicating to student teachers the method and possibilities of the "newer civics."

STATEMENT OF METHODS, AIDS AND MATERIALS IN ALL COURSES OFFERED

(1) In all courses opportunities are sought to bring the student into actual working acquaintance with community work. For example:

(a) The advice and assistance of officials from neighborhood to nation on various questions have been sought by students and obtained. In this way students have come to know how the teacher citizen can secure helpful assistance for her own classes and community.

(b) Unsightly, unhealthful conditions in the immediate vicinity have been reported to proper authorities.

(c) Local officials have addressed the class upon the work they are doing.

(d) A list of safety first suggestions in case of fire has been prepared for the normal school students.

(e) A waste paper receptacle has been constructed and provided by civics students as a part of a "clean campus" campaign.

(2) Materials mentioned below are available to all students of civics, economics and sociology in a "laboratory" or study room especially equipped with display racks, tables and shelves for this kind

of work. In this connection a real beginning has been made at supervised study.

(3) In all courses the point of view is that of the person preparing to present this gospel and material to others.

(4) Classes in civics are deformalized as much as free, sensible, truth-seeking investigation and discussion require.

(5) Text-books, bulletins and other illustrative material have been used, not as the core of instruction, but rather as helpful sources of information to which one may go to find out how to get help in satisfying common needs.

(6) Through student committees new, up-to-date, descriptive charts, bulletins, reports and much descriptive material have been obtained from various civic organizations and departments of government work.

(7) It is felt that no greater mistake could be made than to make these courses "text-book courses." A mass of material lies right at hand, much of it closely touching the daily lives of students. Working this material up for use is not the easiest way, but it has paid—e. g., in the study of *rural roads* and *road* problems in Course 1. A special reports were prepared upon particular roads in our communities; photographs showing differences between faulty and careful, scientific construction and bulletins and pictures issued by various commissions and associations have been carefully studied.¹

Normal training schools such as the School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia, give specialized courses in government equivalent to those offered in other colleges and universities with special attention to problems and the methods of teaching the subject. A great advance would be made if more schools could establish departments in the allied subjects of government, economics and sociology and the instruction in normal schools could be raised to the standard attained in a few notable instances.

B. Colleges.

The increase of courses in colleges and universities along the lines of political science, economics and sociology has resulted

¹ Furnished by the Wisconsin state committee.

in the preparation of a type of teacher very well equipped to do effective teaching in the high school. In most of the cases where courses in civics are offered along the lines of the new civics it is stated that work was taken in college in one if not all of the above subjects and frequently the major subject is in this field. Perhaps more than any other course the college instruction in American Government, which has improved markedly in the last decade, has tended toward the improvement of civic instruction in the public schools. Courses in comparative government and state government too have been useful. A report, of courses now given in colleges along with some suggestions for improvement is included in a subsequent portion of this report, and it is unnecessary to deal further with the matter here. Suffice it to say that many of the courses given in departments of political science are too specialized and technical to meet the needs of prospective teachers, and special efforts to make provision in this regard are surprisingly meagre.

With the exception of some incidental attention given in courses for training history teachers, civic instruction in the public schools has received exceedingly little consideration by departments of political science. A few exceptions will serve to indicate an awakening realization of responsibility along this line. In the college of education of the university of Minnesota provision is made for a teacher's certificate in government comprising nine credits in political science and eighteen credits in history (total required for B. A. degree, 120 credits). Lectures on teaching government in the secondary schools are given in coöperation with the department of history. The university of Wisconsin offers a teacher's course devoted to methods of teaching government in secondary schools for two hours throughout one-half year. In the summer sessions of some universities courses are offered for the training of history teachers and part of the time is devoted to methods of instruction in governmental affairs and a few schools give separate courses for teachers of

government in secondary schools. This matter appears to the committee of such significance that at an early day a special committee should be appointed by the Association to consider the training of teachers of government in the public schools.

PART III

COURSES OF STUDY

SUGGESTIONS AS TO COURSES OF STUDY AND METHODS OF APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF GOVERNMENT

The committee has not attempted the preparation of outlines for standard courses in government for the various grades of the public schools. As instruction in the subject according to modern methods is quite recent it is natural that the content of courses and methods of instruction is not as yet carefully systematized. Moreover, the subject of government must necessarily be modified in both content and method in accordance with the varying conditions and needs of different grades of schools and diverse community conditions. This variation is so great and so all important, particularly with respect to instruction in state, local and municipal government, that it becomes well-nigh impossible to adopt uniform courses or methods and to teach government effectively according to any standard plan.

Where civics is effectively taught at the present time it is frequently the practice to use one or more of the best available guides in the preparation of an outline or syllabus for local use. This is a practice which ought to be encouraged in preference to the somewhat slavish habit of adopting indiscriminately so-called standard courses. Every possible aid and assistance should of course be available to instructors, principals and superintendents in the preparation of such outlines. It was with the idea in mind that aid and encouragement are desired toward the preparation of such outlines that the committee has undertaken to offer some suggestions as to courses of study and meth-

ods of approach. It is understood that these suggestions are merely tentative and experimental.

A list of titles on the teaching of civics and some works which will be useful in a teacher's library and for supplementary readings are also offered herewith. Select bibliographies with critical suggestions and notes for the various grades and for the use of teachers remain to be prepared. A committee¹ is at work on the preparation of such bibliographies, but owing to the fact that considerable time will be required to complete this work it seemed advisable to present some preliminary lists.

I. Suggestions for Civic Topics in the Elementary Grades.

A. GRADES I-III

It should be the purpose of the work in the first grades to lay a foundation of good citizenship by developing in the child some of the fundamental civic virtues. Obedience, cleanliness, orderliness, courtesy, helpfulness, punctuality, truthfulness, thoroughness, honesty, courage, perseverance, self-control,—all these, and others that might be named, may be taken up with the class, and somewhat in the order named. Both a knowledge of the right, and a desire to act rightly, may be developed in the pupils through stories, poems, memory gems, games, dramatization, and other class exercises. And these should be accompanied by constant care on the part of the teacher that the children shall be exemplifying these virtues in their daily conduct. Thus, it will be seen that the civics work of these early grades can be little less than a continuous lesson in good morals and good manners.

The object throughout is to impress on the children that they too can take part in the better citizenship movement by cooperating with the group in the schoolroom, on the playground

¹ Professors Edgar Dawson, New York, W. F. Dodd, Chicago, E. M. Borchard, Washington, D. C.

or in the home. The smallest boy or girl in the first primary grade can learn to refrain from doing those things which go against the welfare of the group, and—quite as important—to do those things which will help promote community welfare.

B. GRADES IV-VI

The course in civics here suggested for the first three grades has aimed simply to lay the foundation for good citizenship by developing in the mind and in the motor activities of the child some of the fundamental civic virtues, especially with reference to school and home life. But with the coming of the fourth year—if not earlier—the civic experience of the child should be widened and made more diversified. He should now begin to think more clearly of the community life round about him and of how dependent he and his family are on the daily services that the community is rendering.

Probably the simplest form of community service, and the most easily understood by the child, is that rendered by those who supply his family with the necessities of life: food, water, clothing, shelter, fuel, medical aid. The interest of the community in the furnishing of these necessities can be shown and also at times the control by the community of those who render the services.

The study of the family, home, school and neighborhood can be broadened to include the study of civic life from personal conduct with people and life around them. Children should be led to observe their duties, rights, and privileges as they exist in the family, home, school and neighborhood. They should be trained to understand that every right and privilege has a corresponding duty and obligation; that they owe love, gratitude, respect, and obedience to the parents for their love, protection and support; that rules and laws are necessary in the family, home, school, and neighborhood for the comfort, protection and

general welfare of all; that they should be honest, industrious and kind.¹

In the selection of these topics, and in the method of developing them with the class, the teacher should begin with the live interests of the pupils and should deal so far as possible only with actual situations. Both the services rendered by the community and the reciprocal duties he owes to it in return can be discussed by the class, with the aid of the teacher. And the work of all these grades will have partially failed of its purpose if the children have not acquired a genuine respect for all occupations based on an appreciation of the service rendered by each.

With the above considerations in mind, and with the same aims in view, it will be an easy matter to widen the pupil's knowledge of community service by extending the work so as to cover corporate services rendered by it. However, in these grades the "biographical" or personal method should be used exclusively.

The children are still pre-adolescent—still in the individualizing, hero-worshipping stage where Mr. Policeman or Mr. Fireman may be or become an object of great interest, while the police department or the fire department are mere abstractions.

The policeman, the fireman, the street-sweeper, the garbage collector, the postman; water, gas, electricity, the telephone, the trolley car,—all these and more, if the school is located in a town of even moderate size, are familiar objects to the child and lend themselves readily to class discussion and reports. A visit to a police or fire station is easily arranged for, and the class will derive keen enjoyment from such a trip when it is to result later in an intelligent discussion of the community service rendered by the agency visited. Another series of class talks—based on visits, wherever possible, by one or more of the class—will include some of the educational agencies, such as libraries

¹ From Course of Study and Syllabus in Civics, City of New York, p. 8.

and museums. And during the spring term what more natural than trips to nearby parks or other pleasure resorts, where the children may learn what it means to care for trees and flowers and shrubbery!

In grades five and six the problems of city and country life may be introduced. The difficulties of securing pure food, good and wholesome water and the advantages of well lighted, clean and well ventilated houses, good roads and streets, as well as the communication of disease and quarantine, parks and playgrounds in their effect upon the community, and similar matters of community welfare may be made the basis of class discussions.

Finally, time should be saved for at least some consideration of the important industries of the town or country; or, at least, of some of those occupations that enter vitally into the lives of the children. To neglect this, especially in an industrial community where a large proportion of the children leave school all too early, is to fail in an important particular.

To sum up—civics teaching in the elementary school divides itself naturally into three periods—that of the first three or four grades in which emphasis is given to some of the fundamental civic virtues as applied to the home, to the school and to the neighborhood; second—that of grades four to six in which more specific instruction may be undertaken as to local affairs, with emphasis upon some of the functions which government performs and which citizens enjoy as members of a community; third—that of grades seven, eight, and nine—junior high school. In these grades instruction may be made more definite. A textbook may be used to advantage, and while the emphasis is still upon functions some attention should be given to the machinery of government—local, state, and national.

The presentation of civic topics in the elementary grades is still in the experimental stage. No well defined plan or uniform method has been developed. It is customary to combine this

instruction with ethics, history or geography. Such outlines as are now in use in Berkeley, California, Indianapolis, Indiana, Marshalltown, Iowa, New York City, Philadelphia, Two Rivers and Superior, Wisconsin, point the way to a type of civic lessons which is gradually being systematized into a fairly well defined plan and method of approach. Those who are charged with the preparation of outlines and schedules for the elementary grades should be sure to consult all of the above outlines as well as others now in preparation.¹ In order to be effective, civic training must be as continuous and as cumulative in character and method as that of the study of our mother tongue. And our public schools, supported as they are by public taxation, should particularly be made to function as nurseries of good citizenship.

2. Community Civics for Junior High School.

For the junior high school course some good texts and well prepared outlines are available. The most definite and satisfactory plan has been formulated by a special committee of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education for the National Education Association, consisting of J. Lynn Barnard, Chairman, F. W. Carrier, Principal, Wilmington (Mass.) High School, Arthur W. Dunn, Specialist in Civic Education for the Bureau of Education and Clarence D. Kingsley, High School Inspector, Massachusetts. Through Bulletin No. 23, 1915, of the Bureau of Education the outline prepared by this committee is rendered easily accessible to all who are interested. In order to present suggestions for a unified course throughout all the grades of the public school the chairman of this special committee has prepared a condensed statement

¹ Teachers who do not have the definite guidance of such an outline will find "A Course in Citizenship" by Cabot, Andrews, Hill, and McSkimmon (Houghton) very well adapted for the beginning grades and may secure assistance and guidance from the monograph on "The Teaching of Civics" by Mabel Hill (Houghton).

based upon the Bureau of Education Bulletin, with a few revisions and additions. Those who desire a more complete discussion of methods and a more extensive outline of topics with some suggestive lessons are referred to this Bulletin.

A. GENERAL INTRODUCTION

I. What is Community Civics?

The social study to which the name "community civics" has been applied is well defined or described in Civic Education Circular No. 1, issued by the United States Bureau of Education:

"The aim of community civics is to help the child to know his community—not merely a lot of facts about it, but the meaning of his community life, what it does for him and how it does it, what the community has a right to expect from him, and how he may fulfil his obligation: meanwhile cultivating in him the essential qualities and habits of good citizenship.

"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 co-operation 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 of the smaller community. The significance of the term 'community civics' does not lie in its geographical implications, but in its implication 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."

II. Specific Aims of Community Civics.

To accomplish its part in the training for citizenship community civics should aim primarily to lead the pupil:

1. To see the importance and significance of the elements of

community welfare in their relation to himself, and to the communities of which he is a member;

2. To know the social agencies, governmental and voluntary, that exist to secure these elements of community welfare;

3. To recognize his civic obligations, present and future, and to respond to them by appropriate action.

III. Elements of Welfare Suggested as Topics.

For this course in community civics, it is suggested that the following elements of welfare be studied as topics:

Health; Protection of Life and Property; Recreation; Education; Civic Beauty; Communication; Transportation; Migration; Wealth; Charities; Correction.

As each community function is taken up, the governmental agency or mechanism which performs this service should be carefully noted as well as any private organization that may be coöperating with that agency. Later in the course, a review of these various departments, bureaus, commissions or associations—both as to how they are organized and as to how they are financed—should be conducted; and in such a way as to show clearly the structure of our government, local, state and national. And, finally, care must be taken to give some consideration to such important topics as the nomination of candidates, party campaigns, and the simpler sort of court proceedings.

The attempt has been made to arrange these elements of welfare in an order that seems suitable for teaching, but each teacher will be obliged to exercise judgment in adapting the order to the needs and current interests of the class.

IV. Social Facts upon which the Method should be Based.

The pupil is a young citizen with real present interests at stake. He is dependent upon the community for his education, for recreation, for the protection of health, life and property, for the beauty of his surroundings, for the ease with which he

may communicate with his friends. Moreover, his coöperation in many phases of community life is quite as important as that of the adult, especially in the form of public opinion. Hence it is the task of the teacher not to attempt to create an artificial interest for future use, but to develop existing interests and present citizenship.

The amount of civic information possessed collectively by an ordinary class of wide-awake young citizens twelve to fifteen years of age is surprisingly large. But it is fragmentary, and usually unorganized. It is, therefore, important to teach the pupils how to test and organize this knowledge, always remembering that they will be most ready to act on those convictions which they have helped to form for themselves.

It should be remembered, finally, that the class has the essential characteristics of a community, and that, therefore, the methods by which the class exercises are conducted are of the utmost importance in the cultivation of civic qualities and habits. Coöperation in contributing information; the give-and-take of class discussion; regard for the contributions and opinions of others; personal responsibility for the class welfare; the attitude of the teacher as a fellow-citizen with the pupils, and a learner along with them:—all of these help to cultivate interest, judgment, initiative, coöperation, power to organize knowledge, and other qualities of good citizenship. In short, the class should exemplify the right community spirit.

V. Method of Teaching Community Civics.

The study of each topic of this kind should consist of the following steps:

1. *Approach to the Topic.*

In beginning the study of an element of welfare, the teacher should lead the pupils to realize its importance to themselves, to their neighbors, and to the community, and to see the dependence of the individual upon social agencies.

Much depends upon the method of approach. The planning of an approach appropriate to a given topic and applicable to a given class calls for ingenuity and resourcefulness. It is especially important to draw upon the experience and observation of the class—to have the class consciously pool their experience.

2. *Investigation of Agencies.*

The knowledge of the class should now be extended by a concrete and more or less detailed investigation of the agencies through which society aims to secure this particular element of welfare. These investigations should consist largely of first-hand observation and study of local conditions.

It is advised that the first subject considered in the course be investigated by the entire class under the direction of the teacher, so as to get a method of work. After that, agencies may be studied sometimes by the class as a whole and sometimes by groups of pupils, the choice of procedure depending on the difficulty of the agency, its importance, and the degree to which the class has secured a social point of view.

The subjects which are comprehended under each topic are so many that no attempt should be made to have the class as a whole study them all intensively. Such an attempt would result in superficiality, kill interest, and defeat the purpose of the course. In general the more skillful the teacher, the more will he find which the class can do profitably under any agency. It will often be found advisable to study in detail one or more agencies under a given topic, and then to make a rapid survey of others.

In selecting the agencies for intensive study it will be preferable, especially at the start, to select those which are either:

(a) of current interest to the community,—such as a proposed state road, new health regulations in view of a recent epidemic, or a new system of fire protection;

(b) of immediate interest to the class,—such as an athletic field, a new school building, moving picture shows, school lunches, rules of athletic associations, boy scouts; or

(c) of special interest to the teacher,—where the teacher is so familiar with all the agencies that he can deal with them effectively, thus making the study more profitable to the pupils.

3. *Recognition of Responsibility.*

A lesson in community civics is not complete unless it leaves with the pupil a sense of his personal responsibility and results in right action. To attain these ends is perhaps the most difficult and delicate task of the teacher. A proper sense of responsibility can only grow out of a correct perception of a social situation, and a desire to act, from a realization of vital interest in the situation.

A distinction should be made between the present and future civic duties of junior high school pupils. They have some civic responsibilities now; others await them in adult life. They must be prepared for both. The teacher should be careful to cultivate judgment as to the kinds of things for which the pupils should assume responsibility now. For example, pupils can hardly have any large responsibility for the water supply of their community; but they can help to conserve it by avoiding waste from water taps, and they can help to prevent the spread of disease by using individual drinking cups and by cultivating a sentiment at home against contaminating the sources of water supply, especially if wells or springs are used.

A distinction should be made also between the duties of the *citizen* and the duties of the *official*. The citizen selects the official and should hold him to his task. The citizen must know the purpose to be achieved, the official must find out how to achieve it; the citizen needs a sense of values, the official needs technical knowledge; the citizen must be a competent employer, the official a competent executive.

In the past much civic instruction has been ineffective because it has left the pupil to work out for himself the application of general principles to conduct. The translation of principles into conduct is more difficult than the comprehension of the principles themselves. It is largely a matter of motive, reinforced by judgment and initiative. To cultivate these is the teacher's greatest task. Accordingly, the natural human motive of self-interest should be recognized. It is not only legitimate, but in every way desirable, to demonstrate the relation of civic conduct to self-interest, and to utilize the latter as a channel through which to develop a broad spirit of service. Thus the pupil may come to perceive that *his* interest is a part of the *common* interest, and so arrive at an ideal altruism that shall lead to the placing of the interest of others—of the community—above the interest of self.

B. THE COURSE OF STUDY

General Outline

The main topics have already been given under the title, "Elements of Welfare"; and mention was there made of the need and use of various social agencies to secure these "elements." It will now be in order to present some important topics and then to illustrate the method by which these may be developed with a class. For suggestions as to additional agencies under each of these headings teachers are referred to the Bulletin on the Teaching of Community Civics.

Topic I. Health

The number of agencies in the following list to be investigated in detail will depend upon the time available and the relative importance of this topic, health, in the community and for the class. Community methods and agencies:

To secure Pure Air, Pure Water, Pure Food.
For Exercise, for Cleanliness.
To avoid Contagion, to restrict the use of Drugs.

Topic II. Protection of Life and Property

Agencies for the protection of life and property such as
Police, Courts (civil and criminal), Legal Aid Societies.
Militia, State Constabulary.
Army, Navy.
Patents and Copyrights.

Topic III. Recreation

Recreation agencies and the community control of them such as the following may be discussed:

Playgrounds, athletic fields and gymnasiums; Public baths, recreation piers and dance halls; Concerts, theatres and moving pictures; Botanical and zoölogical gardens, libraries, museums and art galleries; Fish and game protection and national parks.

Topic IV. Education

In the same spirit and by similar methods such educational agencies and community functions as the following may be taken up for discussion so far as time and circumstances warrant:

1. Kindergartens, elementary schools (day, evening, summer, special), high schools (day, evening, summer, special), private and co-operative schools; Higher institutions (different kinds and purposes of each); Correspondence schools (use and limitations); Summer Chautauquas; Winter reading circles; Schools for defectives (blind, deaf, etc.)
2. Educational agencies such as
Public education associations; Home and School associations; The Foundations (Sage, General, Education Board, Carnegie Foundation for the advancement of Teaching); U. S. Bureau of Education.

Topic V. Civic Beauty

The following is a list of topics rather than of agencies; but their study, of course, involves a consideration of corresponding agencies:

Beauty in the home and the school as evidenced in the care of lawns, gardens, trees.

School architecture, improvement of grounds, school gardening.

Beauty in the street:

The street plan; Construction and repair; Cleanliness; Provision for rubbish; Unsightly objects—Telephone and electric light poles, bill-boards; Care and preservation of trees; Noise; Lighting at night.

City—or town—planning:

Street plan; Grouping of public buildings; Industrial and residential sections; Regulation of height of buildings; Preservation of natural beauty.

Topic VI. Communication

Agencies such as:

Postal service; Telegraph; Ocean cables; Wireless; Telephone.

Topic VII. Transportation

Agencies and the community service rendered by each:

Roads, Bridges and Streets:

Government control—county, state and nation.

Highway Commissions.

Department of Agriculture (Office of Public Roads).

Post Office Department (Rural Delivery).

Natural waterways; rivers, lakes, ocean.

State bureaus and commissions.

National

Department of Commerce (Coast Survey, Bureau of Navigation, Bureau of Lighthouses).

Department of the Treasury (Life-saving stations).

Department of War (River and Harbor Improvement).
Department of Agriculture (Weather Bureau).
International Waterways Commission.
Interstate Commerce Commission.

Railroads.

Private corporations; State (railway or public service commission); National (Interstate Commerce Commission).

Electric railways.

Urban; surface, elevated, subway.

Interurban: Private corporations; City governments (franchises, commissions); State governments (public service commissions); National (Interstate Commerce Commission).

Steamship and other navigation lines.

Topic VIII. Migration

The following are some of the agencies that have more or less influence on migration:

Federal Bureau of Immigration and Inspection Service.

Federal Bureau of Naturalization.

State departments of labor and employment bureaus.

Steamship companies; Railroad companies; Corporation labor agents.

Colonization societies; Immigration societies and other voluntary organizations in the interest of immigrants; Chambers of Commerce and similar organizations that seek to induce industries to establish themselves in cities; Wheat growers' associations, agricultural exhibits, county and state fairs, etc.

Topic IX. Wealth

The following are some of the agencies that might be considered:

1. Use and control of wealth in the community.

2. Government control of property and wealth.

State bureaus and commissions.

Agriculture, labor, highways, etc.; Employment Bureaus.

State universities, agricultural and technical schools.

State legislation.

Wage laws, accident liability, labor of women and children, working conditions.

Federal departments, bureaus, commissions, etc.

Treasury, Agriculture, Commerce, Labor, Interior, Interstate Commerce Commission, etc.; Consular system; Federal Employment Bureaus; Federal Reserve Board.

Federal legislation (consider the legislation of the present or last session of Congress).

Topic X. Charities

Some of the important agencies under this topic are the following:

Local and state institutions for dependents and defectives; City and state departments of charities; Charity organization societies; Voluntary charitable organizations; Churches; Fraternal organizations; Settlements; Relief and social service departments of business corporations; Schools of philanthropy; Philanthropic foundations; Labor unions; Employment bureaus.

Topic XI. Correction

Agencies mainly instrumental in dealing with delinquents are:

Rules and laws:

School regulations; Local ordinances; State laws; National laws.

For law enforcement:

Machinery of school administration and discipline; Parental, truant and special schools; Reform schools and reformatories; Jails and prisons; Labor colonies; Juvenile courts; Courts for adults; Probation and parole; Prison reform associations.

Topic XII. How Governmental Agencies are Conducted

Note the following, among others:

Direct self-government:

The town meeting; National and state Constitutions as repre-

senting the direct will of the people; Recent development of the initiative, referendum and recall.

Representative self-government:

Reasons for; Methods of representation; Proportional representation.

Division of governing powers:

Local, state, national; Reason for such division; Relations between state and local, between state and national.

Separation of powers:

Legislative, executive, judicial; Reasons for; Degrees of separation in national, state, county, and city governments; Checks and balances.

Selection of representatives:

The suffrage; Nominations; Conventions; Direct primaries; Preferential primaries; Elections; Party systems; Short ballot.

The civil service, civil service reform.

Machine politics.

*Topic XIII. General Organization of Government*¹

At this point specific attention may well be given to the machinery of government. While incidental instruction as to governmental agencies has necessarily been imparted throughout the previous functional study, the course will fail in one of its chief purposes if the various units of government are not now considered as a whole and if some special attention is not given to government organization. Teachers will of course exercise judgment as to the extent to which these topics may be treated and adapt the instruction so as to meet the needs of junior citizens.

County Government: County Commissioners: Sheriff, Attorney, Clerk, Judges, Treasurer, Assessor, Tax Collector, Surveyor, Superintendent of Schools, Physician, Probation Officer, Auditor.

¹ In the preparation of Topic XIII, aid was received from the New York Course of Study for Elementary Schools.

City Government: Charter; Executive—Mayor; Legislative—Board of Aldermen, City Council or Commissioners; Judiciary—Civil, Criminal, Children's Court.

Departments: purpose, organization, cost.

Health, Education, Public Utilities, Fire, Police and Public Safety, Finance, Parks, Playgrounds and Recreation facilities, Civil Service.

State Government: Constitution.

Executive—Governor.

Legislative—House of Representatives, Senate.

Judiciary—Supreme Courts and Courts of Appeal, District Courts.

Boards, Commissions and Commissioners such as: Banking, Insurance, Education, Charities and Correction, Health, Public Utilities, State Institutions, etc.

National Government: Constitution.

Executive—President and Cabinet.

Legislative—Congress: Senate and House of Representatives.

Judicial—Supreme Court—Circuit Courts of Appeals—District Courts.

Special attention may be given to the Bureau of Education, Public Health Service, Department of Agriculture, etc.

Topic XIV. How Governmental Agencies are Financed

The following may be investigated:

Sources of revenue.

Methods of taxation.

Budget making; Appropriations; Assessment; Equalization; Exemptions; Imposts and excises.

Methods of checking expenditures.

Reports; Audits; Budget exhibits.

Methods of borrowing money.

Topic XV. How Voluntary Agencies are Conducted and Financed

Numerous private organizations—local, state and national—that cooperate with governmental agencies have already been

noted in the foregoing discussion of the agencies through which the elements of welfare are served. But it may prove worth while, if time permits, to discuss a few of these voluntary agencies in greater detail. Following is a partial list:

Private hospital; playground association; charity organization society; social settlement; board of trade or chamber of commerce; child labor organization; humane society; bureau of municipal research; consumers' league; local newspaper.

Method

The method suggested for this course in civics has already been briefly described, with its three-fold division of (1) *Approach to Topic*; (2) *Investigation of Agencies*; (3) *Recognition of Responsibility*. This method is worked out in detail for a few topics in the Bulletin on the Teaching of Community Civics, to which the teacher is referred for specific suggestions. The plan for one of the topics is reproduced by way of illustration, along with a model lesson on Roads specially adapted for use in rural schools.

It must be remembered that all the "elements" are applicable alike to a small village or to a great city, while the "agencies" must vary with time and place. Only such agencies as are of interest and importance to the class or to the community at large should be considered at all. This, of course, will call for careful selection and emphasis.

Protection of Life and Property.

Approach to the Topic.

One way to approach this topic is through a discussion of some dramatic accident that has occurred in the vicinity, or that has gained prominence through the newspapers, such as the burning of a part of Salem, Mass., the shirtwaist factory fire in New York City, or the recent floods in Ohio and Indiana, and then to

exhibit statistics (which the pupils themselves may gather) to show that accidents less dramatic but of common occurrence result, in the aggregate, in more terrible loss of life and greater destruction of property. Instances may be found in the annual loss from fire, the railroad or mining accidents of the past year, injuries occurring in the ordinary course of traffic in the streets of a large city, or the loss of life and limb on the Fourth of July.

Compare the attitude of different people toward the removal of causes of accidents: for example, the attitude of the Chinese toward the inundation of their rivers as compared with that of the people along the Mississippi. Why the difference? (Note, however, the unnecessary loss of life and property in this country from periodic floods.) Compare the frequency of railroad accidents in this country with that in England and in Germany.

Note the growing movement in behalf of protection of life and property in this country as illustrated by the "safety first" movement. What has brought about the changed attitude? Give illustrations from your own community.

Investigation of Agencies.

The study of means adopted to protect life and property should commence with conditions that are very near to the pupils. In case the investigation starts with fire prevention in the home, information on such lines as the following may be sought:

Of what material is your house built? Is there need for fire-escapes and are such provided? Is there any danger of fire from stoves or furnaces in your house? Is gasoline or any other explosive kept in the house and if so what care is taken of it? Is there any danger from lighted matches? If you have electricity how is the current insulated? In case a fire broke out what steps would you take? Where is the nearest fire-alarm box? How would you send in an alarm? Is the water supply adequate to extinguish a fire? With reference to how many of these points are there laws in your community?

It is better, however, instead of asking the pupils detailed, leading questions such as those above, to seek to draw *them* out as to the sources of danger to life and property in their own homes. Let them mention materials of construction, fire-escapes, matches, etc. From their miscellaneous list, brought out by free and general discussion, a corrected and classified list may be compiled and placed on the blackboard in good order as a basis for further discussion. This will stimulate initiative and give the pupils practice in organizing their own knowledge.

A similar plan may be followed with regard to the provisions for safety in the school building and elsewhere.

Responsibility of the Citizen.

Even a cursory analysis of the causes of the fires occurring annually in a community, together with an exhibit of the cost to the community, will of itself suggest the heavy responsibility resting on each citizen for the prevention of fire. A study of the causes of accidents on the street will impress the same idea.

Habits of destruction and vandalism, when they prevail among boys, are not always easy to overcome. But more can be done to this end by a vivid demonstration of the social consequences of such practices through an array of concrete situations which will of themselves appeal to self-interest, to the spirit of the "square deal," and to a proud sense of personal responsibility, than by preachment.

Pupils should be taught the proper use of safety devices and the precautions that they should take in order to protect both themselves and their fellow-citizens. In one school in a large city a model of a street car platform was placed in the gymnasium and the pupils were trained to get off the car facing forward. The importance of fire drills in the schools should be thoroughly discussed, and these drills held often enough to secure rapid and orderly emptying of the building. Similarly the class should

discuss the proper procedure in case of a fire in any other building, such as a theatre. Probably in every town and city there are devices, such as fire-alarm boxes, that the local authorities would gladly have pupils trained to use correctly. Quite likely the fire department would lend a sample box to the school so that each pupil could learn the proper method of turning in an alarm. The class may discuss the steps that should be taken by the citizen to secure the installation of safety devices either in his own dwelling or in public buildings or in cars and factories.

For suggestive outlines as to the treatment of Health, Recreation, Education, Civic Beauty, Communication, Transportation, Charities and Correction consult Bulletin on the Teaching of Community Civics.

Professor J. F. Smith of Berea College, submitted to the Bureau of Education the following outline on Country Roads and it is here reproduced as a good concrete example for use in rural communities. In this study numerous photographs are used. Walks are taken over good and bad roads for first-hand study. Teacher and pupils actually do a piece of road work. Bulletins regarding road building are placed in the hands of the pupils. Endeavor is made to have a few yards of model road built near the school house.

- A. 1. Study and report on conditions of road in the community. Draw a map of the community indicating roads. Which are dirt roads, rock roads, other kinds? Which are well graded, well crowned? Note side ditches; are they adequate? Note culverts and bridges. Estimate number of miles of roads in the community, public and private.
2. Study road-making material in the community. Note places where limestone is found; sandstone, slate, gravel. Are these materials accessible?
3. Find out cost of hauling in the community. Consult wagoners and learn charges per hundred pounds for freight and farm produce. Can farmers afford to market produce at present cost of cartage? Find out how much freight is hauled into the community annually and compute amount

paid for this. How long will wagon and set of harness last on the roads? How long on good roads? Difference in cost for 10 years? How much could the people who buy supplies afford to spend on road upkeep each year in order to cut down freight rates?

4. Compare cost of hauling here with cost in European countries where the best roads exist. What over-tax do the people have to pay? Note that this over-tax is in the form of higher prices for household necessities and in smaller profits for farm produce.

B. Road building:

Determine kind of road; the location; grades, how grades affect the haul; the drainage—level and steep roads, side ditches, culverts, subdrainage, crown; actual construction—tools, funds, means employed.

C. Road maintenance:

Kind of material to use; regular attention necessary; the tools; the king's split-log drag.

D. What good roads mean to a community:

The economic problem. How they enhance value of land.

Means of communication. Better social life.¹

CONCLUSION

The last four topics given in the outline—how governmental agencies are conducted, general organization of government, how governmental agencies are financed, how voluntary agencies are conducted and financed—are intended to form the basis of a review of the organization of government and of coöperating private associations, which have been only incidentally touched upon in considering the various agencies. This will place a skeleton or framework within the living structure which teacher and pupils have been erecting during the year. The treatment of each topic has led to the corresponding department of government and its organization for the special function performed. It merely remains therefore to treat the relation of

¹ Taken from Civic Education Series, No. 4.

departments and their combination into the units of government—county, city, state, and nation. Organization charts and the graphic method of presenting a summary of the essential relations between various divisions and officers can be used to great advantage. Emphasis may well be given here to the state as a whole: its broad significance, its all comprehensiveness, its vital importance to community life.

City charters or ordinances, state constitutions or laws, the federal Constitution or acts of Congress—all these should be used throughout the course, along with departmental reports, maps, charts, models, samples, etc., as collateral material. A civics laboratory will come to be regarded in the same light as those for physics, chemistry, and biology.

3. Senior High School.

On account of the changes already made in civic instruction in the elementary grades and in view of further modifications now under way it becomes necessary to revise somewhat the formal plan of civics course as offered in many secondary schools. Such a revision has already been undertaken by many principals and instructors and the results are very gratifying. This revision has been accomplished mostly in schools in which provision is made for a year course in government with supplementary readings, field work, reports, constant class discussions on current political events and the use of graphic methods in the presentation of government facts. The content of the course is sufficiently extensive to warrant a full year for this instruction. But in many schools it is not practicable to devote a full year to the subject and the common arrangement is to combine a half year of government with a half year of history or economics. An experiment which is being tried in some communities is to offer a full year of social science (excluding history) combining topics from elementary sociology, economics and government into some-

what of a unified course. This plan, although it has many advocates, has not been sufficiently tried nor well enough developed by secondary school instructors to offer any definite guidance to teachers. Moreover, a large part of the content does not fall within the jurisdiction of this Association. And while the development of methods and courses of study naturally will be the result of the work of educators in the secondary schools, nevertheless it seems to this committee that the American Economic Association and the Sociological Society should join with the Political Science Association, the National Education Association and the Bureau of Education in the furtherance and direction of Social Science instruction in secondary schools. To this end a committee should be constituted from the various organizations and agencies interested in this work to aid in the preparation of courses of study and in the unification of instruction in the public schools and higher institutions.

For the schools which now give a full year to the study of government, for those which give a half year to the subject, and for the government portion of a course where the social science plan is undertaken the committee offers a few suggestions. The topics included can be treated briefly or expanded to suit the special needs of each instructor. And above all, the suggestions are presented in a tentative form for such adoption and use as may seem advisable in each individual instance.

SUGGESTIONS FOR A COURSE IN CIVICS FOR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL ¹

General Suggestions

The relation to each other of the local, state and federal units of government is presented on large charts which are before the eyes of

¹ This outline is meant to do nothing more than suggest a method of approach, and is not submitted as a syllabus in civics. Its preparation is largely the work of Messrs. W. W. Rogers, S. J. Jumnefsky, E. D. Lewis, G. D. Luetscher, and H. C. Thomas of the New York City high schools, with the coöperation of Messrs. S. B. Howe and D. C. Knowlton of New Jersey.

the pupils as much of the time as is possible. The charts are thoroughly explained at one of the early meetings of the class, and are referred to in discussion with sufficient frequency to plant their content permanently in the minds of the pupils as the basis of all their thinking.

The relation to each other of the elementary functions of government, —legislation, adjudication and administration,—is also graphically presented in a similar way to that used for the geographical units.

Each student is provided with a convenient handbook of facts and early in the course is taught the method of finding the information he wishes in addition to that given in the handbook by consulting indices, encyclopædiæ and the like.

Consequently it is possible to devote a large part of the time assigned to "recitation" to discussion, the purpose of which is to answer the questions suggested to the pupils by their reading; to select for them those facts which it is important for them to try to remember; and to organize those facts into a system of political thought.

PART I

State Government

This topic is placed first because the American State is the basic unit of government with us. All other geographical units are divisions of the state except the United States which is a federation of commonwealths. The laws determining all of our fundamental rights and duties and a large majority of our legal relations are state laws; but state government has been woefully neglected, and is at present the least efficient of all our public activities.

I. Legislation is the basic political function and may be divided into three kinds:

- (A) Constitution-making.
- (B) Statute-making.
- (C) Ordinance-making.

(A) Constitutions.¹

(a) The origin of the idea.

- (1) Constitutions of clubs and societies.
- (2) Charters of corporations.
- (3) Colonial charters.

¹ Each pupil is required to familiarize himself somewhat with the characteristics of the constitution of his own state, and the charter of his own city.

- (b) Methods of writing constitutions in America.
 - (c) The ideal constitution.
 - (d) Outline of the content of several representative state constitutions.
 - (1) Bill of rights, and its purpose.
 - (2) The machinery of government.
 - (3) Miscellaneous provisions and their growth.
 - (4) Methods of amendment.
- (B) Statute-making, and the meaning of law.¹
- (a) Direct legislation; initiative and referendum; methods and results.
 - (b) Legislation through representatives.
 - (1) Organization of the legislature.²
 - Methods of apportioning and electing members.
 - The bicameral vs. the unicameral system.
 - Officers of the legislative chambers.
 - Committees.
 - (2) Methods of procedure.
 - Annual vs. biennial sessions.
 - Freedom of debate.
 - The governor's message.
 - The party pledges.
 - The initiation of bills.
 - Methods of drafting bills.
 - Committee hearings and reports.
 - Safeguards in the constitution and the rules.
 - The governor's veto.
 - The test before the courts. Power of the courts over legislation under our system.

¹Here the teacher takes time to make clear the idea of law as the basis of social order using for illustration the rules of the school, and if they are available the rules enacted by the pupil self-government organization or the athletic association. It is improbable that all teachers will be able to convey to pupils an adequate idea of the relation of law to peace, justice and contentment; even those teachers who have the idea clear in their own minds may not be able to convey it because of the immaturity of the pupils. But without a fair conception of law, a study of government is an aimless and a formless confusion.

² Compare with the English house of commons and the English cabinet when possible.

- (3) Defects in the system.
 - Lack of responsible leadership, Cf. English Prime Minister.
 - Lack of efficient drafting methods.
 - Log-rolling and lobbying.
 - Excessive quantities of statutes.
 - Special and local legislation.
 - Temptation to young and inexperienced members of the legislature.
- (4) Suggested remedies.
 - Well guarded possibilities of direct legislation.
 - Leadership by the governor and his cabinet.
 - A larger amount of popular interest and a keener sense of the citizen's responsibilities.
 - Proportional representation.
 - An efficient system of Bill Drafting.

(C) Ordinance-making.

- (a) Legislative powers delegated to counties and municipalities in the constitution or in the statutes.
- (b) Methods of legislation in the county.
- (c) Town meetings and their legislative processes.
- (d) Municipal legislation.¹
 - Boards of Aldermen, city councils and commissions.

II. Adjudication is the process of interpreting the laws and determining when they have been violated by offenses against individuals or against society.

(A) Organization of the courts.

- (a) The system and basis of graded courts.
 - (1) Minor courts.
 - (2) County courts.
 - (3) State courts.
 - (4) Special courts,—probate, claims, juvenile, etc.
- (b) Officers of the courts.
 - (1) Judges.
 - Function of the judge fully set forth.
 - Methods of selection.

¹ The discussion of legislation for a state applies with equal force to that for a municipality as to number of chambers, sessions, methods of organization, and the nature of the output. Each teacher must adjust his discussion to the locality in which he lives, whether town, county, or city.

Length of term.

Salary.

Removal.

(2) Juries.

Kinds of juries, their origin and the function of each.

Methods of selection.

(3) Prosecutors and public defenders.

(4) Other officers, clerks, recorders, etc.

(5) The bar and legal ethics.

(B) Procedure.¹

(a) Criminal procedure.

(b) Civil procedure.

(C) Defects in our system.

(a) Prolonged litigation.

(b) Expensive litigation.

(c) Complicated and technical processes.

(D) Proposed remedies.

(a) A higher type of judge.

(1) By appointment instead of election.

(2) By a public opinion demanding a better type of judge.

(b) Simplification of our rules of practice.

(c) A more intelligent system of legislation which may produce laws that are intelligible.

III. The Execution of the Law and the administration of Public Affairs.

(A) The machinery of administration.²

(a) For the State as a whole.

¹ Pupils visit a court room when possible. If this is not possible, the teacher should make plain to them in outline under a and b, such elements as the complaint, the answer, the charge to the jury, and the like. A well conducted mock trial is found to be useful for this. Attention will be centered on these steps as parts of an effort to secure justice; not as part of a formidable system to be learned like the irregular verbs or the location of Madagascar.

² As far as is practicable, the information under A is graphically presented in charts. No more time is given in class to recitation about machinery than is necessary to stimulate the pupil to remember the important facts.

- (1) The governor.
 - Method of nomination and election.¹
 - Party machinery.
 - Party activity.
 - Ballots and ballot laws.
 - Primary system.
- (2) Other state officials, and their selection.
 - The short ballot system.
- (3) The permanent civil service.
 - The difference between policy determining officials and civil servants.
 - Some idea of the history of the merit system.
 - The difficulties placed in the way of the system by the defects of human nature.
- (4) Boards, commissions, and general confusion.
- (b) For the County.
 - The officers and their selection.
- (c) For the Town.
 - The officers and their selection.

Generally the interest of the work conducted as this outline indicates is sufficient to accomplish this purpose. It is particularly important for the success of the work that the teacher feel obliged to teach only the facts that he knows, and not try to prepare his lessons from day to day. He should be content to teach the government of the local unit and State in which his school is situated; and if he does not know the organization of these he should make an earnest effort during some summer vacation to learn them thoroughly. He should not hesitate to say frankly that he does not know all about the complicated mechanism of government, but is willing to help the pupils to learn as much of it as they wish to learn. He will of course avail himself of the help to be gotten from the published reports of public officials of his locality and State. Many helpful pictures may be obtained and in some states lantern slides are available for an occasional illustrated lecture.

¹ Here is presented the organization of political parties in the State under consideration, with the relation of this organization to the national parties. The methods of nominating and electing public servants may here be made clear once for all. Some teachers find it preferable to do this above (B, b, 1) when the selection of representatives for the legislature is under discussion. It is particularly desirable that a teacher teach government in the way he sees it, leaving room in his discussion for differences of opinion and point of view and avoiding emphasis on matters of opinion. He cannot make it vital unless he teaches *his* way what *he* sees.

(d) For the City.

The officers and their selection.

- (1) Under the old system.
- (2) The commission plan of city government.
- (3) The commission manager plan.

(B) Problems of administration.¹

- (a) The preservation of peace and order, the police and the militia.
- (b) The protection of property and persons.
- (c) The preservation of health.²

¹ Each of the main functions, the efficient performance of which constitutes the problem of the ministrant side of government, is studied by the class as fully as the time available permits; and time is saved from the discussion of machinery and organization for much fuller discussion of these functions than has heretofore been the custom. Not a few teachers find it advisable to present at this point in one meeting of the class an outline of the organization of the federal administration, and then in the discussion of each of the functions taken up bring into the discussion the part played by the Federal government as well as that by the State and the local unit in which the school is situated. The class takes up each function with the notion clearly in mind that here is a great social problem (the preservation of health, the education of citizens, the care of dependent and delinquent classes) and proceeds to study the present available methods for its solution, incidentally learning something of the difficulties in the way of the organization of public activities, the selection of officials, and the securing of public support for efficient servants who are not also efficient politicians.

² It is of course impossible for all of any class to study all of the functions of government thoroughly, and it is unnecessary that this be done. The object sought is not information about these functions, but a conception of the way government works,—a vital grasp of the thing from an observation of its detail. One small group of students in a class takes up the organization for the care of health, and reports on this to the class. They study what is done by the local board of health, the powers of the board, its relation to the state board, the relation of both to Federal organs such as the Public Health Service of the Treasury Department. They know something of pure food activities of the Department of Agriculture and of the State; the quarantine laws; and the like. They thus grasp as fully as children of their age can, the complicated system of health administration and form some idea of the pernicious influence of that type of politician who thinks any faithful henchman is suitable for a job in the health department. It is advisable to specialize a part of this work when possible by the discussion of some epidemic or nuisance with which the pupils are acquainted in their home lives.

- (d) Education.¹
 - (e) Conservation and development of public resources, including agriculture.
 - (f) Public works, roads and buildings.
 - (g) Art and æsthetic development.
 - (h) City planning and the development of the city and country for future generations.
 - (i) Charities and correction.
- (C) Defects in our system.
- (a) Excessive respect for individual rights.
 - (b) The spoils system still surviving in the civil service.
 - (c) The long ballot which makes intelligent election impossible.
 - (d) Popular indifference to efficiency in public and private affairs.
 - (e) Public ignorance of the nature of the work of government and therefore inability to judge the nature of the public service required.
 - (f) Superstitious reverence for the separation of powers.

¹ Another group of the same class may study and report on the educational function. There is no more illuminating subject for our general purpose. The cost of the schools as represented in the city, the State and the Federal budgets; the powers of the local school boards; of the State superintendent of education; the service rendered by the Federal Bureau, with its splendid system of collecting and distributing information. The overlapping of functions and the resulting waste of energy when various units proceed to the collecting of information on the same subjects, here appear. Under the growing activities of the schools, such as free lunches, playground equipment, etc., there is introduced an elementary discussion of the problems of socialism and individualism. The public educational institutions are contrasted with the private ones. Lunch rooms run by the school are contrasted with lunch rooms to which the pupils might go in the vicinity which are run by private persons. Paternalism is explained to some extent in the discussion of the compulsory education law, and the requirements that the health of the pupils be cared for. Here the group on this subject overlap with the group studying health, and some interesting discussion generally results.

PART II

Federal Government

A union of commonwealths for purposes which require common action.

I. Federal Legislation.

(A) The Federal Constitution.

(a) Origin of our Federal system.

(1) Articles of Confederation and earlier efforts at union.

(2) The critical period.

(3) Economic and political causes of the Convention of 1787.

(b) Content of the Constitution.¹

(c) Evolution of the Constitution under judicial decisions.

(d) Evolution of the Constitution under public opinion.

(e) Probable future development of the Constitution.

(B) Federal Statutes.

(a) Review organization of the legislative process as outlined under State government.

(b) Powers of Congress under the Constitution.

(c) Rapid growth of these powers through custom and judicial decision.

(d) The present tendency of development.

(e) The basis of argument for local self-government as opposed to centralization in legislation.

II. Federal Adjudication.

(A) Origin and growth of the Federal courts.

(a) Jay's attitude toward their functions.

(b) Marshall and his work.

(c) Popular confidence in the Federal courts.

(B) Review the organization and procedure of the judiciary as outlined under state government.

¹ The outline of the Constitution is learned. The Constitution itself is not memorized but carefully studied. Studying many books about a Constitution which is not read is a common practice, but one that cannot be defended.

- (C) Relation of the Federal to the State courts as regards authority and fields of activity.
Illustrate with one or two examples of conflict.
- (D) Compare the Federal judges with those of the States as regards reputation and efficiency; and explain the advantages held by the Federal judges.

III. Federal Administration.

- (A) Review the discussion of the State administration, substituting the President for the Governor.
- (B) Currency and Banking.
 - (a) A medium of exchange.
 - (b) A means of securing an elastic currency.
 - (c) Government supervision.
 - (d) The National Bank Act.
 - (e) The Federal Reserve.
- (C) The Army and Navy.
- (D) The Postal Service.
- (E) Promotion of Commerce and Industry.
- (F) Government of Dependencies.
 - (a) Review the administration of territories by our government since the Ordinance of 1787.
 - (b) The American colonial policy is altruistic, not one of exploitation.
 - (c) Discuss the holding of dependencies in the light of the principles of the Declaration of Independence.
- (G) International Affairs.
 - (a) The President and the Secretary of State.
 - (b) The Diplomatic system.
 - (1) Its purpose.
 - (2) Its origin and growth.
 - (3) Its relation to spoils and patronage.
 - (4) Methods of improving the diplomatic personnel.
 - (c) The consular system.
 - (1) Its purpose.
 - (2) Its personnel and present weakness.
 - (3) The need of the merit system in this service.

- (d) Our foreign policy.
- (1) Entangling alliances.
 - (2) The Monroe Doctrine.
 - (3) Pan-Americanism.
 - (4) The open-door in the East.
 - (5) Our best ideals of treating weaker nations.
 - (6) International arbitration.
 - (7) The idea of a federation of the world for international law, a court to interpret it, and sufficient force to have the court's awards respected.

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¹ The preparation of the bibliographical lists was simplified by the assistance of Misses Buxbaum and Soule and the New York City libraries and by the coöperation of the Congressional Library.

² Too large a proportion of the writings on civics teaching is still for purposes of inspiration rather than for information. If the teacher can be given some more helpful, definite information, he is much more likely to go ahead with useful work than if energy is wasted in pious urgings to go ahead no one knows whither.

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Encyclopedia Britannica, 11th Edition, is a mine of information.

The Congressional Library service is generously and ably given to all citizens who ask it.

The United States Government issues a monthly list of publications from the government press, many of which are valuable to the teacher of government, and most of which may be had for a nominal price.

The Municipal Reference Library Notes, New York City, is a weekly list of publications bearing on municipal government.

Manuals and handbooks of American and other legislative bodies are of considerable interest to pupils if brought to their attention and explained. They generally contain legislative rules and parliamentary practice.

The following handbooks give most of the constantly changing facts of political machinery:

Statesman's Yearbook, Macmillan.

National Yearbook, Hammond.

Whitaker's Almanack, London; American edition, Doubleday.

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Other yearbooks for Russia, Japan, South Africa, China, etc.

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The World Almanac, the New York World Press, a surprisingly full collection of all sorts of political information.

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2. Periodicals

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Proceedings of the National Municipal League.

American Political Science Review, Vols. I-X.

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Proceedings of the New York Academy of Political Science, Vols. I-VI.

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The above series and the current issues of these publications contain articles, book reviews, and news and notes of inestimable value for reference use.

Among the more popular magazines may be mentioned as particularly useful to the teacher of government, The Survey, The Independent, The Forum, Literary Digest, The Nation, The New Republic, New York Times Monthly Review of Events, North American Review, The Outlook, The Review of Reviews, The American City.

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C. BUREAU OF REFERENCE FOR STUDY OF CIVIC AFFAIRS.

In addition to general and special works of reference such as the above it is equally necessary to secure and have ready for constant use a considerable collection of material in the form of reports, documents and other government publications. Much of this material may be secured by a letter or card of inquiry to the officer or authority in charge.

Among the things which such a Bureau should contain are:

A. *Official.*

Maps of city, county, state and nation with congressional, legislative and judicial districts.

Reports of city, county, state and national officials, officers, departments, bureaus, boards and commissions.

Ballots for city, county, and state elections in different states and communities.

Notices for party conventions and primaries along with campaign yearbooks and official party literature.

Legal notices and blanks (to be secured chiefly from offices of city and county clerks).

Charters and ordinances for cities with special ordinances on health and sanitation, building regulations, etc.

B. *Unofficial*—publications and reports of

1. Local Chambers of Commerce, Civic Clubs and Improvement Associations.

2. Charity Organization Societies, National Child Labor Committee, National Congress on City Planning, National Civil Service Reform League, National Short Ballot Association, National Housing Association, National Civic Federation, National Municipal League, American City Bureau, American Civic Association, Russell Sage Foundation, American Proportional Representation League, Playground and Recreation Association, National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor, American Public Health Association, etc.¹

C. Maps, Charts, Survey material prepared by students under the direction of the teacher of government.

¹ The Information Desk of "The Survey" gives the addresses of a majority of these organizations and societies.

PART IV

REPORT ON INSTRUCTION IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

I. Preliminary Statement.

During the year 1912-13 a preliminary report was prepared dealing with instruction in political science in colleges and universities. Data for the report was secured from catalogues and from a form of questionnaire submitted to 500 institutions.¹

FORM OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Name of College or University _____

COURSES DEVOTED TO POLITICAL SCIENCE

Kindly mark with * courses required of undergraduates

	Courses	No. Hours per Week	No. Undergraduates	No. Graduates	Method of Instruction used, (whether lectures, recitations, discussions, etc.)	Text Books or Books for required reading	Name of Instructor
American Government							
National							
State							
Local, Rural, Municipal							
Comparative Government							
Political Theory							
Elements of Law							
Additional Courses							

¹ Acknowledgment is due the following men for the preparation of reports on the teaching of political science in particular states, and for valuable

1. What proportion of time and emphasis is given in instruction in government to—
 - a. Constitutional history?
 - b. Constitutional and legal framework of government?
 - c. Governmental functions and activities?
2. Is the department of political science rendering any practical service to the community or state? If so, what is the nature of this service?
3. Are any courses offered or is any work specially designed to train teachers who expect to become instructors in government?
4. In case an outline or syllabus is used with any courses offered in political science the committee will appreciate it if copies of same are submitted with this report.
5. Have you any suggestions to offer relative to ways and methods by which the committee and the association may be able to improve instruction in government?

Signed

In the year 1913-14 another questionnaire was distributed through the Bureau of Education in order to supplement and render more accurate information already received as to courses offered in higher institutions. From the replies received and information previously gathered, a record of courses offered in 531 institutions was prepared. In all but a few cases the record was approved by an officer of the college or university and represents correctly the courses announced¹ in each institution to May and June, 1914.

assistance in the preparation of this report: W. J. Shepard, University of Missouri, W. M. Hunley, University of Virginia, Jesse S. Reeves, University of Michigan, Carl Christophelsmeier, University of South Dakota, A. B. Hall, University of Wisconsin, Clyde L. King, University of Pennsylvania, J. E. Boyle, University of North Dakota, H. A. E. Chandler, University of Arizona, F. W. Coker, Ohio State University, and C. S. Potts, University of Texas.

¹ It is necessary to remark that the courses announced in many instances do not represent the courses given in any one year and this is especially true where the courses are given every other or every third year as is often the case in small institutions.

Hours were recorded in the revised table for the following subjects:

1. American government.
 - a. National.
 - b. State and local.
 - c. Municipal.
2. General political science (courses based on volumes such as those of Garner, Leacock and Gettell).
3. Comparative government.
4. English government.
5. International law.
6. Diplomacy.
7. World politics.
8. Jurisprudence or elements of law.
9. Commercial law.
10. Roman law.
11. Administrative law.
12. Political theories (History of political thought).
13. Party government.
14. Colonial government.
15. Legislative methods and legislative procedure.
16. Current political problems.
17. Municipal corporations.
18. Law of officers and taxation.
19. Seminar.
20. Additional courses.

For the purpose of its report the committee decided to include all institutions which chose to call themselves colleges or universities and no effort was made to classify institutions or to eliminate those which ought more properly to be grouped with secondary schools. The original list for the purpose of sending inquiries was prepared from the list in the bulletin of the Bureau of Education to which were added a few additional colleges from the table in the World's Almanac.

Courses in English and American constitutional history, as well as in legal and political history are omitted in the final tabulation although it was frequently quite clear that such courses dealt primarily with government rather than history. These subjects are offered in a majority of schools in the department of history and there is a marked tendency to drop the courses entirely or to incorporate them as an integral part of the work offered in history. For sake of uniformity all such courses are omitted, although the committee recognizes a difference of opinion as to the advisability of dropping these subjects from the courses offered in departments of government.

Several departments of political science include public finance and taxation which are usually offered as a part of the work in economics. Public finance is a subject to which both economics and political science may rightfully lay claim. It has become customary, however, to classify this study with economics and for practical purposes it may be excluded, even though like some other subjects in economics it involves matters of government and public affairs and may with equal propriety be included under the scope of political science. Commercial law when offered in a commercial department of sub-collegiate grade, and civil government, in a sub-collegiate or preparatory department, are necessarily omitted. Government is often taught in connection with history, but when no separate hours are given to the subject no credit could be accorded in the tabulations.

Some difficulties have arisen because courses in economics and sociology are occasionally classified within the department of political science. Despite the fact that such subjects are occasionally listed as political science the committee has excluded those which obviously belong to economics or sociology. For this reason several institutions are designated as offering no courses in political science in view of the fact that the scope of work was entirely in the fields of history, economics and so-

ciology, departments of study not within the scope of this report.

The table comprises primarily the courses presented to undergraduates and given in the school of arts and sciences. In the lists of the large universities many of the courses included are open to graduates and undergraduates while a few are open to graduate students only. Owing to the lack of uniformity in announcing these courses it was impossible to make separate classes, consequently all of the regularly published courses are included whether open to undergraduates, to both graduates and undergraduates, or to graduates only. Most of the large universities offer advanced work for graduates for which hours are not determined, and as a result the total hours for several universities is necessarily smaller than the actual work done. Since many colleges failed to report the number of courses and hours actually given each year the committee was obliged to accept and include in its tabulations the hours announced. In a few instances it is quite obvious that this total by no means corresponds to the work given each year.

Political science courses listed in the table are sometimes offered in departments of economics and history or in the law school. In some instances regular law courses, including some of those covered in the table, are open to qualified undergraduates and it is very difficult to indicate what work is done in the field of political science as defined by the committee. The relation between law and political science is, as one instructor suggests, in a hopeless confusion, and it doubtless would be advantageous for this matter to receive careful consideration by the Association. When it was clearly indicated that work was offered by other departments this fact is noted. In the great majority of cases the record gives the courses now offered, but on account of changes very recently made a few colleges found it necessary to present the courses to be given the next year. Courses given in alternate years or less frequently are usually

so designated. It is very evident that the quality of instruction varies widely and that a bare total of hours scheduled overrates the emphasis given to political science in some institutions and underrates that given in others. Some universities offer cycles of courses and thereby cover a much wider range than the list given in the table would indicate. On the other hand, a large total of hours made up mostly of elementary courses is scarcely to be compared with the same number of hours given in fewer courses and primarily to graduate students, yet by the table such institutions might be rated exactly the same. The committee is aware of this and other difficulties involved in presenting data as to courses announced and given in higher institutions. But despite these difficulties the table presents information which it was thought should be available to all instructors in the field.

Name and Location	American Government			General Political Science	Comparative Government	English Government	International Law	Diplomacy	World Politics	Jurisprudence or Elements of Law	Commercial Law	Roman Law	Constitutional Law	Administrative Law	Political Theories	Party Government	Colonial Government	Legislative Methods and Par. Pro.	Current Political Problems	Municipal Corporations	Law of Officers and Taxation	Seminar	Additional course	Additional course	Total	
	(a) National	(b) State and Local	(c) Municipal																							
Alfred Univ., Alfred, N. Y.	2 34				2 34		2 34				34															136
Allegheny Coll., Meadville, Pa.	1 36				1 36																					72
Allentown Coll. for Women, Allentown, Pa.	2 108																									108
Alma Coll., Alma, Mich.	2 54			2 54		2 54																				120
Amer. Int. Coll., Springfield, Mass.	1 120						1 120																			270
Amherst Coll., Amherst, Mass.				1 08	1 08		1 08																			0
Antioch Coll., Yellow-Spring, Ohio																										144
Arkansas Coll., Batesville, Ark.	1 72				1 72																					90
Arkansas Cumberland Coll., Clarksville, Ark.	1 90																									126
Armour Inst. of Technology, Chicago, Ill.				1 18	1 18																					0
Asbury Coll., Louisville, Ky.																										0

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Bryn Mawr Coll., Pa.			72	144								108								72	Course in Social Politics	396
Bucknell Univ., Lewisburg, Pa.	1 180	60	72	252		60	a 72	60	60		60	240		36								1092
Buena Vista Coll., Storm Lake, Ia.	hh																					
Butler Coll., Indianapolis, Ind.	2 54	a 36		54			a 36							a 36								† 288
Burrill College, Spencer, Tenn.																						
Campion College, Prairie du Chien, Wis.																						o
Canisius College, Buffalo, N. Y.	2 40																					40
Capital Univ., Columbus, O.	1 100																					100
Carleton Coll., Northfld, Minn.	1 108		108																			252
Carleton Coll., Farmington, Mo.	1 72			72																		144
Carnegie Inst. of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa.									72												18	90
Carson and Newman Coll., Jefferson City, Tenn.	1 100									40												140
Carroll College, Waukesha, Wis.	1 72			72																		368
Carthage Coll., Carthage, Ill.	1 54																					54
Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland, O.														32	48							
Carlisle Indian School, Carlisle, Pa.	h																					o

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Christian Coll., Columbia, Mo.																								0
Christian Brothers Coll., St. Louis, Mo.	h																							0
Christian Univ., Canton, Mo.																								128
Citadel Military Coll., Charleston, S. Ca.	178					24				26														0
Clafin Univ., Orangeburg, S. Ca.																								216
Clark Coll., Worcester, Mass.	54				54	a 54																		72
Clark University, Worcester, Mass.	See Clark Coll.,					a 72																		0
Clarkson School of Technology, Potsdam, N. Y.																								76
Clemson Agri. Coll., Clemson S. Ca.	176																							234
Coe Coll., Cedar Rapids, Ia.	172				54	54				54														60
Coker Coll., Hartsville, S. Ca.	60																							180
Colgate Univ., Hamilton, N. Y.	190				36	36	18																	144
Coll. of Charleston, Charleston, S. Ca.				36	36									36										270
Coll. of the City of New York, N. Y.																								54
Coll. of Emporia, Emporia, Kan.				54	54	54							54											54
Coll. of Hawaii, Honolulu					54																			54

Name and Location	American Government			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
	(a) National	(b) State and Local	(c) Municipal																									
Coll. of Idaho, Caldwell, Idaho.	hh																											
College of New Rochelle, New Rochelle, N. Y.	1 108																											
Coll. of the Pacific, San Jose, Calif.	1 54																											
Coll. of the Sacred Heart, Denver, Colo.		a 54																										
Coll. for Women, Columbia, S. Ca.																												
Colorado Agri. Coll., Fort Collins, Colo. Coll., Colorado Coll., Colorado Springs, Colo.	1 54																											
Colorado School of Mines, Golden, Colo.	1a 54								a 36	a 36																		
Columbia Coll., College Place, S. Ca.																												
Columbia University, New York City, N. Y.	1 108																											
	75	75	90					60			60	240		45		45	165	120	54				60	60	60	45	45	1200

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
Elon Coll., Elon College, N. Ca.	1 216																108								† 666
Emory Coll., Oxford, Ga.	14 54			108	a 54								a 54												162
Emory and Henry Coll., Emory, Va.				4 108																					108
Erskine College, Due West, S. Ca.																									0
Eureka College, Eureka, Ill.	1 54			54																					108
Ewing Coll., Ewing, Ill.											72														72
Fairmont Coll., Fairmont, Kan.	24 54			a 36	a 36	a 36	a 36	a 36																	† 378
Wichita, Kan.																									144
Fargo College, Fargo, N. Da.	a 72																								0
Findlay College, Findlay, Ohio	hh					a 72																			144
Fisk Univ., Nashville, Tenn.																									0
Florida State Coll. for Women, Tallahassee, Fla.	1 48			48	48																				144
Fordham Univ., Fordham, N. Y.																									0
Franklin Coll., Franklin, Ind.	14 48			a 48	a 48																				192
Franklin and Marshall Coll., Lancaster, Pa.	14 72			72																					288
Fredericksburg Coll., Fredericksburg, Va.	h																								171
Furman Univ., Greenville, S. Ca.	1 57			57																					90
Gallaudet Coll., Washington, D. C.											60														90
							30																		C

Name and Location	American Government			General Political Science	Comparative Government	English Government	International Law	Diplomacy	World Politics	Jurisprudence or Elements of Law	Commercial Law	Roman Law	Constitutional Law	Administrative Law	Political Theories	Party Government	Colonial Government	Legislative Methods and Par. Pro.	Current Political Problems	Municipal Corporations	Law of Officers and Taxation	Seminar	Additional course	Additional course	Total	
	(a) National	(b) State and Local	(c) Municipal																							
Geneva College, Beaver Falls, Pa.	160			60									60													180
Georgetown Coll., Georgetown, Ky.	172			72																						144
Georgetown University, Washington, D. C.									108																	108
George Washington University, Washington, D. C.	154			54	a 54	a 54	54	54	36	36			36		a 54	a 54	36									756
Georgia School of Technology, Atlanta, Ga.	54		a 54																							
German Wallace Coll., Berea, O.	h																									
Goshen College, Goshen, Ind.	154						a 36			108																198
Goucher College, Baltimore, Md.	124				24		24																			144
Grand Island Coll., Grand Island, Neb.	64			64		64																				192
Graceland Coll., Lamont, Ia.				a 36			a 36																			72
																										0

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Name and Location	American Government			General Political Science	Comparative Government	English Government	International Law	Diplomacy	World Politics	Jurisprudence or Elements of Law	Commercial Law	Roman Law	Constitutional Law	Administrative Law	Political Theories	Party Government	Colonial Government	Legislative Methods and Par. Pro.	Current Political Problems	Municipal Corporations	Law of Officers and Taxation	Seminar	Additional course	Additional course	Total	
	(a) National	(b) State and Local	(c) Municipal																							
Iowa State Teachers Coll., Cedar Falls, Ia.	3/60	60 3/60			60 3/60	60							60			36										456
Iowa Wesleyan Coll., Mt. Pleasant, Ia.	108			54	54	36										18		G 18								108
Irving Coll., Mechanicsburg, Pa.																										180
Jamestown Coll., Jamestown, N. Da.	1 54			90																						144
James Milliken Univ., Decatur, Ill.	54						36			72	72		54									h				288
John B. Stetson Univ., Deland, Fla.	60	60		45		60				60																285
Johns Hopkins Univ., Baltimore, Md.					a ³ 36		36	36	a ³ 36	a ³ 36			72		a ³ 36								72	M		324
Junata College, Huntington, Pa.				54	108																					162
Kalamazoo Coll., Kalamazoo College, Mich.	a ⁴ 54					a 54							a 54													162
Kansas Wesleyan Univ., Salina, Kan.				54																						54

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	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	
Kansas State Agricultural Coll., Manhattan, Kan.	1 48						24			24																96
Kentucky Coll. for Women, Danville, Ky.											135															0
Kentucky Military Institute, Lyndon, Ky.	1 68																									203
Kenyon College, Gambier, Ohio	1 54		a 54	4 54			54						54			54										324
Kingfisher Coll., Kingfisher, Okla.															36											36
Knox Coll., Galesburg, Ill.	2 72		0 108			18							36													234
Knoxville Coll., Tenn.				120																						120
Lafayette Coll., Easton, Pa.	1 88			4 72			28				44															232
Lake Erie Coll. for Women, Painesville, O.	1 54																									54
Lake Forest College, Lake Forest, Illinois							108											G 72								306
Lander College, Greenwood, S. Ca.													a 72													0
La Salle Coll., Philadelphia, Pa.											36															36
Lawrence College, Appleton, Wis.	2 72		54		72		54				90															378
Lebanon Valley Coll., Annville, Pa.				54			54																			108

Name and Location	American Government			English Government	International Law	Diplomacy	World Politics	Jurisprudence or Elements of Law	Commercial Law	Roman Law	Constitutional Law	Administrative Law	Political Theories	Party Government	Colonial Government	Legislative Methods and Par. Pro.	Current Political Problems	Municipal Corporations	Law of Officers and Taxation	Seminar	Additional course	Additional course	Total
	(a) National	(b) State and Local	(c) Municipal																				
Lehigh Univ., South Bethlehem, Pa.	1 54			54	2108				72	54													342
Leland Stanford, Jr., Univ., Stanford Univ., Cal.	54		54	36 108										a 54						36			342
Lenox Coll., Hopkinton, Ia.																							54
Lewisburg Semin., Lewisburg, W. Va.	1 51																						51
Lewis Institute, Chicago, Ill.			60																				60
Lexington Coll. for Young Women, Lexington, Ky.																							0
Liberty College, Glasgow, Ky.																							0
Lincoln College, Lincoln, Ill.																							0
Lincoln Memorial Univ., Harrogate, Tenn.	1 54																						108
Lincoln Un., Lincoln Un., Pa.																							0
Logan Female Coll., Russellville, Ky.																							0

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	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	
Lombard College, Galesburg, Ill.	136			36																		14th Par. Am. Law			72	
Louisiana State Univ., Baton Rouge, La.	48	48	80	a 32	48	48	32			a 32			80	32	48			32				a 32			624	
Loyola Univ., Chicago, Ill.	124			24			30			54	20			24												176
Macatester Coll., St. Paul, Minn.					54		54			54	54															216
Manhattan Coll., N. Y. City	19			57	19	19	a 54				114				a 54											228
Marietta College, Marietta, Ohio				a 108																						216
Maryland Agricultural College, College Park, Md.	172				48	48	48				36															204
Maryville Coll., Maryville, Tenn.					a 110	a 110	a 70					a 70				a 55		G 55								† 470
Massachusetts Agricultural Coll., Amherst, Mass.		8 54			54																					108
Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston, Mass.	30				30	30	15																			135
McKendree Coll., Lebanon, Ill.							72																			72
McMinville Coll., McMinnville, Ore.	160				60	60	60																			240
McPherson Coll., McPherson, Kan.					72																					72
Mechanics Inst., Rochester, N. Y.																										0
Mercer Univer., Macon, Ga.	136			36	36	36	L 18			L 18	L 18	L 18	L 54				15									321

Name and Location	American Government			General Political Science	Comparative Government	English Government	International Law	Diplomacy	World Politics	Jurisprudence or Elements of Law	Commercial Law	Roman Law	Constitutional Law	Administrative Law	Political Theories	Party Government	Colonial Government	Legislative Methods and Par. Pro.	Current Political Problems	Municipal Corporations	Law of Officers and Taxation	Seminar	Additional course	Additional course	Total	
	(a) National	(b) State and Local	(c) Municipal																							
Meredith Coll., Raleigh, N. Ca.																										0
Meridian Womans Coll., Meridian, Miss.	2 108			54																						162
Methodist Univ. of Oklahoma, Guthrie, Okla.				4 108																						108
Miami Univ., Oxford, Ohio	1 102										51								102							255
Michigan Agricultural Coll., East Lansing, Mich.				7 60																						60
Michigan Coll. of Mines, Houghton, Mich.										100	450	250	50													0
Middlebury Coll., Middlebury, Vt.	1 50		50	50	50	50	50																			550
Midland College, Atchison, Kan.	1 72																									72
Milligan College, Milligan, Tenn.	1 72																									72
Mills College, Oakland, Cal.																										162
University of California, Los Angeles	6 54		6 ³ 54																							90
Millsaps College, Jackson, Miss.	1 18				54																					90

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1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
Milton Coll., Mil- ton, Wis.																									54
Milwaukee- Downer Coll., Milwaukee, Wis.																									0
Miss. Agri. and Mech. Coll., Agri. College, Miss.	1 60		60														60								180
Mississippi Coll., Clinton, Miss.					24																				24
Mississippi Indus- trial Inst. and Coll., Colum- bus, Miss.			0 54	0 54																					162
Missouri Valley Coll., Marshall, Mo.	1 54																								72
Missouri Wesley- an Coll., Cam- eron, Mo.						72																			0
Monmouth Coll., Monmouth, Ill.	1 72				72																				216
Montana State School of Mines, Butte, Mont.																									0
Montana State Coll. of Agri. and Mechanic Arts, Bozeman, Mont.																									0
Montana Wesley- an Univ., Hel- ena, Mont.																									54
Moore's Hill Coll., Moore's Hill, Ind.						0 48																			48
Moravian College, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania																						S Pub. Law 38			38

Name and Location	American Government			English Government	International Law	Diplomacy	World Politics	Jurisprudence or Elements of Law	Commercial Law	Roman Law	Constitutional Law	Administrative Law	Political Theories	Party Government	Colonial Government	Legislative Methods and Par. Pro.	Current Political Problems	Municipal Corporations	Law of Officers and Taxation	Seminar	Additional course	Additional course	Total		
	National	State and Local	Municipal																						
																								(a)	(b)
Park Coll., Parkville, Mo.					72																			72	
Parker Coll., Winnebago, Minn.																									0
Parsons College, Fairville, Ia.																									0
George Peabody Col. for Teachers, N'shville, Tenn.																									0
Penn Coll., Oskaloosa, Ia.	a 114																								228
Pennsylvania Col., Gettysburg, Pa.	1 36			32	60				36	36															200
Pennsylvania Col. for Women, Pittsburgh, Pa.					a 24	36																			60
Pennsylvania Military Coll., Chester, Pa.				90																					90
Pennsylvania St. Coll., State College, Pa.	2 51		51	51	51	51			34						51	51									391
Philomath Coll., Philomath, Ore.	1 60			60																					120
Piedmont Coll., Demorest, Ga.																									0
Polytechnic Inst. of Brooklyn, Brooklyn, N. Y.				36																					36

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	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
Pomona Coll., Claremont, Cal.					108		54	54		108		108													432
Port Gibson Female Coll., Port Gibson, Miss.	1									54	54														162
Potomac Univ., Washington, D. C.		hh																							0
Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y.																									0
Presbyterian Col., Red Springs, N. Ca.																									108
Presbyterian Col. of South Carolina, Clinton, S. Ca.				a	72		a	36															C		108
Princeton Univ., Princeton, N. J.	2	54	54	54	108	108	108	108	108	54	54	108	108	54	108										918
Pritchett College, Glasgow, Mo.	1	54			180																				180
Purdue Univ., Lafayette, Ind.	72																								126
Radcliffe Coll., Cambridge, Mass.	1	54	108			54	108			154		54									hh				432
Randolph-Macon Coll., Ashland, Va.	1	54																							54
Randolph-Macon Womens Coll., Lynchburg, Va.	2	48	48	32	32		16	16																	192
Redfield College, Redfield, S. Da.	1	72					72																		216
Rensselaer Polytechnic Inst., Troy, N. Y.																									0
Rhode Island St. Coll., Kingston, R. I.	1	48																							48

Name and Location	American Government			Comparative Government	English Government	International Law	Diplomacy	World Politics	Jurisprudence or Elements of Law	Commercial Law	Roman Law	Constitutional Law	Administrative Law	Political Theories	Party Government	Colonial Government	Legislative Methods and Par. Pro.	Current Political Problems	Municipal Corporations	Law of Officers and Taxation	Seminar	Additional course	Additional course	Total	
	(a) National	(b) State and Local	(c) Municipal																						
Scarritt Morrisville Col., Morrisville, Mo.																									0
Shaw University, Raleigh, N. C.	1									90		120													330
Shorter College, Rome, Ga.																									0
Shurtleff College, Alton, Ill.	60		60	60	60	60	60							60											360
Simmons College, Abilene, Tex.	2			60																					180
Simmons College, Boston, Mass.	18			18																					36
Simpson Coll., Indianola, Ia.	1																								72
Sioux Falls Coll., Sioux Falls, S. Da.	36				36																				0
Smith College, Northampton, Mass.	54	54					36																		144
South Dakota St. Coll., Brookings, S. Da.	2																								144
Southern Univ., Greensboro, Al.																									216
Southwestern College, Winfield, Kan.	1			72										72											288

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25

Name and Location	American Government			General Political Science	Comparative Government	English Government	International Law	Diplomacy	World Politics	Jurisprudence or Elements of Law	Commercial Law	Roman Law	Constitutional Law	Administrative Law	Political Theories	Party Government	Colonial Government	Legislative Methods and Par. Pro.	Current Political Problems	Municipal Corporations	Law of Officers and Taxation	Seminar	Additional course	Additional course	Total	
	American Government																									
	(a) National	(b) State and Local	(c) Municipal																							
Talladega College, Talladega, Ala.	164																									64
Tarkio College, Tarkio, Mo.							a 72																			0
Taylor Univ., Up-land, Ind.	160			a 96																						228
Teachers College, N. Y. City																										0
Teachers Coll. of Indianapolis, Indianapolis, Ind.																										0
Temple Univ., Philadelphia, Pa.	172			72			72									36	72									324
Tennessee Coll., Murfreesboro, Tenn.	172					72																				144
Texas Christian Univ., Fort Worth, Tex.	36		36	36	72	72	48 a 24																			324
Thiel Coll., Greenville, Pa.	160			54	54	54	54				48															330
Throop Coll. of Technology, Pasadena, Cal.	236		36		36						72						60									180
Transylvania Un., Lexington, Ky.	160																60									120

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Name and Location	American Government			General Political Science	Comparative Government	English Government	International Law	Diplomacy	World Politics	Jurisprudence or Elements of Law	Commercial Law	Roman Law	Constitutional Law	Administrative Law	Political Theories	Party Government	Colonial Government	Legislative Methods and Par. Pro.	Current Political Problems	Municipal Corporations	Law of Officers and Taxation	Seminar	Additional course	Additional course	Total		
	(a) National	(b) State and Local	(c) Municipal																								
Univ. of Chicago,	a 88		88	44	44		44	w 88	44	44	162	44	88	44	88	44	44	44	44	44	44					1042	
Chicago, Ill.																											
Univ. of Cincinnati,	1 108		108	54	54		54				108		a 36	44	72	a 36		a 36				72				684	
Ohio																											
Univ. of Colorado,	54	54	90	54	54		a 36	a 36	L 50				88	44	44											410	
Boulder, Colo.																											
Univ. of Denver,	1 54		36	54	54		36	36				54	54				36									342	
Denver, Colo.																											
Univ. of Detroit,	hh			a 51	a 51		a 51	a 51																		255	
Detroit, Mich.																											
Univ. of Florida,	a 102			108	108																					108	
Gainesville, Fla.																											
Univ. of Georgia,	1 54			54	54																					522	
Athens, Ga.																											
Univ. of Idaho,																											
Moscow, Ida.																											
University of Illinois,	108	144	108	54	54		54	a 108					108	54	72	36										1206	
Urbana, Illinois																											
Univ. of Kansas,	1 90		54	54	54		36																			648	
Lawrence, Kan.																											
Univ. of Louisville,																											
Louisville, Ky.																											0

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	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	
Univ. of Maine, Orono, Me.	1 90		36		54	54	36				54														324	
University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich-	27	81	180		54	54	54	54	90	54	54	36	54		108	27	54	36			72	36				1098
Univ. of Miss., Oxford, Miss.	2 72				72			H 72																		216
Univ. of Minn., Minneapolis, Minn.	1 51	51	51		102		51	51	51	51	102	51	51	51	51	51	51	51			102	51				1071
Univ. of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.	1 96	a 32	32	48	48	a 48	48	32	32	32			96	a 64	a 32	a 48				32	64					752
Univ. of Mont., Missoula, Mont.	1 36	3 36		54	54																					180
Univ., of Neb., Lincoln, Neb.	54	126	54	54	54	a 54	54							54	a 54	54	72	72			180					864
Univ. of Nevada, Reno Nev.				4 72			54		54																	180
Univ. of N. Mex., Albuquerque, N. M.	2 54	a 54	a 54	a 54	a 54											a 54										324
Univ. of N. Car., Chapel Hill, N. C.	1 108		72			72																				252
Univ. of N. Dak., Grand Forks, N. D.	2 72		72	4 144							72		54					72								486
Univ. of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, Ind.	1 72			72			36																			180
Univ. of Okla., Norman, Okla.	1 72	72	36	72	72	72	72	72	36				36	36		36						36				540
Univ. of Omaha, Omaha, Neb.	2 72						72	72	36																	180
Univ. of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.	2 54	a 36	36		54		54	a 36	54				54	a 36				a 54			54					522

Name and Location	American Government			General Political Science	Comparative Government	English Government	International Law	Diplomacy	World Politics	Jurisprudence or Elements of Law	Commercial Law	Roman Law	Constitutional Law	Administrative Law	Political Theories	Party Government	Colonial Government	Legislative Methods and Par. Pro.	Current Political Problems	Municipal Corporations	Law of Officers and Taxation	Seminar	Additional course	Additional course	Total		
	(a) National	(b) State and Local	(c) Municipal																								
Van Buren Coll., Van Buren, Me.	1 54										54															108	
Vanderbilt Univ., Nashville, Ten.			54																								54
Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.	2 51		51	51	102	51	51	51	51	51																	459
Virginia Coll. for Young Women, Roanoke, Va.																											0
Virginia Union Univ., Richmond, Va.																											0
Villanova Coll., Villanova, Pa.	1 36			36																							72
Vincennes Univ., Vincennes, Ind.																											0
Virginia Christian Coll., Lynchburg, Va.																											0
Virginia Military Inst., Lexington, Va.	1 18				18	18	54				54																162
Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg, Va.	hh																										
Wabash College, Crawfordsville, Ind.	48				48		5 48																				144

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Name and Location	American Government			General Political Science	Comparative Government	English Government	International Law	Diplomacy	World Politics	Jurisprudence or Elements of Law	Commercial Law	Roman Law	Constitutional Law	Administrative Law	Political Theories	Party Government	Colonial Government	Legislative Methods and Par. Pro.	Current Political Problems	Municipal Corporations	Law of Officers and Taxation	Seminar	Additional course	Additional course	Total		
	(a)	(b)	(c)																								
	National	State and Local	Municipal																								
Western Reserve Univ., Cleveland, Ohio	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54								54	54		108							648	
Westfield College, Westfield, Ill.																											0
Westminster Col., Fulton, Mo.	45			60							60																165
Westminster Col., New Wilmington, Pa.				54			54	36										36									180
Westminster Col., Tehuacana, Tex.	160			102			36																				198
Westminster Col., Westminster, Colo.																											0
West Va. Univ., Morgantown, W. Va.	36			36	36	36	36	36		36												72					1342
W. Va. Wesleyan Coll., Buckhannon, W. Va.	36			42	36		36																				186
Wheaton Coll., Wheaton, Ill.				54																							54
Whitman Coll., Walla Walla, Wn.	54	54	54	108			54			54												36					1612
Whittier College, Whittier, Cal.	144																										144

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25

EXPLANATORY NOTES ON TABLE OF COURSES

1. National, state, local and municipal government combined.
 2. National, state and local government combined.
 3. State, local and municipal government combined.
 4. General political science and comparative government combined.
 5. International law and diplomacy combined.
 6. Jurisprudence and Roman law combined.
 7. Economics and Political Science combined.
 - a. Given in alternate years.
 - a³ or 4. Offered each third or fourth year.
 - h. Course offered for which hours were not indicated.
 - l. Legal systems of England and United States.
 - w. Given when called for.
 - A. Advanced students admitted to courses in Columbia University.
 - B. Offers elementary course as an introduction to Political Science, Economics and Sociology.
 - C. Offers course in training for citizenship.
 - D. Courses offered in Law School to which undergraduates are admitted.
 - E. Offered in department of Economics.
 - G. Special emphasis on Parliamentary Law.
 - H. Offered in department of History.
 - I. Students admitted to courses in Vanderbilt University.
 - J. Courses offered in Columbia University.
 - K. Courses will be offered beginning 1915.
 - L. Offered in Law department.
 - M. Offers courses to graduate students only.
 - S. Special attention given to the study of government in courses in History, Economics, etc.
- * Additional courses:
1. State University of Iowa
 - a. Political and Legal Status of Women 72 hours
 - b. Iowa History and Politics 36
 2. University of California
 - a. Government of California
 - b. Government of Mexico 72
 - c. Government of Philippines 72
 3. University of Wisconsin
 - a. Seminar National Administration 36
 - b. Seminar Municipal Administration 36
 - c. Public Utilities 54
 - d. Political and Legal Status of Women 36
 - e. Law of the Press 36
 - f. Teacher's Course 36

† This institution offers each year approximately one-half of the courses announced.

III. Observations and Conclusions.

1. *Inadequate Provisions for Government Instruction.*

One hundred and eleven colleges and universities offer no courses in any of the subjects included in the tabulation. It may be assumed also that the majority of institutions which failed to respond to the inquiries of the committee, 99 in number, are to be considered as within this class. In these institutions, except for the frequent assurances from presidents and heads of other departments that government and politics are adequately treated under economics, sociology or history there is no special consideration whatever given to the subject of political science; 224 institutions offer courses totalling less than 200 hours (i. e., two courses of three hours throughout the year), and consequently may be classed as not recognizing political science as deserving of a place in the curriculum as a distinct department. As a rule the subject in such colleges is combined with history, economics or sociology or some other department and only a few elementary courses may find place in an already over-crowded schedule for one instructor. The first and second classes comprise the institutions which give sufficient attention to the subject to warrant a separate department, but out of a total of 177 schools in this class only 40 separate the department of political science from history, economics, sociology, ethics or philosophy. In view of these facts it may well be asked whether the colleges are equipped to train for citizenship, to prepare teachers of government or to prepare for the professions which require an intimate knowledge of governmental affairs. The demands of an awakened social conscience and the heavy responsibilities cast upon the electorate through the spread of direct democracy would seem to require greater consideration for the group of subjects comprised under government or political science than is now given in any but a small percentage of colleges and universities.

A large number of institutions which either offer no courses

or announce less than 200 hours is made up of women's colleges, colleges of mines, agricultural colleges, schools of technology, and small denominational colleges, in some instances with less than one hundred students in the undergraduate department of arts and sciences. Women's colleges, it may be claimed, are not likely to have any special demand for instruction in government and political affairs, and consequently there are good reasons for excluding this group of subjects from the ordinary woman's college. However, not a few of the large colleges for women have found sufficient interest and enthusiasm in public affairs to offer some very thorough courses in political institutions. In some notable instances the colleges for women have given a recognition to these courses which many of the colleges for men might well emulate. There scarcely seems to be any justification to-day for the entire omission of courses in government from any college for women which has an undergraduate department of collegiate grade. There are many indications that courses in political science have rightfully made their way into the colleges for women, and the time is apparently not far distant when those in charge of colleges of this type will give matters relating to government much greater consideration.

Colleges of mines, agricultural colleges, and schools of technology form a group under which the courses offered must be scientific and practical. These schools are primarily designed to prepare for one of the professions or vocations, and there seems to be neither time nor occasion to give attention to such an impractical matter as government. If one may judge from the utter neglect of the study of political affairs in many such schools it appears that there is at present no recognition of the fact that the incipient miner, farmer or engineer may be called upon to take an interest in the affairs of his country. Nor does there seem to be any thought that it might be worth while to learn of the responsibilities and duties of social beings as well as of ways and means to earn a livelihood. That the miner, the

farmer and the engineer should receive training along the line of their duties and responsibilities as social beings and citizens seems scarcely less imperative than that they should be trained as efficient producers. There is ample evidence that the efficient producer without a social conscience has worked much havoc and injury. If society is to be protected and its best interests conserved, the scientific, industrial, and so-called practical schools must find both time and opportunity to give instruction in economics, sociology and political science. Both economics and sociology have slowly made their way into many of the technical and vocational schools. A few technical schools and agricultural colleges have introduced the important elementary courses in government, and there is no indication that the standard of work in technology has suffered particularly because the curriculum has been enriched by courses in political and social affairs. A statement from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology indicates the type of instruction offered in one of the largest technical schools.

For admission and for graduation, a considerable amount of non-professional training is provided for, on the theory that the institution is equipping its graduates for citizenship as well as for engineering, chemistry, and architecture.

So far as government is concerned, the countries taken up are the United States, and typical leading European forms, especially England, France, and Germany, with slight attention to Switzerland. The emphasis is laid upon government; the history side is mainly directed to tracing the origin and development of existing institutions. So much is required of all. Furthermore, as already mentioned, there are third-year electives, in which "students are allowed to exercise entire freedom of choice," though as a matter of fact more than one-half of the class elect one or more of the subjects in the field of government. These courses, at present, are international law, municipal government, and current public problems.¹

¹ Furnished by Professor C. F. A. Currier, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

It remains to be seen whether society as organized in its legislatures, courts and administrative agencies will become a matter of sufficient significance to be given some consideration in all of the technical schools and may be deemed worthy of more attention by that group of institutions which depend almost entirely upon the state for existence.

The small denominational schools frequently do not have large enough faculties or enough students in the collegiate department to offer courses in political science. For schools of this sort the students are fortunate to get a mere introduction to the study of public affairs in the departments of history and economics or perchance in the department of philosophy. Many colleges would find it neither advisable nor practicable to establish a separate department in political science. But none can afford to neglect the duty of providing adequate instruction in the elementary principles and practice of government. An instructor in one of the small denominational schools makes the apology that since he is obliged to teach "nearly all of the history, the economics, and much of the Bible work" he can offer only one brief course in political science. For this situation there seems to be no remedy other than the fostering of a public sentiment which will require that these institutions cease pretending to offer four years of college work or that they raise their standard by such increase of endowment as will provide for a larger faculty and better facilities for advanced instruction.

2. *The Function of College Instruction.*

Departments of Political Science are called upon to perform services of three distinct types: (1) to train for citizenship; (2) to prepare for professions, such as the law, journalism, teaching and the public service; (3) to train experts and to prepare specialists for government positions. For the universities a fourth group might be added including courses primarily intended to train for research work. Universities alone can properly plan

to prepare government experts, who in many instances must receive specialized instruction such as the departments of political science can offer only in part. Courses designed to prepare for research must also be left largely, if not entirely, with the universities.

The function of college instruction in politics is to train for citizenship as well as to train for the professions. In performing this function colleges too frequently confine attention almost exclusively to the theories of the origin of the state and the nature of law and sovereignty, in fact, to a consideration of abstract notions and principles which find scant place in the actual operation of governmental affairs. Much of what is comprehended in these abstract discussions is based upon theories of law and jurisprudence which modern publicists are prone to condemn. However, it is very gratifying to find a marked increase in the attention to Staatslehre, to state-theory in contrast with state-practice. The history of political ideas, as well as wrangling over such terms as sovereignty, liberty and law, ought to be encouraged rather than discouraged. But there are indications that political science, in some quarters at least, has been too strictly confined to theories about civil society and too little concerned with political affairs as they are. Students of politics like those of other fields have been inclined to philosophize and work out abstract principles rather than to search laboriously the records and activities of society in its myriad and complex operations. It is not proposed that less attention be given to political theory for this subject eminently deserves the emphasis given it, as a rule, in college courses, but it is rather proposed that the work in political science be expanded so as to complement the theory and the abstract discussions with fuller consideration of the actual working of political institutions.

Political science is scarcely old enough, particularly as pursued in the United States, to attain to the standard of a well developed

science. The catalogues of our larger universities prior to 1890 seldom recognized political science as a department but announced a few courses in government under the division of history or of political economy. It is slightly more than thirty years ago that the first schools of political science were opened. In view of the short time the study of government has received any attention or recognition from college authorities the present status of the subject and the rapid expansion of courses in the higher institutions is nothing short of remarkable.

The returns from the colleges indicate several significant facts, the most striking, perhaps, being an earnest desire on the part of teachers to inaugurate courses in political science where such courses are not given and to enlarge the work where such instruction is now provided. In letters accompanying some of the reports this fact was particularly emphasized and in several instances presidents of institutions took occasion to make it clear that efforts were being made to offer courses in political science or to enlarge or improve those already offered. During the years that the committee has been at work a considerable number of institutions have increased the quota of hours devoted to the subject whereas comparatively a very few have reduced the hours formerly scheduled. There is no doubt that there is a widespread and growing sentiment among teachers, college authorities, and, in fact, the public generally, that, of all things, the student should have, on leaving college, a knowledge of his country's political institutions, their history and their actual operation.

But much remains to be accomplished to give instruction in government a rightful place in many institutions which now ignore the subject entirely. The character of some instruction that passes under the title needs to be considerably improved to be worthy of more consideration by men of affairs. And some readjustments of emphasis and proportions must be made in

political science to keep pace with the rapid strides in other branches within the general group of social sciences.

3. Attendance in Courses.

Institutions reporting—150¹

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Institutions</i>	<i>Total Enrollment</i>	<i>Average</i>
American Government	120	6,107	51-
Comparative Government	67	2,750	41
General Political Science	45	992	22
International Law	55	1,422	26-
Jurisprudence	22	753	34
Constitutional Law	29	1,091	38-
Commercial Law	9	620	69
Political Theories	11	156	14
Municipal Government	38	1,163	31-
Party Government	15	473	31
State Government	3	170	37
		15,697	

Judging by the number of institutions reporting courses in American government and the high average of the classes it appears that this subject is growing in favor as the basic elementary course in the department. Comparative government shares with American government in favor as an elementary course although less than one-third as many students in a few more than half the number of institutions are registered in this course. The small colleges frequently give an elementary course in political theory, which accounts chiefly for the total of 992 students enrolled in 45 institutions in the subject designated as general political science. Courses in political theory are not as popular with instructors or with students as formerly. When political science was first introduced into the college curriculum the work was almost always begun with a course in political

¹The majority of schools which submitted reports on attendance were large universities or old and well endowed colleges.

theory. Now the tendency is to offer instead practical courses in American government, comparative government or municipal government. But in most of these courses some attention is given to political theory. Advanced courses in political theory are given as a rule in the universities to small groups of graduate and undergraduate students. Jurisprudence, constitutional law and commercial law are offered chiefly in the universities and usually to large classes.

A subject gaining in popularity and interest is that of municipal government, now offered in many colleges and reaching more than a thousand students in 38 institutions. The growing emphasis upon the study of functions and government in operation will no doubt aid in giving greater prominence to this course. International law ranks third as to number of institutions offering the subject, but the total of 1,422 students enrolled in 55 schools indicates that with but few exceptions the subject is given to comparatively small classes. The course is offered frequently in alternate years and is as a rule elective with the result that "a relatively small percentage of the students actually elect international law as a subject of study."¹ According to the report of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace in 144 institutions in which international law was taught in 1911-12 only 3,646 students were enrolled or only $\frac{3}{10}$ per cent of the students which were enrolled in those institutions.²

The total enrollment in eleven subjects, 15,697 in the undergraduate courses of 150 colleges and universities, indicates that political science is appealing to large groups of students. This enrollment is particularly gratifying because of the fact that courses in the department are almost invariably elective, and as a rule they are given only to advanced students. The sub-

¹ Report on the teaching of international law in the educational institutions of the United States prepared by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, April 18, 1913, p. 6.

² *Ibid.*, p. 29. This report should be consulted for an exhaustive report on the teaching of international law.

jects are usually offered in the sophomore, junior and senior years and frequently are open only to juniors and seniors. But there are many evidences to lead to the conclusion that these subjects have not been given the consideration due them. When institutions with more than one thousand students enroll less than twenty in government courses and these are public institutions supported largely by state funds, it leads to the inquiry whether something in the nature of a civic awakening in our educational institutions is not in order. Furthermore, the schools reporting constitute a majority of those having strong and well planned courses in political science, and the results would be far less satisfactory if statistics were secured from all of the colleges. Is it not time that educators at least ask the question whether it is desirable that the great majority of college graduates leave their institutions without so much as completing a single course of study devoted to their own political institutions or those of foreign countries?

4. *Text-books.*

Courses in political science have been made possible in small institutions and have been improved in large institutions by the recent appearance of good text-books. The lines on which more adequate and thorough guides should be prepared are state and local government and modern European governments. A majority of works now in use covering European institutions give most attention to political and constitutional history, with the result that the analysis of present day political customs and practices necessarily suffers. Moreover, texts almost invariably slight the administrative phase of government and the judicial department. In these as well as in other lines there will remain gaps which for many instructors cannot be filled until better texts and practical guides are prepared. For courses in elements of law or jurisprudence there is no good text adapted for use in college classes. There are those who question the advisability

of attempting to teach this subject to college students, and it certainly is open to question whether much that passes as jurisprudence is not either beyond the comprehension of the undergraduate or made up of material which more properly belongs to philosophy or ethics. The course in elements of law or jurisprudence is one of the problems of the college department of political science. Far too little emphasis is given in courses for undergraduates to the fact that government is a legal mechanism, and very often no attempt is made to connect up the study of political affairs with legal foundations. It is quite clear that some work should be given by way of an introductory study to law. What should be the content of this course, how and to whom it should be taught, are questions which are far from any satisfactory answer.

Very few courses are given in the small colleges which are not based primarily on texts, and the consensus of opinion among instructors is that this is the best method of conducting classes. As a rule the course in political science consists of a close study of one or two texts with some library work and class discussion upon the basis of reports made by students. In a few institutions the texts are of high school grade, but for the most part they are standard college works. One result of the reliance on text-books is inadequate attention to local government, since the authors deal very briefly with this field and the average instructor has very little time or inclination to develop a course without a text.

5. *Methods of Instruction.*

Methods of instruction in the universities vary considerably according to the size of the institution and the number in the class. In the preliminary courses, as a general rule, the system of informal lectures is combined with reports and quizzes. The case book plan is extensively employed in the courses in public and business law. In all the advanced courses the students are obliged to carry on independent work under the supervision of

the instructor. The seminar has been found most successful in developing a keen interest among seniors and graduate students in many of the problems of politics.

In the elementary courses with large classes the following methods are typical of replies to the committee's inquiry:

Brown University: Lectures, readings assigned and papers.

Columbia University: Lectures, papers and readings.

Grinnell College: Lecture and text-book method combined with reports.

New York University: Informal lectures, recitations, discussions and papers.

Princeton University: Lectures, extensive readings and reports; conferences with small groups of students.

University of California: Lectures, papers and readings.

University of Nebraska: Lectures, recitations, papers and sectional conferences.

Williams College: Lectures, oral and written recitations, classroom discussions, readings on special topics.

Where classes are small and the work offered is more elementary it is customary to rely largely on text-books and recitations with a limited amount of special readings and occasional class reports. Frequently the number of class hours allotted to such subjects as American government, comparative government, and introductory political science are so few that it is quite impossible to do justice to a good text-book, let alone to attempt extensive readings. One of the imperative needs for the improvement of instruction in these subjects is to increase the time allotment so that more thorough and intensive work can be done.

A large number of institutions are offering courses in current problems and political issues. As a part of these courses lectures are frequently given by men prominent in public life. Cornell University has recently established such a course with the prime purpose of training for citizenship. The lectures are given by men of affairs and are designed to create a vital interest in the duties and responsibilities of citizens. The course proved to be

such a success that it is to be continued and placed on a permanent basis.

6. *Types of Courses.*

Four types of courses are comprised within the range of departments of political science. The first of these to be developed and now offered in most institutions giving instruction in political science is one of a descriptive character dealing with the organization and operation of American and European governments. In some of these courses ancient and modern governments are considered first and the preliminary work is made the basis for a study of the American system of government. The history of modern forms of government and their present organization, chiefly from the constitutional point of view, is the chief object of such courses. Second, there is a type of course which first presents the theory of the state (*Allgemeine Staatslehre*) and deals with the conception of the state, its basis, the form of its constitution, and sovereignty. In these courses the consideration of theories and political principles is followed by a comparative study of the departments of government, executive, legislative, judicial, and by an analysis of the ends and aims of the state. The philosophy and underlying principles of the state are presented as well as some notion of the forms of organization. A third kind of course is one which is primarily confined to a study of functions rather than organization. Such courses, although involving comparative features, are more often frankly confined to a study of one system of government, and matters of form and organization of public authority are subordinated to that of functional activities.

A fourth type of course comprises the work offered in constitutional law, administrative law, international law, commercial law, Roman law, elements of law and jurisprudence. These courses mark the dividing line where the technical phases of law merge into the realm of public policy, ethics and custom,

and thus constitute a common vicinage in which the departments of law and political science are equally interested and involved. In connection with these courses the question arises whether they should not be offered primarily as law courses to which advanced undergraduates might be admitted instead of being offered under departments of political science and admitting law students. Each arrangement has some distinct advantages in its favor, but there is no indication of any uniformity in practice, with the result that the relation between departments of political science and departments of law is one of the difficult problems of university instruction in government and law. It seems that in some of these subjects it will be necessary and advisable to offer courses both in the law school and in the department of political science and that others should be offered in only one department with an arrangement for admission of qualified students from the other. The matter deserves careful consideration and involves a plan of adjustment which should receive early attention by the Political Science Association and the Association of American Law Schools.

7. Suggestions for the Improvement of Instruction.

In one of the questionnaires distributed by the committee instructors were asked to give suggestions as to ways and methods by which instruction in government might be improved. Among the suggestions commonly urged were the following:

1. That the department of political science be separated from other departments of instruction and not treated as a mere appendage to history or economics.

2. That the Political Science Review be made more definitely a medium of information to keep teachers abreast of important changes in the realm of politics.

3. That a full year be given to the study of American government.

4. That departments establish research bureaus and aim to

keep in touch with government in actual operation in townships, cities, counties, state and nation, and that students be trained to study definite problems.

5. That more frequent use be made of newspapers and periodicals for illustrations of the dynamics of government.

6. That texts be prepared which give more emphasis to functions and statistics and deal more fully with state and local government. Good outlines should also be prepared with suggestions for gathering and using concrete material, and for doing observational and practical work.

7. That laboratory work and the assignment of practical problems for student reports should be more largely used by all instructors in political science.

8. That better provision be made for the training of teachers in this subject.

9. That much could be gained by standardizing many of the courses and grading them as elementary, advanced and graduate in character. The Association should prepare a program of study and text writers should conform to this program instead of allowing the scope and arrangement of courses to be largely determined by the most popular text writers.

10. That civics in secondary schools should be placed on a better basis and broadened so as to include economics and sociology.

At a conference arranged by Professor Horack and held at Iowa City in July, 1914, the following conclusions were adopted:

1. The conference agreed that there ought to be a fundamental introductory course—a course relating to human origins and evolution was favored.

2. It was likewise the opinion of the conference that a course in history as history is ordinarily taught would not serve as an adequate introduction to political science.

3. The conference agreed that departments of political science should teach American constitutional law and that the term

constitutional as applied to courses in American history had better be dropped altogether.

4. The conference was agreed that courses in political science should be open to Freshmen.

5. It was also agreed that a course in American Government, if made the basic course, should be illuminated by illustrations drawn from contemporary politics and comparative government.

IV. Recommendations for the Improvement of College Instruction.

In view of the difficulties involved in making recommendations which may be applied to the great variety of conditions to be met in the many colleges of the United States, the committee found considerable difficulty in carrying out the second object of its appointment—that of suggesting means for enlarging and improving instruction. It is of course quite evident that no standard plan of courses and no uniform method of instruction can be devised for the many types of colleges and universities. That something like a standard type of course has been worked out for certain groups of universities and colleges is, however, plainly evident. The committee certainly disclaims any intention to prescribe a standard plan of courses in political science. A few recommendations, however, are offered, which are intended primarily to afford guidance to the smaller colleges and to those institutions in which government is merely beginning to receive adequate attention.

It is well to emphasize at this point that the committee has aimed in all of its conclusions to gather and formulate the consensus of opinion among those who are vitally interested in the improvement of political science instruction. Every effort has been made through questionnaires, correspondence and other available avenues of information to gather opinions and to present the mature judgment of those qualified to speak from

experience. No pains have been spared to eliminate personal views and predilections and to present in such conclusions as are offered the clearly formulated opinion of representative groups of instructors.

Definition of Political Science.

For the purpose of its report the committee considered the following courses as comprising, in the main, the scope of political science:

- A. Descriptive and historical.
 - 1. American government.
 - a. National.
 - b. State and local.
 - c. Municipal.
 - 2. Comparative government.
 - 3. Party government.
 - 4. Colonial government.
 - 5. Diplomacy.
- B. Theoretic.
 - 1. General political science.
 - 2. Political theories and history of political literature.
- C. Legal.
 - 1. Constitutional law.
 - 2. International law.
 - 3. Elements of law and jurisprudence.
 - 4. Commercial law.
- D. Advanced courses.
 - 1. Constitutional relations.
 - 2. Legislation and legislative procedure.
 - 3. Public administration and administrative methods.
 - 4. Foreign relations.
 - 5. Theory.
 - 6. Law.¹

¹ In the preparation of this table the committee is specially indebted to Professors Schaper of the University of Minnesota and Freund of the University of Chicago for suggestions.

At the outset of its investigations the committee was informed on good authority that there is no such thing as political science, and as the work of examining college catalogues progressed the truth of this observation became painfully apparent. Many colleges and a few universities seem disposed to use the term in designating the group of courses offered in economics and sociology, with little or no attention given to the courses outlined above. In other instances political science is used in a very comprehensive sense, covering courses offered in history, economics, politics, public law and sociology. With the exception of a tendency toward uniformity in the courses announced by a few colleges and the larger universities there is a marked lack of agreement as to the meaning of the term political science. An illustration of this is shown where an institution with courses in political science, as defined by the committee, offers these courses under the heading public law and administration and uses the term political science to designate work given in economics and sociology. A standard and acceptable definition of political science seems difficult to formulate. But however difficult it may be to define the term it is fundamental at the outset that there be an agreement as to what courses are comprehended within the field. A more definite agreement as to what constitutes political science, and a more aggressive insistence on the necessity of distinguishing these courses from other groups, seem to be the prerequisite to secure recognition for the subject as worthy of a place in the colleges as a distinct department.

1. *That courses in political science be separated from courses in history, economics and sociology.*

In approximately 300 institutions, the following results were obtained regarding the relation of political science to other subjects:

Separate department of political science	38
Combined with history	89
Combined with economics	22

Combined with sociology	4
Combined with history and economics	48
Combined with economics and sociology	45
Combined with economics, history and sociology	21
Combined with philosophy	3
Combined with economics, history and philosophy	3
Combined with economics, history and English	4
Combined with economics and English	1
Combined with Latin	1
History, political science, and director of athletics	2

Combinations such as the following were made in some of the smaller institutions, the department including one or more courses in political science: history, civics, physical and moral science; English Bible, philosophy, pedagogy, sociology and evidences of Christianity; economics, sociology, international law and Bible; exegesis, history and civics; political science, economics, philosophy and psychology; education, philosophy, religion and social science.

It is apparent from this table that very few instructors in political science give their entire time and attention to the subject. Consequently the great majority of teachers are obliged to devote the major portion of their energies to another subject and to grant only an incidental interest and emphasis to courses in government. Some exceedingly valuable courses are offered under this plan and there are some advantages in the point of view that comes from the necessity of keeping in close touch with more than one field. But recognizing that when a man offers courses in history and economics he is not thereby disqualified for the giving of political science instruction, and making due allowance for the advantage that comes from the survey of other fields, it is undoubtedly true that political science instruction will not be placed on a plane to be compared with that of other departments until colleges give that consideration to the field which will demand the full time and energy of one man, at least. The small colleges can only set up this standard as a

goal toward which to lay plans. But an increasing number of colleges are not only providing for courses which require the time of one instructor, but, as in the case of history, economics and other departments, they are providing additional instructors to take care of the increase in student enrollment and to offer courses for which there is an evident need.

Furthermore, the arrangement to combine political science with other departments requires that an instructor who has received special training almost entirely in another field must prepare courses along a line in which he has had no particular preparation. As a consequence much of so-called political science is either political history or the economic foundations of government. Both of these subjects are important and it is right that much attention be given to them, but political science instruction almost invariably suffers when offered by one whose primary interest and preparation are essentially in another field. The committee does not wish to be misunderstood on this point. They regard it as eminently desirable and necessary that there be full and frank coöperation among the departments of history, economics, sociology and political science. What is desired in the recommendation is more especially that the courses in political science be organized as a distinct group constituting a department, and that an effort be made to provide that they be offered by an instructor whose interest and training specially qualify him for work in this field.

It is a pleasure to report that a marked tendency in this direction is noticeable among the larger colleges and universities, and it is to be hoped that the time is not far distant when political science will have a recognized place and a reputable standing alongside of older subjects in the college curriculum.

There is a justifiable revolt against the seemingly endless growth of departments and the sometimes unwarranted tendency to add highly technical and advanced courses in a department. But if there are any good reasons for not according an independ-

ent status to courses in government and law these reasons have not been forthcoming. That those whose business it is to teach political science almost invariably favor the expansion of their departments is only to be expected. The encouraging thing is that men of affairs in business and government, as well as those in other avenues of life, join with the specialists in political science in urging upon administrative authorities the necessity of more and better courses of instruction in government.

Fortunately the time has passed when the devotees of this branch of learning must needs beg for scant courtesies at the hands of those who guard the avenues of intellectual advance. The liberalizing culture of the study of political literature and public affairs, as well as the service rendered by departments of government, have not only restored the science of politics to its former place but have also called forth new avenues of growth, new fields of endeavor. A prestige which will not long be unnoticed in any school of learning which values its function as an educative force in a democracy bids fair to place the study of government on a firm footing as an indispensable feature of every college curriculum.

2. That a full year's course in American government be given as the basic course for undergraduates and that whenever practicable some illustrative material and suggestive comparisons with foreign governments be presented.

A summary of attendance in courses in 150 institutions shows that American government is far in the lead as a basis for advanced work in the department. Comparative government, introductory courses in political science and international law are the other subjects which are used to introduce students to subsequent work. But the three of these as offered in introductory courses are not selected in as many institutions as American government and are given to a considerably smaller number of students. It may be taken therefore as rather clearly determined that some form of instruction in American govern-

ment shall be the basic course. This course is usually elective and is open to students of sophomore grade.

A matter which is receiving some attention is whether this or another course in government ought to be open to freshmen. While a few schools have admitted freshmen to the course and while there are some strong reasons in favor of this practice the prevailing sentiment for the present, at least, favors the requirement of a year's work in college as a prerequisite.

The present standard of instruction could of course be changed so as to adapt the material and methods to meet the needs of freshmen. But in view of the fact that most of the large high schools are now giving a half year or a year to this subject on somewhat the same plan as would be necessary in a first year college course, it seems better from the standpoint of the student as well as of the department to defer the introductory course until the second collegiate year. In states where but few students have an opportunity to pursue the study of civics in high schools or where the instruction is of the formal or perfunctory kind there is more cogency to the argument in favor of a freshman course.

When instruction in government begins in the sophomore year the question arises whether any course shall be made a prerequisite for the election of the subject or whether a certain number of credits alone shall be sufficient. The general rule does not favor any prerequisite. Some institutions, however, require the selection of a course in history, whereas others strongly advise the taking of a preliminary course in this subject. A few colleges are offering to freshmen with a fair degree of success an introductory course in the social sciences—a kind of gateway course to economics, sociology and political science. No satisfactory text or handbook for this type of course has yet been prepared. In fact it is doubtful whether such a text is within the limits of practicability on account of the diversity of fields and the difficulty of condensing the underlying principles of any one of

the above subjects. For the present such a course depends too much upon the individual predilections of the instructor and is likely to comprehend an effervescence of principles which fails to meet the approval of any of the three departments concerned.

The most noteworthy objection to the present arrangement and one that has influential advocates is that only a small percentage of the student body can elect this course under the conditions which prevail in the selection of subjects, and that the majority of those who do choose the course never have an opportunity to continue the study of government. Consequently it follows that of the small percentage of those who strive to gain some knowledge of political affairs only a minor portion ever go far enough to get any knowledge of foreign governments. Hence the present system is designed to foster an inordinate provincialism which has been one of the banes of our national life. If the citizen-to-be has an opportunity to take but one year's work in government it is thought by many that this one course should provide instruction in comparative government to supply a broader basis of information than would the study of American government alone. As the study of government is introduced in the grades and a thorough and effective course is offered in the high school the committee is inclined to the opinion that it will become increasingly practicable to introduce the comparative method in introductory courses.

The information available to the committee sheds very little light on the sequence of courses in different institutions. In fact, it is doubtful whether anything like a regular sequence of courses is followed in directing the election of subjects in the department. As a rule all of the courses are elective and frequently are open only to juniors and seniors. In a few instances one course is prescribed and usually one of the courses is made a prerequisite to the election of subsequent work. American government, general political science, and comparative government are the courses which are usually prescribed or are required as

prerequisite for the election of advanced work. It is believed in some quarters that the basic course should be in the field of general political science; i. e., a study of Staatslehre, in others the comparative study of European systems, and in others that the introduction to political science should come through careful analysis of the American system.

The committee, however, recommends that American government be taken as the basis for the introductory course because it is convinced that there is an imperative need for a more thorough study of American institutions, because the opportunity for this study is not now offered in any but a few of the best secondary schools, and because it is exceedingly important that the attention of an undergraduate be directed early in his course to a vital personal interest in his own government, national, state, and local. Instruction in political science is rarely given until the second or third year of the college work, and thus unless American government is selected for the first course only a small percentage of students receive encouragement and direction in the study of political affairs with which they will constantly be expected to deal in their ordinary relations as citizens. But the committee believes that this study of American government can be distinctly vitalized by the introduction of such comparisons with European practices and forms as will strengthen the force of criticisms of our present weaknesses, and will supply the student with a broader basis of philosophical conclusions as to constitutional development and administrative practices.

The committee is of the opinion that, despite the very marked increase of courses in American government within the past few years, one of the immediate needs is the further extension and enlargement of these courses. In only a few institutions is enough time given to the subject to permit anything more than the most cursory survey of the various features of the government, and almost invariably state and local government suffer

in the cutting process which is necessary. About seventy institutions only give courses in which state and local government are the basis of special study. In order that state and local government shall be given more consideration, and in order that judicial procedure and administrative methods shall receive more than passing notice, it is absolutely necessary that the time allotted to American government be increased. Nothing short of a full year of at least three hours a week gives the necessary time and opportunity to do anything like full justice to the national, state and local units.

There is a great diversity of opinion and practice with respect to the elementary courses now offered. In order to show the variety of conditions which prevails a brief statement as to the content and method pursued in the beginning course in some representative colleges and universities is given.

AMHERST COLLEGE

The elementary course in political science in Amherst College is a course in American government running throughout the year, 36 weeks, three hours each week. As text-books we use Beard's "American Government and Politics," and Young's "The New American Government and Its Work," together with extensive collateral reading, sources, cases, etc. We give this course as the first course in the department because we consider it the most valuable for those men who take no further courses in political science, and because a thorough knowledge of our own governmental system serves as a good basis for a comparative study of governments in other states or for an intensive study of a more specialized field in government. The chief difficulty that confronts us is the need for a knowledge of the elements of political theory in order to discuss some phases of the American federal system, constitutional law, and court decisions. From this point of view a general course in political science is useful. We try to remedy this by giving in the freshman year a general course introductory to history, political science, economics, and ethics. In this course the nature of the social sciences, their relations, their fundamental concepts and problems are pointed out.¹

¹ Furnished by R. G. Gettell.

DARTMOUTH COLLEGE

The elementary course in political science at Dartmouth College is organized primarily for training in intelligent and effective citizenship. The course covers a period of one year and is open to seniors and juniors, and to sophomores who have completed in college one year's work of history.

The work of the course includes a study of the historical origins of political institutions; a brief study of English political institutions; and a detailed study of American government, in its constitutional, administrative and political aspects. To the historical study of political institutions the first six weeks of the year is devoted, this time being divided about equally between the abstract study of political principles and the concrete study of English government. In this part of the course, Leacock's "Elements of Political Science" is used and Lowell's "Government of England."

The remainder of the time of the first semester is assigned to the study of the American federal government. The text-book used is Beard's "American Government and Politics" with outside readings, in Beard's "Readings in American Government and Politics" and in Young's "The New American Government and Its Work." As indicated by the text-books, attention is given to actual administrative problems as well as to constitutional questions.

The second semester of the year's work embraces a study of state government with detailed accounts of legislative and administrative methods in different states; a survey of the history of political parties and an examination into the problems created by such organizations; a discussion of citizenship and a study of methods for making public opinion effective in a republican government.

Such a course, it is believed, gives the student something of an appreciation of social institutions as a background for constructive thinking upon present political issues. Of no slight importance in the success of the course is the fact that the method of treatment tends to the development of a steadily increasing interest on the part of the student, throughout the year.¹

GRINNELL COLLEGE

The basic course in political science at Grinnell College bears the name "Comparative Free Government." This is a three-hour course throughout the year. It is designed not only to give information con-

¹ Furnished by F. A. Updyke.

cerning certain governments, but also to acquaint the student with the institutions and processes by which democracy in government is being attained in leading states.

The first semester is devoted to a rather detailed study of the government of the United States, national and state. The point of view is emphatically that of the present, the actual working of the government, but the attempt is made to have the student see clearly what the formal constitutional arrangement calls for; what the founders of the government had in mind; in what ways the government in operation differs from what was intended; and what present tendencies suggest for the future. Emphasis is placed upon fundamental principles and adjustments, and a broad foundation laid for comparison with other governments.

The second semester is given to a study of the governments of England, France, Germany, Switzerland, and selected states in South America, in the order named. In this part of the course the comparative method is very prominent, the government of England being considered in greatest detail.

The course begins with the United States, because the study of American institutions and practices affords to the American student a natural approach to the study of politics. Moreover, the United States is the leading example of the presidential type of free government and was a pioneer among the nations, in setting up a government consciously based on popular control. England is studied next, because of the close connection between English and American institutions and the many important contrasts to be found, and because England is the originator and chief example of cabinet government. France comes third, because of her illuminating experiences as a republic, with cabinet government, under the Roman legal system, and because of her highly centralized democracy and the consequent contrasts to be made with both England and the United States. Germany is considered next, because she affords an example of a great state changing from autocratic to popular government, and because her federal system may be compared so profitably with that of Switzerland and that of the United States. Switzerland is studied, because she is the most conspicuous example of triumphant, assured democracy, and has developed a system that is distinctly her own,—one that is neither presidential nor cabinet in character. Argentina and Chile are studied, because of the light they throw upon South American problems and upon the utilization of political institutions and forms designed for radically different peoples and conditions.

From the work of this course, the student attains several important results. He acquires information not only of the institutions of his own country, but of a number of leading free states; he develops an interest in international relations and problems; his sympathies and political outlook are broadened; his national prejudices are weakened; he gains some understanding of politics as a science; and he develops the inclination and, in part, the ability to measure the political standards and conduct of his own government by those of other states.¹

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

BEGINNING COURSE IN COMPARATIVE GOVERNMENT

The beginning course in political science in the University of California is a course in comparative government. The course is given for three hours a week, two hours being devoted to lectures and one hour to quiz sections, under the direction of teaching fellows in the department. At the present time there are 450 students enrolled in the course and there are 15 quiz sections. These sections are now too large and their number must be increased another year. A definite reading assignment is given each week, and upon this assignment a twenty-minute paper is set in each quiz section.

The time of the course is divided as follows:

FIRST SEMESTER.

- | | |
|------------------------|---|
| Government of England. | 7 weeks. Req. reading—selections from Lowell, Government of England (in 1915-1916 a total of 462 pages was assigned). |
| Government of France. | 4 weeks. Req. reading—Constitution of 1875. Ogg, Governments of Europe (Chapters on France). Selections from Lowell, Government and Parties in Continental Europe and from other books to a total of 150 pages. |
| Government of Italy. | 2 weeks. Req. reading—Italian constitution. Ogg, Governments of Europe (pages on Italy) and 100 pages to be selected from a list of books including Lowell, Government and Parties of Continental Europe, etc. |

¹ Furnished by J. W. Gannaway.

Government of Switzerland. 2 weeks. Req. reading—Constitution of Switzerland. Ogg, Governments of Europe.

SECOND SEMESTER.

Government of Germany. 5 weeks. Req. reading—Krüger, Government and Politics of the German Empire. Constitution of German Empire. Ogg, Governments of Europe—(portion relating to Prussia).

Government of Austria. 2 weeks. Req. reading—Constitutional Law of Austria and Hungary. Ogg, Governments of Europe.

Government of the United States. 8 weeks. Req. reading—Selections from Bryce, American Commonwealth. Reed, T. H., Government for the People.

Owing to peculiar conditions in this university, we permit students to begin this course in either semester. The great majority, however, begin in the Fall, which is by far the best plan.

In explanation of the above outline, it should be said that we have put American government at the end of the Spring semester because the students almost without exception come to college after just completing a course in American government in their high school senior year. We have felt it necessary to give them a fresh point of view. Our treatment of American government is not systematic, but is simply a critical treatment of some of our institutions in the light of what the class has been able to learn from the experience with other countries. We give in the upper division a course in American institutions for those who desire a more intensive knowledge of American government, especially those who desire to teach the subject in high school.¹

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Our elementary course is limited to American government. It was found on experience that students coming up from secondary schools have very crude notions about our own government and that there would be danger of superficiality if we attempted too much in the first year. Moreover, we have a course in comparative government which students may take after they have completed the elementary course.²

¹ Furnished by Thomas B. Reed.

² Furnished by Charles A. Beard.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY

Our chief elementary course, Government 1, is an elective, open to freshmen and sophomores. About five hundred students are enrolled. There are two lectures per week throughout the academic year, or about sixty-six lectures in all. Once each week the class meets in sections, of about twenty students per section, for a short paper and discussion both based on the assigned reading of the week. There are twenty-four of these sections, handled by six assistants, each assistant having four sections. That is, in brief, the machinery of the course.

Now as for the plan. The course presents a general survey of present-day government, dealing chiefly (in fact, almost entirely) with the governments of England, France, Germany, Italy, and the United States. The first half-year is devoted to European government, the second half entirely to American government. I have adopted this arrangement for the following reasons. First, a study of the European government seems necessary to give a proper background for intelligent work on the government of the United States. Second, if the students are to have good disciplinary training, it is desirable that they should begin with a study of institutions which they know relatively little about, rather than with those which are already somewhat known to them. Experience has taught me that the freshman or sophomore whose first book on government is one relating to his own country is likely to develop superficial habits of reading and to take a great deal for granted.

On an average about sixty to seventy pages of reading are assigned each week, in Lowell's "Government of England," and Lowell's "Governments and Parties" during the first half-year; in "The Federalist" and Bryce's "American Commonwealth" during the second half-year.

Students are required to have passed this course before they can be admitted to any of the other courses offered by the University in the Department of Government.¹

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

(1) The elementary courses are,

(a) American National Government, offered the first semester.

(b) American State and Local Government, offered the second semester.

¹ Furnished by W. B. Munro.

The content of these courses is indicated by the two principal works used in them, namely: Bryce, "The American Commonwealth," a large part of Volume 1 and selected portions of Volume 2; and Beard, "American Government and Politics." These two works are supplemented by collateral readings and by lectures given by members of the department. Students may enroll in either course without taking the other. Except as it is given in lecture and weekly quiz work, the matter of definition, terminology, and the introduction of comparative material is not emphasized.

(2) The reasons why these courses have been made our elementary courses are as follows:

(a) This is a state university, and a large proportion of our students, being enrolled in other colleges than that of liberal arts and sciences, have time to take but one or two courses in political science. We feel, therefore, that such courses as they are able to take ought to bear more or less directly upon American government.

(b) American government constitutes a part of the required work in the College of Commerce, and should, therefore, be an open course without many prerequisites.

(c) No freshmen are allowed to enter these courses. We get only sophomores and upper-class men in them. For this reason we have a somewhat more mature group of students than we would get if we made these elementary courses open to first-year men. For this reason, too, we have felt justified in giving a rather comprehensive survey of American government without requiring a course in the elements of political science.

(d) There is a feeling in the department that a course in actual government is preferable for a beginning course to one which deals more or less with political theory and government in the abstract.¹

UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

American government, a freshman elective of four hours per week throughout the academic year, has been the elementary course in political science at the State University of Iowa since 1903 when the course was first outlined and presented by Professor F. E. Horack.

Three divisions of this course are now (1915-1916) being given in which 112 students are registered. At present Beard's "American Government and Politics" is used as a text, supplemented by library readings. The lecture method is very little employed in this course;

¹ Furnished by R. N. Story.

instead, oral quizzes, in which discussion and debate are encouraged, and written tests every other week constitute the method of instruction.

An important phase of the work in American government consists of the preparation of weekly papers on subjects germane to the material under consideration. This has been found to be an effective method of extending the reading of students and of acquainting them more intimately with the problems of American government. The following topics illustrate the nature of the subject-matter of these papers:

1. Should the President's veto power be extended?
2. Is a single six-year presidential term advisable?
3. Should debate in the Senate be limited?
4. Compare the power of Speaker Cannon with that of Speaker Clark.
5. Should political affiliations be considered in making appointments to the Supreme Court of the United States?

On Monday or Tuesday of each week the student must submit, at a designated hour, an outline of the paper assigned together with a list of at least five different references which he has consulted and proposes to use in writing his paper. On the following Thursday the papers are handed in (delinquent papers are reduced in credit). These are corrected and returned to the student when he appears the following week with the outline of his next paper. Papers are corrected not only as to the accuracy of the facts stated, but also as to the method of presentation, English, and orthography, special emphasis being laid upon the scientific use of foot-note references.¹

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

At present the elementary course in American government given at the University of Michigan proceeds continuously during both semesters, three hours per week, two hours being given to lectures. The additional hour, nominally for quiz purposes, is made use of for informal discussion as well as for recitation. As there are over two hundred electing this course at the present time the group is divided into eight quiz sections. I am not sure that this is an ideal arrangement, but it is rendered necessary by the size of classes here in elementary courses, and the relatively small number of men to handle the sections. The first half of the first semester is given to a consider-

¹ Furnished by B. F. Shambaugh.

ation of the elements of government, using Leacock's "Elements of Political Science" as a text, with collateral readings in Jenk's "History of Politics," Sir Henry Maine's "Ancient Law," and other works that give a certain historical as well as comparative basis for the study of government. The lectures attempt to supplement Leacock. The second half of the first semester is given to a consideration of Federal government, using Beard's "American Government and Politics" and his readings as text and collateral reading. In order to make the work continuous, the treatment of federal government is carried through into the second semester, following which state governments are taken up and the second half of the second semester is given over to party organization. In this course it might seem that too much stress is laid upon the federal government, but this objection is met, I think, by the fact that no other course considers American federal government as a whole, and additional courses are open to those who have had courses 1 and 2, in state government and administration (2 hours per week, first semester), in local government (3 hours per week, first semester) and in municipal government (3 hours per week, both semesters).

If it were not difficult to coördinate a four hour course with the general scheme of the undergraduate curriculum, I should enlarge the course to four hours per week, both semesters, retaining the two formal lectures, and using the additional hour for further informal discussion in small groups. Could these groups be limited to twelve or fifteen, I think we might have a satisfactory organization. In order to obtain as much informal discussion in the smaller groups as possible, a ten-minute written exercise is set for each of the groups each week. This usually directs attention to some phase of the assigned readings. I try to make the lectures suggestive rather than encyclopedic, depending upon the readings to furnish a basis of common facts.¹

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI

American Government.

This course is a prerequisite for all other work in the department of political science, except a brief two-hour, one-semester course in contemporary international politics. It is given as a five-hour, one-semester course, and is based on Beard's "American Government and Politics" as a text. The instructor lectures to the class four times a week, and on the fifth day the class is broken up into sections of

¹ Furnished by J. S. Reeves.

about twenty students each and a quiz is conducted upon the reading and lectures. Approximately half of the time of the course is devoted to federal government, and half to state and local government. The three points of view: structure, function, and growth or evolution are kept constantly in view. Little attention is paid to political theory, it being the belief of the department that such studies, which are still in a highly controversial state, should be reserved to the period when the student has acquired from the concrete study of his own and foreign governments the data upon which alone a satisfactory theory of the state can be constructed.

One of the most valuable parts of the work of this course is the essay on some special topic which each student is required to write. The assistants in the course give considerable time and thought to the guidance of students in the preparation of these essays. It is insisted upon that every essay shall be accompanied by a topical outline, a bibliography, and appropriate foot-note references to material used. The topics assigned are of a kind requiring the use of documentary or other source material, and frequently involve original investigation by means of visits to or correspondence with public officials. Two conferences are held by the assistants with each individual student during the preparation of his essay.¹

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

The elementary course in political science at the University of Wisconsin is "American Government and Politics." The course runs four hours a week for one semester of eighteen weeks. There are two lectures each week and two quiz sections, the class being divided into small groups of from fifteen to eighteen members each for the oral quiz work. Every three weeks a rigid written quiz is given in place of one of the oral quizzes of that week.

The first two weeks are devoted to the origin and development of government. The next seven weeks are given to the history and adoption of the federal constitution and to the study of the subject of state government. Two weeks are then devoted to the features of party government. The theory of the course is to introduce the student to the various phases of government and politics as illustrated by American experience. No attempt is made to outline the structure of European governments.

In addition to this work every member of the class is required to

¹ Furnished by W. J. Shepard.

select for critical study from a list of books one on some phase of American government.

The plan is found to give satisfactory results. The small sections for oral quizzes allow individual instruction. The written quizzes give an efficient check on work assigned in the text and assigned readings, and the assignment of a special volume gives an intensive study in a particular field.¹

3. *That more emphasis be given to administrative methods and the enforcement of the law.*

One of the points of controversy in the making of schedules of courses in political science is to determine the relative amount of emphasis to be given to constitutional and political history, to the legal framework and organization of government and to the study of government as a functioning organ. Answers to an inquiry submitted to instructors, although usually based upon rough estimates, indicated that almost twice as much time is given to the structure of government as to constitutional history, and that as a rule the study of functions or "physiology of politics" receives more attention than legal framework and constitutional history combined.

There is evidently a marked tendency in both colleges and universities to shift the emphasis from constitutional history (this subject being left frequently to the department of history or dropped entirely) and governmental organization to the analysis and consideration of government in operation.

The following comments are typical:

Beloit:—Greatest stress on functions, much effort made to show real vital activities of the present and how they rather than constitutional framework disclose real government.

Columbia University:—Within the past few years there has been a very marked emphasis placed upon the actual workings of government as compared with constitutional theory or constitutional history.

¹ Furnished by Chester Lloyd Jones.

Grinnell College:—We place the emphasis decidedly on governmental functions and activities. The historical side of our work receives the least consideration. Government as it is and as it promises to be is what we seek to understand.

Ohio State University:—The tendency in successive rearrangements of courses is to lay more stress upon governmental functions and activities.

University of Michigan:—While I cannot give divisions of time, I stress functions and activities rather than framework, though the latter is absolutely necessary to an understanding of the former, i. e., a knowledge of anatomy should precede that of physiology or pathology.

University of Wisconsin:—In all advanced courses a knowledge of constitutional and institutional history and development is assumed, and the functions, activities and forces are discussed. In the more elementary courses the emphasis is on constitutional history and strongly on legal framework of government.

So far as it is possible to judge the content of courses by the brief announcements in college catalogues it appears that primary consideration is given to constitutions, to administrative organization, and to the organization of political parties. In the courses in American government, the national government receives most attention, state government next, and then come in order local and municipal. The proportionate distribution of time which results leaves but little opportunity to deal with local government and gives but scant attention to the judiciary. In view of the fact that no small part of law is made by the courts, and that the average citizen is affected most by the rules as laid down, interpreted and applied by the judiciary, it seems strange that the legislative department should have been given comparatively so much more attention by students of government than judicial administration and administrative practices. These topics are frequently treated inadequately in elementary texts

and often they are entirely neglected. The emphasis on the study of functions rather than machinery, the introduction of courses in administrative methods and the beginning of a more scientific study of judicial administration are all tending to shift the emphasis in government instruction.

4. *That instructors in political science encourage students to prepare reports and surveys on actual political conditions.*

One of the general charges brought against teachers is the failure to relate the instruction given to the conditions and environment of the students. According to this charge it is the purpose of education to give an interpretation of everything in the realm of nature and thought except the commonplace affairs to be found in the very midst of the school, the home and the community in which the children live. To a certain extent this charge is true as applied to instruction in government. The governments of Europe, the national government, and perchance a slight glance at state government have virtually crowded out the study of local police courts, the townhall and county affairs and the myriad problems of local and municipal government. While the botanist, geologist, biologist and chemist have begun to make use of the marvelous environment with which each community is endowed the teachers of government have been exceedingly slow to appreciate the priceless heritage of social and political institutions surrounding each individual. The emphasis on community civics in the schools has begun to introduce a change in perspective and has tended to make the elementary study of government concrete and vital. Legislative and municipal reference libraries and bureaus of research have paved the way for an exceedingly fruitful field for the colleges and universities. A few instructors have appreciated the possibilities of putting students to useful endeavor and at the same time giving them exceedingly valuable training. The opportunity of turning to advantage some of the hitherto

wasted efforts has possibilities which can be only vaguely conceived.

One need only examine the character and scope of the work accomplished by a few of the bureaus undertaking such investigations and reports to be convinced of the great value to the community and the excellent training gained thereby. Such bureaus may be converted into veritable government laboratories where are rendered available not only the recent literature on special subjects but also maps, charts and a collection of material prepared in graphic form. By the aid of small classes of mature students governmental surveys may be undertaken and much material presented in a form which can be used by citizens and public officials.

Of course this kind of thing can readily be overdone and the work of the class-room can be easily cheapened by too frequent sociological excursions and holidays. Practical work needs to be specially guarded, sparingly used, and credit should be given only under rigorous conditions which meet the standard requirements of scientific accuracy, completeness and thoroughness. Under such conditions work of this character may be made a valuable supplement and inspiration and may be so directed as to turn to the profit of the community.

5. That Reference Libraries and Research Bureaus be established for the purpose of rendering aid to government officials and interested citizens.

The development of the use of charts in surveys and the presentation of government facts in graphic form for various purposes, along with the rise of reference libraries and bureaus of research, have had a marked influence upon the study as well as the operation of government. It is just as necessary for teachers of government to have a special room with adequate equipment as it is for teachers of geology or chemistry. In fact the nature of much material along governmental lines is such that it can

be collected, classified and effectively used only when concentrated in a room under the immediate direction and supervision of the department. Maps, charts and graphic material should be used much more freely in all political instruction, and this will never be possible until separate quarters are set apart for this purpose. The use of government reports and graphic material, the preparation of such material by students, the proper preservation and disposal of documents and charts require a separate room with full equipment for modern reference library work and with special appliances for the constant use of graphic methods.

The excellent work being done by the state universities through bureaus of research and reference on municipal affairs gives an indication as to what may be accomplished in the way of improving instruction as well as rendering extremely useful service to the public. Similar bureaus might well be organized dealing with state and federal affairs with the twofold purpose of serving as laboratories for the study of government and for rendering service to the public.

6. *That provision be made for professional training for certain branches of the public service.*

More than thirty years ago Honorable Andrew D. White called the attention of educators to the fact that, in striking contrast with European countries, there was no such thing as training for the public service in the United States. Although the past thirty years have witnessed a remarkable development of university instruction along the lines of government, economics, and sociology, the attention of the country was only recently directed again to the utter neglect of training for public office both in and out of educational institutions. Various committees of national organizations have investigated and rendered reports. National societies and local organizations have been formed to train for the public service. So much has been written

along this line that one is astonished to find how few positions there are for which special training is not now given in universities and how rare the cases are that men specially trained for such service receive permanent appointments with adequate salary and opportunity for advancement. The committee on training for public service of Columbia University explains the present situation in some conclusions which may well be repeated here.

First. The most important positions which are attractive to college men and women are filled by political appointment and are, therefore, on the "exempt" list. In New York City, the exempt class includes, besides heads of departments, deputy commissioners, secretaries of departments, all high salaried assistants to the corporation counsel, numerous accountants, auditors, and examiners, confidential inspectors, consulting and chief engineers, superintendents, assistant superintendents, and similar officers of high grade.

Appointments to such positions are usually made by either elective or appointive officers, and the selections are determined largely by personal and political considerations. The persons chosen are usually lawyers, journalists, business men, or party workers. It is not often that a young college graduate is given a post of trust in the public service. Experience, maturity, and what is known in politics as "availability" are the controlling factors.

The terms of such positions are limited and the tenure is uncertain. Although there are several conspicuous exceptions, a public career by the way of political appointment is very unusual. To encourage students to prepare themselves solely for positions in this branch of public service would therefore be a breach of academic trust. Lawyers, journalists, and business men have their means of livelihood and independence until the desirable political appointments come, and at the end of their terms they may return to their previous occupations. But the student carefully trained in political and administrative science and disciplined by practical experience is not so fortunate if the desired career in official service does not open when he has completed his preparation.

Clearly, it would be inadvisable for the University to announce that it is prepared to train men and women for the higher non-technical branches of public service, when as a matter of fact the system of

appointments and tenures now prevailing in the United States does not offer adequate opportunity for careers in such branches. The fact that the Training School for Public Service in New York, supported by the prestige of the Bureau of Municipal Research, has sent, in its three years of work, only eight or ten of its students into official service of any kind and only three or four men into regular administrative positions of high character is an indication of the difficulties which lie in the way of finding satisfactory openings in official public service for those specially trained.

With regard to positions in the official service open to college men and women on a competitive basis and reasonably attractive in opportunities and rewards the committee finds two classes. The first group is that of technical and professional positions, of which there are a large number in state and federal civil service. For these technical positions the courses now given in the large universities like Columbia are found to be well adapted to the preparation of students for examinations. A second group is designated as non-technical administrative positions, very few of which are regarded as desirable openings for a career in the public service.

To offset these rather discouraging observations it is asserted that improvement in civil administration in the United States has originated in large measure in societies organized and maintained by private citizens such as Bureaus of Research, Civic Leagues, etc., and that by far the most important openings for college men and women arise in connection with such organizations as directors, secretaries, and expert workers. It is, the committee notes, "this unofficial public service that offers the largest attractions to college men and women and opens the best gateway to direct official service." Suggestions for a program of studies leading to the public service are then offered comprising:

1. Two or three years of regular college training including elementary government, economics, etc.
2. One year of special training embracing such subjects as munic-

- ipal government, administrative law, government accounting, public finance, statistics and graphic methods, etc.
3. One year of contact or field work and observation involving:
 - a. Budget making.
 - b. The investigation of several branches of public administration.
 - c. The preparation of reports and recommendations on the basis of ascertained results.
 - d. The practice of presenting oral statements of results in short form.

Of a similar character is the "proposed standard regulations for the Ph. D. degree" prepared by the committee on Practical Training for Public Service of the American Political Science Association, according to which candidates for the doctor's degree in the social sciences may fulfill the resident requirements of three years' graduate study as follows:

1. Two years' resident graduate study in some recognized institution of learning.
2. Practical work for at least eleven months in a governmental department, bureau or commission, a legislative reference library, a bureau of municipal research or similar organization.

The above proposals are presented merely as instances of a beginning made to consider and to aim consciously to provide training for the public service. Obviously progress will be slow in making provision for professional training in many branches of government service and even more slow will be the possibility of securing places for those competently trained. But the committee includes this recommendation chiefly with the end in view of encouraging the formation of such committees as that of Columbia University in order that attention may be called to the facilities now offered for such training, and that when deemed appropriate suggestions may be made as to modifications in existing courses or the addition of new courses, and further that the attention of students as well as the public may be called to the facilities now available for such training.

APPENDIX

REPORTS OF STATE COMMITTEES ON THE TEACHING OF CIVICS IN ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

In order to secure additional data and to offer a fairly accurate account of the status of instruction in government arrangements were made for the appointment of state committees on the teaching of civics. State departments of public instruction and the departments of social and political sciences in universities aided in the selection of the committees. The members chosen were as a rule teachers of civics, superintendents and principals, and others who are particularly interested in civic instruction. These committees not only rendered invaluable assistance in the gathering of data but also gave advice in the preparation of suggestions as to methods and courses of study. In a number of cases information was furnished but no formal report was prepared. For the investigations a questionnaire similar in form to that used in the Bureau of Education inquiry¹ was suggested in order to secure uniform returns. The results secured by many of the committees and the reports based on a careful survey of the state constitute an important record as to the condition of government instruction in the public schools. The committee on instruction regrets that not all of the thorough and interesting reports from these committees can be presented in full. Owing to the limits of space, it has been necessary to condense the longer and more extensive reports. An effort has been made to include the most valuable portions of

¹ See pp. -7450.

each report, and with but few exceptions the exact language of the original report is followed.

I. MEMBERS OF STATE COMMITTEES AND STATE REPRESENTATIVES
SELECTED TO AID THE COMMITTEE ON INSTRUCTION

Arizona:

Harold Steele, Principal, Tucson High School.

Arkansas:

David Y. Thomas, Chairman, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville.

B. W. Torreyson, Little Rock.

R. E. Womack, State Normal, Conway.

L. E. Bassett, Pine Bluff.

R. C. Hall, City Superintendent, Little Rock.

J. W. Kuykendoll, Fort Smith.

C. H. Brough, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville.

Alabama:

D. G. Chase, Chairman, Central High School, Birmingham.

John B. Clark, Guin.

E. M. Shackelford, Troy.

C. V. Thompson, Wetumpka.

Foster Ausley, Central High School, Birmingham.

California:

William J. Cooper, Chairman, Berkeley High School.

J. R. Sutton, Oakland High School.

Roscoe L. Ashley, Pasadena High School.

Anna Stewart, Los Angeles High School.

E. G. Nash, Marysville High School.

Colorado:

Ira Nestor, North Side High School, Denver.

Delaware:

E. V. Vaughan, Chairman, Delaware College, Newark.

J. E. Chipman, Principal, Delmar.

W. H. Jump, Principal, Harrington.

R. F. Friedel, Principal, Newark.

W. K. Yerger, Principal, 2325 Penna. Ave., Wilmington.

Georgia:

J. F. Thomason, Chairman, Superintendent, Bainbridge.
Julia Flisch, Augusta.
Florence Berne, Macon.
Bethe Rucker, Brunswick.
Lola Kestley, Americus.

Illinois:

L. A. Fulwider, Chairman, Principal, Freeport.
Mary Childs, Evanston High School, Evanston.
U. S. Parker, Quincy High School, Quincy.
Silas Echols, Township High School, Mt. Vernon.
W. R. Spurrier, Principal, Township High School, Princeton.

Indiana:

O. H. Williams, Chairman, Indiana University, Bloomington.
D. W. Horton, Mishawaka High School, Mishawaka.
Charles Roll, Department of American History, State Normal
School, Terre Haute.
Mrs. Hope Graham, Shortridge High School, Indianapolis.

Iowa:

Aaron Palmer, Chairman, Superintendent, Marshalltown.
J. E. Marshall, Principal, Council Bluffs.
C. C. Ball, Boone.
George A. Brown, Principal, Burlington High School, Burlington.
Alice E. Moss, W. Des Moines High School, Des Moines.

Kentucky:

A. M. Stickle, Chairman, State Normal School, Bowling Green.
Charles Keith, Kentucky State Normal, Richmond.
George W. Calvin, Superintendent, Springfield.
J. H. Bentley, Superintendent, Paducah.
L. E. Foster, Hopkinsville.

Louisiana:

A. J. Caldwell, Chairman, Principal, Hammond High School.
E. F. Dummeier, Principal, Leesville High School.
S. M. Brame, Principal, Alexandria High School.
Grace Sharp, Shreveport High School.
J. H. Dupuy, Louisiana Industrial Institute, Ruston.

Maine:

Fred D. Wish, Jr., Chairman, Portland High School.
A. W. Reynolds, Biddeford High School.
E. S. Lewis, Auburn High School.
Elmer T. Boyd, Bangor High School.
Charles L. Smith, Principal, Bath High School.

Maryland:

Charles H. Kolb, Chairman, Principal, Westminster High School.
Joseph Blair, Principal, Sparrows Point High School.
Mary C. Ott, Frederick.
Margaret A. Pfeiffer, Assistant in High School, Ellicott City.
David E. Weglein, Principal Western High School, Baltimore.

Massachusetts:

Edwin A. Cottrell, Wellesley College, Wellesley, Mass.

Michigan:

Carl Pray, Ypsilanti Normal School, Ypsilanti.

Minnesota:

N. R. Ringdahl, Chairman, Superintendent, Rush City.
P. M. Magnuson, State Normal, St. Cloud.
W. H. Shepard, North High School, Minneapolis.
Albert J. Lobb, West High School, Minneapolis.
F. W. Moore, State Normal, Winona.

Missouri:

Eugene Fair, Chairman, State Normal School, Kirksville.
H. R. Tucker, McKinley High School, Webster Groves.
William A. Lewis, Central High School, Kansas City.
Lowry Doran, Springfield High School.
P. P. Calloway, High School Inspector, State Capitol, Jefferson City.
Alberta M. Ross, Springfield High School.

Montana:

A. J. Roberts, Chairman, Principal, Helena High School.
Lewis M. Simes, Missoula.
Margaret Boyle, Butte.
Otis W. Freeman, Lewistown.
Harold Westergaard, Billings.

New Hampshire:

- Guy E. Speare, Chairman, Littleton High School.
 C. F. Cook, Principal, Concord.
 J. F. Smith, Principal, Keene.
 E. W. Butterfield, Superintendent, Dover.
 E. P. Freese, Principal, North Stratford.

New Jersey:

- C. Ernest Dechant, Chairman, Supervising Principal, Haddonfield.
 Sara N. Dynes, State Normal School, Trenton.
 Edward A. Parker, New Brunswick High School.
 Harry F. Stauffer, Principal, Washington Street Grammar School, Newark.
 Walter H. Mohr, Milville High School.

New York:

- William W. Rogers, Chairman, Curtis High School, Staten Island, N. Y. C.
 M. L. Dann, Richmond Hill High School, N. Y. C.
 S. J. Jumnefsky, Julia Richman High School, N. Y. C.
 George D. Luetscher, Jamaica High School, N. Y. C.
 Harrison C. Thomas, DeWitt Clinton High School, N. Y. C.
 E. D. Lewis, High School of Commerce, N. Y. C.

North Carolina:

- W. C. Jackson, Chairman, State Normal School, Greenboro.
 C. L. Coon, Superintendent, Wilson.
 L. Lea White, Principal, Winston-Salem.
 T. Wingate Andrews, Superintendent, Reidsville.

North Dakota:

- Albert Vollweiler, Chairman, University.
 J. S. Bjornson, LaMoure.
 Norman Smith, Cando.
 R. B. Murphy, Michigan.
 Oscar Erickson, Hatton.

Ohio:

- L. O. Lantis, Chairman, North High School, Columbus.
 Grace Morris, Defiance.
 E. M. Benedict, Cincinnati.
 W. H. Townsend, Ashtabula.
 H. J. Dickerson, Newark.

Oklahoma:

Dr. Charles Evans, President, Central Normal School, Edmond.

Oregon:

Herbert B. Augur, Jefferson High School, Portland.

Pennsylvania:

W. D. Renninger, Chairman, Central High School, Philadelphia.

D. Montfort Melchoir, Girard College, Philadelphia.

C. D. Koch, State High School Inspector, Harrisburg.

T. D. Brown, Peabody High School, Pittsburgh.

Samuel E. Weber, Superintendent, Scranton.

South Carolina:

Frank E. Broyles, Chairman, Columbia.

Elizabeth Baskerville, Orangeburg High School.

Alice Stribling, Spartanburg High School.

Samuel W. Anderson, Anderson High School.

T. M. Seawell, Superintendent, Blackville.

South Dakota:

H. C. Johnson, Chairman, Superintendent, Aberdeen.

Luman Sampson, Aberdeen High School.

W. I. Early, Principal, Sioux Falls High School.

J. C. Lindsey, Principal, Mitchell.

Joseph T. Glenn, Superintendent, Milbank.

Tennessee:

J. L. Highsaw, Central High School, Memphis.

Texas:

Rush M. Caldwell, Chairman, Dallas High School.

C. C. Pearson, Houston High School.

E. T. Genheimer, Principal, Waco High School.

Thomas Fletcher, Visitor of Schools, University of Texas, Austin.

Utah:

L. J. Muir, Chairman, Bountiful.

Enoch Jorgensen, Sandy.

L. J. Nuttall, Spanish Fork.

H. Claude Lewis, Filmore.

P. M. Nielsen, Mt. Pleasant.

Vermont:

George G. Groat, University of Vermont, Burlington.

Virginia:

- J. M. Lear, Chairman, State Normal School, Farmville.
 T. J. Stubbs, Jr., John Marshall High School, Richmond.
 John W. Wayland, Harrisonburg.
 Edgar Sydenstricker, Lynchburg.

Washington:

- E. C. Roberts, Chairman, Principal, Everett High School.
 C. A. Sprague, Assistant Superintendent, Olympia.
 H. C. Crumpacker, Sedro-Wolley.
 A. Lyle Kaye, North Central High School, Spokane.
 S. E. Fleming, Franklin High School, Seattle.

West Virginia:

- C. L. Broadwater, Chairman, Mannington High School.
 J. H. Thornton, Wheeling High School.
 Minnie Lee Goff, Charleston High School.
 Dora Lee Newman, Fairmont High School.
 R. O. Hall, Morgantown High School.

Wisconsin:

- A. C. Shong, Chairman, Principal West Division High School,
 Milwaukee.
 Ira C. Painter, Principal, Wausau.
 J. W. T. Aines, Superintendent, Monroe.
 W. J. Hamilton, Principal, Two Rivers.
 J. J. Enright, Principal, Plymouth.

Wyoming:

- Beulah M. Garrard, Chairman, Department of Secondary
 Education, University of Wyoming, Laramie.
 V. H. Rowland, Superintendent, Lusk.
 W. M. Baker, Superintendent, Worland.
 R. M. Shreves, Superintendent, Rawlins.
 Mary Persinger, Sheridan.

II. REPORTS ON THE TEACHING OF CIVICS

ALABAMA

1. *Grade Schools:*

The state course of study prescribes civics in the seventh or highest grade of the public schools.

Superintendent of Education estimates that there were 18,169 pupils in the seventh grade enrolled in civics—total enrolment in the grades 467,876.

There is practically no instruction below the seventh grade.

2. *High Schools:*

(a) *City:*

Among replies received, three schools—Tuscaloosa, Gadsden and Birmingham—report special work outside of the text.

In all these the student government organizations are giving to the pupils excellent training for citizenship. The civics classes in all three are making surveys of their respective cities as to government, sanitation, parks, playgrounds, etc.

In Birmingham jury trial, nomination and election of state officers have been enacted by the civics classes; a study of current events with class reports and general discussion has been made, and the different forms of county, state and city blanks and legal documents have been brought into the class, studied and explained. Last year the boys' literary clubs staged the state legislature and enacted several laws.

At Tuscaloosa the boys of the civics classes have joined the civic league of the city. They are exempt from fees, but may attend all meetings, speak on any subject before that body, but have no vote. They aid the league by gathering desired statistics, serving as guides and escorts to noted guests of the league.

(b) *County:*

Time devoted to subject is usually four and one-half months of five periods per week. A majority of schools owing to the lack of library facilities and poorly trained teachers do not undertake to use parallel readings or to do practical work. One of the district agricultural schools reports that there is self-government in the school, fashioned after the state government and that the students are taught government at first hand.

3. *Normal Schools:*

In the first year one-third of a year is devoted to Alabama history and elementary civil government.

In four-year schools an advanced course in the senior class is devoted to American history and government. The actual

time given to government varies considerably. Text-book method largely used, supplemented by occasional lectures and a little laboratory work.

Submitted by D. G. Chase, Chairman.

ARKANSAS

I. *Preparation:*

Normal Training. Two courses in civics are offered in the Normal School at Conway.

(a) An elementary course, such as is usually offered in the high schools. Boynton's text is used and this is supplemented by a considerable use of magazines, newspapers, ballots, etc. Required of all students enrolled in the "Rural Teachers Course."

(b) Advanced course for seniors in the regular normal course. Garner's text is used, supplemented by references to Bryce, Burgess, Ashley, Garner (Political Science), Beard, Wilson, etc. Considerable use is made of government reports, both state and national ballots, initiative petitions, printed bills, etc. Officials are invited to address the class and, when possible, they are taken to visit the legislature, the quorum court, circuit court, and the state institutions.

II. *Actual teaching:*

A. *Grammar Grades:*

In the grammar grades many teachers pay no attention to civics until the seventh or eighth grade. They say that it is impossible, without unduly crowding the course of study. Others begin in the second grade and follow up with practical lessons in simplest form bearing upon community life, relations of citizens to each other, their privileges and obligations, "just as we do language and nature study," says one teacher.

B. *The High School:*

1. In the high school, civics is taught all the way from the 9th to the 12th grade. Most schools allow 18 weeks, a few 12.

2. The texts used range from such ancient books as Peterman and Blocher to James and Sanford, Garner, Forman, and one announces the adoption of Beard. For supplementary purposes such works as Willoughby, "Rights and Duties of the Citizen," Kirby's "Digest of Arkansas Statutes," and official reports are suggested for readings.

3. Little criticism of texts was offered. But one teacher replied: "A modern up-to-date text-book informing the students in the ele-

mentary schools what the rights and duties of a citizen are and how they may secure and perform the same ought to be published and be required by law, to be used in every school in Arkansas." A proper appreciation of the importance of local government is yet to be created.

4. In most schools, apparently, most emphasis is laid on what the government is, and how it operates, rather than on what it does and the place of a citizen in it, as in case of the grammar grades.

5. (a) No civic scrap book was reported.
- (b) Several report weekly drill in current events.
- (c) Some debates.
- (d) The Literary Digest, Independent, and daily papers are used for supplementary work.
- (e) Very few talks by public officials.
- (f) Many take opportunity to visit council meetings, courts, legislature, etc., and report on same.

Submitted by D. Y. Thomas, Chairman.

CALIFORNIA

Summary of the report.

Of thirty-eight high schools to whom a questionnaire was sent, twenty-one replied answering most of the questions. These answers will be summarized:

I. *Year in which Course is Offered:*

9th grade—2; in Berkeley—local civics free elective; in Sacramento—local civics required of all pupils in commercial course, in Santa Anna, elective.

10th grade—none.

11th grade—4 schools including 2 schools where it is begun in 11th and finished in 12th, and including Pasadena where a pupil may take a single year in the 11th or the 12th or begin in the 11th a consecutive two years' course.

12th grade—17 schools, not including Pasadena, referred to above. In Berkeley and Sacramento, this work is required of all graduating pupils, regardless of whether they have the 9th grade course.

In general, the upper grade civics is part of a course in United States history and civics covering together a year (in most schools) or a year and a half (in a few, especially in Southern California).

II. *Text-book Used:*

It was the opinion of the committee that the closest approximation to the content of the course could be obtained by asking for

1. The text-book used.
2. Portions omitted.
3. Supplementary work.

With this in mind, the committee ascertained from State Commissioner Wood the texts used in all California high schools. This information had been collected by Mr. Wood in the Fall of 1914 and the reports sent instructors showed no changes in the Spring of 1915 except that some of the schools had adopted American history and government by Willis M. West, published by Allyn & Bacon. These schools were using "Civil Government in California" by John R. Sutton, published by American Book Company for information on state and local government. Other than these two books, the committee found the following civics books used in California. The number of schools using each is also indicated.

Ashley, R. L. American Government, Macmillan Co., 1908.....	93
Beard, C. A., & M. R. American Citizenship, Macmillan Co., 1914	9
Boynton, F. D. School Civics, Ginn & Co.....	6
Fiske, John. Civil Government in the U. S., Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1890.....	2
Forman, S. E. Advanced Civics, Century Co., N. Y., 1905-12- 15.....	25
Garner, James W. Government in the U. S., American Book Co., 1911.....	42
Guitteau, Wm. B. Government & Politics in the U. S., Houghton- Mifflin Co., 1911.....	8
Hart, A. B. Actual Government, Longmans, Green & Company	2
Hinsdale, B. A. The American Government, American Book Com- pany, 1905, 1891.....	4
James, J. A., & Sanford, A. B. Government in State and Nation, Charles Scribners Sons, 1901, 11.....	2
Moses, B. Government of the U. S., Appleton and Company . . .	1

Of the schools of three hundred pupils and over enrolled, all but three out of thirty use either Ashley's or Forman's or Garner's book, and each of these three uses a different text as indicated above. Since this information was collected, West's "History and Government" has supplanted one or the other of these books in a few of the larger schools, exact figures not obtainable at this time.

III. *Methods of Accomplishing Supplementary Work:*

Practically all of the schools gave information on this point.

- (a) Seventy-five per cent used informal lectures, twenty-five per cent, formal.
- (b) Five per cent have typewritten or printed supplements prepared usually by the department head.
- (c) Ninety per cent make use of reports by pupils on outside reading.
- (d) Sixty per cent have pupils take notes on special reports made by pupils.
- (e) Approximately sixty per cent use a periodical in some way. In most cases, the periodicals are in the libraries and references are made to them, although some schools give courses in current history.
- (f) One teacher reports success in organizing the class as a legislature, political convention or the like. Several report success with visits to the city council. Mr. Sutton of Oakland says, "I especially favor the plan of having pupils make personal investigations of various offices and institutions and report to the classes." Several teachers have written reports handed in, some of them being long formal themes on topics assigned by the teacher or selected by the pupil under the teacher's direction.

Summary of advice on instruction in government

1. Eleven schools (fifty per cent of those answering) approve the N. E. A. plan ¹ without change. Of the others, there was no agreement on what the change should be, although two disapproved the survey of vocations and one other would treat the survey and the community civics in a half year.

2. In reply to the inquiry whether two years to European history and two years to citizenship subjects was a desirable division of time sixteen out of nineteen replying answered "yes," two, "no" and one would give two years to the citizenship subjects, but cut the European history to one year.

3. Asking what should be the make-up of the two years in citizenship brought forth many different arrangements, but most of the answers can be tabulated as follows:

¹ Reference to recommendations of Committee on Social Studies.

United States History	One year	13
United States History	One-half year	2
Civics	One-half year	11
Civics	One year	3
Economics	One year	0
Economics	One-half year	11
Combination of Economics & Civics	One year	1

One would include what he calls Elementary Sociology in the two-year course.

4. Regarding the amount to be prescribed.
- | | |
|--|----|
| One year | 6 |
| Two years | 10 |
| Three years | 2 |
| Four years | 1 |
| One and one-half to four years,
depending on the course | 1 |

Under "one year" above are two classes who would extend the course in United States history and civics to one and one-half years and prescribe this amount.

5. It is impossible to classify the answers on the amount of time to be given to current events other than to state that about a third of those replying would give it approximately twenty per cent of the time, some of them setting apart one day in the week for it.

6. Eleven out of nineteen answering, would treat the local government first, seven would begin with the national government and one varies the practice depending upon current events.

7. Only eleven answers could be obtained to this question, which have been approximately tabulated as follows:

Approximate time allotted to study of division of government:

<i>No. of days</i>	<i>National</i>	<i>State</i>	<i>Local</i>
20	3	6	3
25	1	4	2
30	3	1	3
35	3	—	1
40	1	—	2

8. Eight believe a short general treatise should precede the study of governmental machinery, nine disapprove.

9. Nine favor studying machinery first and functions afterwards with a review of the formal side. Six would take them up together and three assert that it is important.¹

Submitted by Wm. J. Cooper, Chairman.

COLORADO

A. *Elementary Schools:*

There is a state course of study which needs rewriting and unifying. The subjects suggested for civics in the grades are fairly satisfactory. In the county schools the aim is to have civics in the eighth grade. The number of pupils finishing the eighth grade of the rural schools is very small, and that means most of them get little knowledge of civics. The present state superintendent is endeavoring to standardize the rural schools, about half of the rating being on a civic basis. The Colorado State Teachers Association is lending its influence in the same direction.

B. *Secondary Schools:*

The study of civics is practically unknown in the short-course schools. In non-accredited four-year schools it occurs in only about a third of the total number reporting, or in about twenty schools. In accredited schools it occurs in between sixty and sixty-five out of the seventy-two public high schools.

The length of the course is usually a half year. In 1913-1914, fifteen out of sixteen non-accredited schools reporting it and forty-eight of fifty-two accredited schools reporting it, assigned a half year to the subject. The others assigned a year.

In a half dozen cases the division may vary somewhat from a half year to history and the following half year to civics, but there is no question as to what is the normal condition in this respect. I might state, however, that in possibly a dozen of these schools the stress is divided fairly equally between history and civics, but the two studies run throughout the year in correlation. The attempt is to introduce all of civics at the logical point in history.

Among the non-accredited schools about one-fourth require for graduation a half year of civics; among accredited schools the propor-

¹ An appendix to the report gives a description of a course in Civic Problems given in the department of social science in the Pasadena high school and the report contains also a very careful analysis of the content of the texts most commonly used in the state—Ashley, Garner and Forman. The California committee also rendered valuable assistance in the preparation of suggestions for courses of study.

tion runs slightly higher. One accredited school requires a year. The others constituting some three-fourths, leave the subject an elective. The Emerson School, Denver, has in the eighth grade a senate whose function it is to encourage good citizenship by discouraging carelessness in school life. Small fines are assessed for ink-spots or badly kept desks, and so on. All the high schools reporting do something of a practical nature such as studying local conditions. There is a growing feeling that more ought to be done in civics and that it be vitalized. Denver is in the midst of a school survey and indications are that one result will be an increased emphasis on civics.

A serious handicap everywhere is the lack of material with which to work. As a rule school libraries are woefully behind time. Books suited to a past generation burden too many shelves. In particular there is a serious need of a handbook giving detailed information about all of the state's affairs.

It is fair to say that there is need of better facilities for the preparation of teachers of civics. One of the most progressive and experienced county superintendents writes: "The teacher's preparation should include courses in method, sociology, psychology, civics, economics; universities make no pretense at such instruction and too many of our normal schools are neglecting the all important task of first teaching the subject matter of these branches. An examination of the catalogues of Colorado higher schools does not seem to show a single course directed specifically to this end."

Submitted by Ira F. Nestor, State Representative.

GEORGIA

Tabulation of replies to inquiries made to ascertain the status of the teaching of civics in the secondary schools of Georgia (November, 1915).

Number of questionnaires sent out, 75.

Replies, 28. One of which reported no civics taught.

Schools requiring the teaching of civics: Required of all pupils, 11; Seniors only, 5; 2d year boys, 1; elective, 5; certain grades, 2; not specifically taught, 2.

Texts used: Boynton's School Civics, 3; Peterman, 3; no text, 3; James & Sanford, 2; Forman's Adv. Civ., 2; Beard's, 1; Stickle's, 1; Ashley, 2.

Plan of course as to text and outlines: No reports, 6; text followed, 8; indefinite, 5; as part of Amer. Hist., 4.

Study of government of village, city, etc.: No report, 5; followed text, 1; attention to topics, 6; Georgia government, 1.

Library work: No report, 9; interviews with officials, 4; visits to courts, 1; limited, 3; library work for this session, 1.

Using some form of current events: Yes, 22; No, 1.

Coöperation of pupils in school government: Yes, 5; some, 7; none, 7.

Aims for teaching of civics: good citizenship; awaken sense of responsibility; arouse desire to improve conditions; knowledge of government; self-government; make plain pupil's relations to the community (broad usage).

Adaptation of teaching to aims: yes, 8; not good, 5.

It does not seem worth while to try to make a very careful analysis of these returns, since they plainly indicate that civics has not obtained a very important place in the high schools of Georgia. However, there are some encouraging signs, as: use of current events, attempts toward self-government, an awakening to the practical relations of the study, etc. The time for a good syllabus seems to have arrived; such would doubtless help in making civics more prominent in the school course.

Submitted by J. F. Thomason, Chairman.

ILLINOIS

A. *Elementary Schools:*

Most schools teach civics in some form, some with great thoroughness. In a few cases pamphlets on community civics have been compiled by local teachers. These are used in class work, sometimes independently, but more often in connection with other subjects. The gratifying fact is that all feel the necessity of civics teaching. At present, however, there is no uniformity of method or material. In many cases it amounts to "incidental instruction in civics throughout the grades in connection with other subjects."

The time is ripe for organization of material and the establishment of standards of method. There is an evident breaking away from the formal teaching of government as teachers and superintendents grasp and appreciate the rich content of the "new civics." The greatest need, probably, is for comprehensive outlines or syllabi for the use of the grades of city schools. In the absence of any system, genuinely efficient work is being done only here and there where there happens to be a well-trained and enthusiastic teacher.

B. *Secondary Schools:*

This report of the Illinois committee is based on the replies to a questionnaire received from fifty-nine of the foremost high schools of the state.

Five schools attempt to teach civics in the first and second years of high school. The reason is that many students do not remain longer in high school. They must be reached there if at all. These schools also teach advanced civics in the fourth year.

Forty-seven high schools teach separate courses in civics, while eleven report a combination of history and civics. Several schools, particularly Chicago high schools, teach both separate and combined courses. Thirty-eight make civics an elective, while twenty-one report it required. In a few schools civics is required only in certain courses. All but one offer the subject five hours a week. Only two report a term of forty weeks. Fourteen offer twenty weeks; twenty-two, eighteen weeks; while in two or three, ten or twelve weeks are given. One semester is the prevailing term. Six offer combined United States history and civics.

The following texts are reported used: by seventeen schools, Garner; fourteen schools, James and Sanford; sixteen, Forman; five, Guitteau; three, Beard; three, Ashley. In reference books Childs leads with thirteen, and there follow James and Sanford, Ashley, Guitteau, Garner, Forman, Kaye, Bryce, Beard, Fiske, Fairlie, Hinsdale, etc.

Concerning the defects of present texts in government the following replies were made: wanting in practical and concrete illustrations; too much material on national government; too little on local government; too much emphasis on form of government; too much emphasis on history of government; lack of detailed explanation, too little emphasis on duties and obligations of citizens; formal, lacks inspiration, not lucid; not enough emphasis on functions; too dry; too academic; need more outlines and maps; lack of laboratory methods and practical lessons; not enough material on administration; not teachable for freshmen; too much theory; too technical. Summarizing, these replies evidently mean that the texts are too largely given to the organization and machinery of government, and far too little to the functions of local government. Teachers have not time to organize supplementary material and quite generally have not had sufficient training to write out comprehensive outlines or develop a syllabus. The time is opportune for such a syllabus. . . . The spirit of teachers, superintendents, and the public is ripe for its use. Any increase in

reference books will not serve to increase the efficiency of civics teaching in the absence of syllabi that organize the subject and make it teachable.

Twenty-four schools reply that the time allotment should be extended, and twenty-four that it should not. While a few ask for a full year, the great majority asks for one full semester of eighteen or twenty weeks. Schools answering that time should not be extended are now offering as much as that. To find time for the increase is difficult. Two would omit ancient history. A few suggest cutting ancient history to one semester. One would correlate it to the English theme work. Another would drop part of the Latin course. The time allotment usually given follows: one-half to national, one-fourth to state, and one-fourth to local. The reason most frequently given is that such a division is followed in the text used.

Seventeen schools report proceeding from local to state and national civics, and eighteen from national to state and local. The chief reason assigned is that it is so given in the text used. Little improvement may be expected till properly organized material is provided to be placed in the hands of the student. Eight replied that the chief emphasis is placed on the operation and organization of government, twenty that the chief emphasis is placed on the duties and obligations of citizens and community functions, and eight that emphasis is equally placed. Even in the case of the twenty, because of the want of organized material, it may be doubted if the chief emphasis is really so placed.

Concerning the devices used in teaching civics, sixteen use a scrap book, twenty-eight have weekly drills in current events, twenty hold debates on political issues, thirteen report reading of non-partisan periodicals by the classes, seventeen provide talks to the classes by public officials, and several have civic and industrial clubs. Thirteen use the *Literary Digest*, eight the *Independent*, four the *Review of Reviews*, etc. Thirty-eight schools report personal field investigations by students. Such investigations are sporadic and include chiefly visits to institutions, county farms, factories, court houses, city council chambers, conventions, etc.

Forty-one schools report no system of student self-government. Not one reports a thoroughgoing system, though fourteen report some attempt at self-government in one or more phases of school life. Of those answering, none has an elaborated system. It consists mainly of student councils, advisory committees, literary and athletic control, council to control corridors, etc., class boards of control. All

seven report it an advantage in discipline. Some have "safety first" commissions, and school improvement bureaus.

The aim of instruction in government in secondary schools is stated thus: to train good citizens; knowledge of government machinery; to make real Americans—not hyphens; to understand social problems; active participation in community life; to teach problems of good citizens; personal responsibility of good citizenship; inspiration; interest in civic affairs; self-control.

Seventeen consider their courses in government adequate. The reasons assigned are: because it is practical; relatively, yes; study present-day civics chiefly; pupils get essentials; adequate as a formal course can be. Of the thirty-five reporting their courses not adequate, twenty-seven state that it is because of lack of time. Other reasons stated are: too much text-book work; formal civics will not produce good citizens; inexperienced teacher; emphasize local government; not enough practical work; students too immature; because elective; one semester too short to offset the influences of a saloon town; lack of preparation; lack of reference material—library; lack of facilities.

A majority report ample collegiate preparation. Forty-two teachers are university graduates; ten graduates of colleges, and five are graduates of normal schools. Thirty-five majored in history, economics, political science, or social science. Three minored in the same. Two had graduate courses. Ten had taken courses in education in college or university.

To the question asking for suggestions relative to ways and methods by which instruction in civics and training for citizenship may be improved, twenty-two made no reply. By others the following suggestions were offered: use more illustrative material; require every high school graduate to have it; closer contact with community life; more field work; a *real man* teacher; better texts; a live specialist; make it more practical; make it more local; concerted action by colleges and secondary schools to give emphasis; utilize school activities; more time; deal with living problems; arouse personal interest of students; should be in freshman year to catch students who do not finish high school; use of magazines; laboratory course; make the work for laymen, and not for the few who will become lawyers.

What is needed most in Illinois is a suitable syllabus to guide teachers in the study of community civics.

Submitted by L. A. Fulwider, Chairman.

IOWA

Summary of data collected:

The majority of the schools are offering the work in the last year of the high school. Some are giving the work in the third year, and a few in the first year.

The number of weeks given is mostly eighteen, or one semester. Some schools give two years, but they are divided between the ninth year and the twelfth year. Some schools give but nine weeks.

The percentage of high school students taking government is from fourteen to seventeen per cent.

The text-books in use are Dunn, Forman, Guitteau, James & Sanford, Macy & Geiser, and a few others. Of these Guitteau leads and James & Sanford is second.

From this report of the work which is being done in our state, it is very evident that a great deal should be advised along the line of instruction in government for the high school curriculum.

Under the guise of correlating civil government with history and other subjects the high schools are practically doing nothing in the teaching of government. It seems to me that the schools should be advised first to change their plan of teaching to a community civics plan and to carry the work through two full years of the high school, or four half years of the high school.

One superintendent who is now teaching civics nine weeks, says that it will be impossible to get any more time in his school for civics.

Submitted by A. Palmer, Chairman.

KENTUCKY

1. No syllabus is followed either in common or high schools in teaching civics. The teachers in the main have no guide except the suggestions of the text-books they use. The committee is unanimous in believing a good syllabus would help greatly in getting better results.

2. In Kentucky the law requires that civics be taught in both the common and high schools, and a text-book is adopted by the state for the rural districts and smaller towns. The larger cities are allowed to make their own selections. The common school adopted text is Forman's Essentials in Civil Government; the adopted high school text is Stickles's Elements of Government. Some of the other text-books in use in the state are Dunn's Community and Citizen, Allen's Civics and Health, in the grades, and Garner's Government in the

United States, and Guitteau's and Hinsdale's texts in the high school. It is a lamentable fact, however, that many cities of the state do not offer any civics course in their high schools.

3. When a text-book in civics is used in the common schools, it is always in the upper grades, in the seventh and eighth. The grades below these get practically no training in this subject at all. When they do, it is a few facts poorly correlated with other subjects.

4. To get proper instruction in civics for children below the seventh grade, and to reach those that so frequently stop school before reaching that grade is a hard problem, but one that needs attention badly. The committee agreed that better trained teachers, an awakening to the importance of civics as a subject necessary for good citizenship, a good syllabus rich in suggestiveness, civics fitted to the daily life of the mass of children, and civics connected with reading, language, geography, and history—will help solve the problem.

5. The committee is unanimous in asserting that the teachers in rural, town, and city schools are not properly prepared to do effective work in civics teaching. In fact, very few in Kentucky are prepared to do effective work at present. To help this situation it is recommended that more attention be paid to civics in our colleges, normal schools and high schools, that the "civic viewpoint" be considered whenever possible in history and geography particularly, and in any other work that may lend itself directly to training for intelligent citizenship. Laxity in the granting of teachers' certificates is undoubtedly another reason why teachers are so poorly prepared. Since there is little interest in the teaching of the subject well, it is considered almost as a non-essential, and almost everybody applying for a teacher's license is given it should he or she make fairly good grades in other subjects.

6. In a few towns and cities teachers use magazines and daily papers to interest pupils in current events and civic problems. Many teachers in towns and cities do nothing of this sort, and it is rarely done in rural schools.

7. The civics taught in rural or city schools should be essentially the same. However, since a large part of rural children remain as citizens in rural communities, while they need to know the general civic problems in the relation in which city, state, and nation are interested, need to have greater stress placed on strictly rural problems.

8. Only a very few schoolhouses comparatively in the state are used as social centres. This movement is growing with the training of live teachers who lead and direct communities to the school where

real civic problems are discussed. An aroused interest in economic problems, and greater activities in politics as well as in better schools, better roads, and the school as a social centre will in turn improve teaching in civics.

9. Other suggestions made to push forward better civics work in our public schools were: Too much time is given to studying the machinery of government of the past, not enough to political and social questions of study; the work is not made to mean more civic purity, more obligations and duties to the student of to-day; cut from the subject as much of the technical as possible, and train students to understand the government they live in.

Submitted by A. M. Stickles, Chairman.

MAINE

A. *The Course:*

We find that civics is taught in about all of the schools.

There are, however, a few of the very smallest schools where the subject is not included owing to the crowded condition of the curriculum. In a special letter, which this committee will soon send to the schools of the state, we shall point out the importance of this work and recommend that a place be made for it.

In practically all of the schools, civics is taught for one-half year. This is in line with the practice of the larger schools and is probably all that can be expected owing to the crowded condition of the curriculum and the small number of teachers.

The tendency is to require it of all except the pupils taking the college preparatory course. However, there are yet some schools which make it wholly elective, a condition which we believe should be remedied. The exception in the case of college preparatory pupils is evidently due to the necessity of using all available time for preparation along the special lines required by the colleges and is followed by the larger schools.

The general rule is to offer it in the last two years, especially the senior year. In two of the schools, freshman courses are attempted and in one of these it is in conjunction with another course during the senior year. It is the belief of this committee that if only one course can be given, that should be in the last year. However, we believe that civics on the "community plan" could be started in the grammar grades and might be offered to high school freshmen and sophomores. However, we do not feel that we could rec-

commend that it be required of the lower classmen because we cannot see where a place could be made for it. We feel that community civics for the younger students is a vital problem. However, we feel that in our state, the first problem to be attacked is that of perfecting the more technical course for the upper classes and that the community course may well wait until we get the higher course more nearly perfected.

We regret that the time given to local and state government is very small except in the larger schools. However, we feel that the reason for this is the lack of material on those subjects as applied directly to the local situation and a general lack of knowledge as to how to attack these phases. We feel that better times are ahead. This year the State Department of Education has published an outline for the study of state and local government prepared by Professor Orren C. Hormell of Bowdoin College. This has been distributed throughout the state and this committee will urge its use.

In the teaching of current events the work attempted is gratifying. Most of our schools, even the smallest, are trying to do something with it. The success of the course depends on the amount of time available and unfortunately our teachers are not able to give the time which is necessary for the best results. However, they are alive to the value of this work and a good start has been made.

B. The Equipment:

The text-books are in some cases old and unsatisfactory. However, judging from the majority of cases, we believe that the teachers are selecting the best books available as fast as they are able to introduce new books.

In our small schools there is very little additional equipment; in some cases, none. Our larger schools are well equipped. The main recommendations of this committee will be for better equipment.

In conclusion, we wish to state that Maine began this year on an active campaign for better civics in the schools. In our state teachers' convention, the entire meeting of the principals and superintendents was given over to this problem and the matter occupied most of the time in the meeting of the teachers of history and civics. The State Department of Education is taking an active part as is shown by the outline which it has published. This committee will endeavor to send out soon a special letter to the schools of the state containing recommendations to meet our peculiar problems.

Submitted by Fred D. Wish, Chairman.

MARYLAND

A. *Elementary Schools:*

The elementary schools, as well as the high schools, in all the counties of Maryland follow the course of study laid down by the State Board of Education. This course of study contains an outline for the teaching of government, beginning with the first grade. The two subjects, history and government, are grouped together under the general head of conduct, and it is assumed that the two will be taught in a closely connected way throughout the seven years of the elementary course.¹ A questionnaire relative to the use of the state course of study brought the following results:

Replies were received from twelve of the twenty-three county superintendents of the state, and also from the superintendent of the Baltimore City Schools.

Two of the twelve county superintendents heard from, failed to reply as to the use of the state course, and one expressly asked to be excused from giving an opinion on *any* of the points included in the questionnaire. Three were decidedly of the opinion that the course was not practicable for the country schools, and two of these gave a negative answer also, in regard to the town schools. The third thought it practicable for the upper grades of the town schools. Two admitted that the plan was followed only to a limited extent in both their country and their town schools. Of the remaining four, one considers the course impracticable for the lower grades in both country and town schools; another answers that "it depends on the teacher in both rural and town schools," and says that little is done in the lower grades in his schools; another replies, "I think it can be made practicable in the country schools by correlating it with other subjects and I see no reason why it cannot be made entirely practicable for the town schools"; the last says, "The outline seems a little too full for the country schools, but seems well adapted to the town schools."

In reply to the inquiry as to the extent to which the plan outlined in the course of study is actually carried out in (a) the country schools, and (b) the town schools, not one of the superintendents was able to say that the course was being closely followed in either class of schools in his county. The most of the replies indicate that very little is being done except in the higher grades. The principal reasons given for the failure of the country schools to carry out the course as laid down are:

¹ For a copy of this outline write to the State Board of Education.

(1) lack of time; (2) poorly-trained teachers; (3) too many women teachers.

The superintendents are practically unanimous in saying that the main emphasis should be placed upon the duties and obligations of citizens and community functions rather than upon the organization and operation of government.

B. *Secondary Schools:*

There are twenty-nine high schools of the first group (four-year course) and thirty-six of the second group (three-year course). Replies to the questionnaire have been received from eleven high schools of the first group, and from ten of the second group. These schools represent fourteen counties of the twenty-three in our state. Replies were also received from one of the Baltimore city high schools,¹ and from the state normal school in Baltimore.

The course of study laid down for high schools of the first group by the State Board of Education prescribes a course in civics and United States history for all pupils of the fourth-year class. Four to five periods a week throughout the year are required, the principal having the option of combining the history and civics, or of taking them up separately, devoting one-half of the year to each. The majority of schools reporting combine civics with history. In the second group schools there is less uniformity of procedure, but apparently a fair amount of time is being given to the subject.

Again the text-books used are Phillips' Nation and State, Dole's Civics, Guitteau's Government and Politics in the United States, Boynton's Civics, Fiske's Civil Government, and Steiner's Institutions and Constitution of Maryland. Among those used for supplementary purposes are Ashley's American Government, James and Sanford's Government in State and Nation, Bryce's American Commonwealth, and some of the texts already named.

It is generally agreed that the time devoted to civics in our high schools should be greatly increased. Some think that the present allotment should be doubled; others, that it should be increased to an even greater extent. Several of our most progressive principals suggest cutting down the amount of time devoted to foreign languages and mathematics in order to find time and place for the increase. It is the opinion of your committee that the greatest defect in our course is the fact that the instruction in civics is relegated to the last

¹ Baltimore has a school system independent of State Board of Education.

year of the course. As probably not more than twenty per cent of the pupils who enter our high schools remain until the fourth year, it will readily be seen that some change should be made that will open up the instruction in civics to the great mass of our pupils. This, we believe, can be done by cutting down the required work in foreign languages and mathematics and giving at least two periods per week in civics to all first year pupils.

In most of our schools the greater part of the time allotted to civics is given to national government, and the procedure is from national to state and local. A great many of the teachers seem to realize that they are wrong on both these points, some placing the blame upon the text-books, others, upon the supervisors.

In many of our schools the main emphasis in teaching civics is still placed upon the organization and operation of government rather than upon the duties and obligations of citizens and community functions. Yet most of our teachers seem to feel that the latter is the proper aim and are striving to adapt their instruction to that end as rapidly as possible.

With regard to the use of special devices to supplement their formal instruction, our civics teachers seem to be encouragingly progressive. Many use the civics scrap book and a regular drill in current events. A number have debates on political issues, which are used as a means of correlating civics and oral English. Almost all have non-partisan periodicals for the use of their pupils. The Outlook, The Independent, Current Events, and the Literary Digest are the ones most commonly used. In one or two schools public officials frequently make addresses to civics classes concerning applied politics. In several of our schools the civics classes visit court houses and city council chambers.

In but few of our schools is local government made a subject of personal field investigation by the pupils, nor is much done in the way of studying annual appropriation bills, health reports, etc. Little is done in making surveys. Your committee is of the opinion that at the present time work of this kind cannot be done to advantage by our high school pupils.

Systems of student self-government seem to have been but little tried in our state. One of our principals, who has had experience in other states, expresses the opinion that the School City is usually a failure. Only one principal expresses a favorable opinion on this subject, and it is interesting to observe that this teacher is a very young man and of limited experience.

In regard to what should be the aim of instruction in civics in sec-

ondary schools, our teachers are generally agreed that the main object should be training in the duties of citizenship, rather than a knowledge of the dry facts and technical details of our system of government. They also agree that civics should occupy a more prominent place in the curriculum. Very few consider our present course adequate for giving our pupils the proper training in citizenship. Practically all think that our greatest need in order to improve our work is an increased allotment of time.

Generally speaking, our instructors in civics may be said to be reasonably well qualified. Most of them are college graduates who have specialized in history and government, and a number have taken advanced work, as a rule, at summer sessions at the great universities.

In only five towns out of the twenty-one from which we have heard is any kind of coöperation reported as existing between the school and civic or commercial organizations. In two towns there are women's civic leagues which have coöperated with the school authorities in improving conditions.

Instruction in the Baltimore high schools is similar to that of our first group high schools. In the Baltimore state normal school more time is given to the subject than in our first group high schools, and the work seems to be done in a much more effective way. Forman's Advanced Civics is the text used, and Hart is employed for supplementary purposes. The method of procedure is from local to state and national, and the main emphasis is placed upon the duties and obligations of citizens and community functions.

Submitted by C. H. Kolb, Chairman.

MASSACHUSETTS

	Questionnaire sent to	Answers received
Public high schools	258	141
Private high schools	7	2
Private schools (boys)	39	22
Private schools (girls)	36	14
Private schools (coeducational)	6	4
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	346	183
Schools reporting no courses given:		
Elementary private schools	8	
Public high schools	5	
Advanced private schools	6	

Answers to Questions:

1. What courses in civics are given in the elementary grades?

No answer	44
Yes	33
None in school	57
With United States history	14
With general courses	5
No grades in school	6

The 7th, 8th and 9th grades are specified. The 9th or last year of elementary work usually has the preference.

2. What courses in civics are given in the first two years of the high or preparatory school?

None	75
Yes	9
Community civics	62
With American history	10

Usually for one-half year or twenty weeks. The courses range from five hours a week for the year to three hours a week for the half year.

3. In the second two years of the same?

None	18
Yes	32
Advanced civics	26
With United States history	76
College preparation	4
General courses	7

i. e., economics, current events, informal talks, etc.

Usually found in fourth year and as a half course.

4. Do you distinguish between the framework of government and the community or social civics which treats of the functions of government?

Yes	103
No	13
No answer	14
Both treated	22
Framework only	3
Community civics only	2

Usually find first two years devoted to community civics and last two devoted to the framework.

5. What books are in use? State title and author.

None

Dunn—Community and the Citizen	64
Guitteau—Government and Politics in U. S.	34
Fiske—Civil Government	33
Ashley—American Government	23
Boynton—School Civics	12
James and Sanford—Government in State and Nation	10
Martin—Elements of Civil Government	10
Garner—Government of the United States	8
Nida—City, State, and Nation	6
Beard—American Citizenship	6
Guitteau—Preparing for Citizenship	5
Forman—Advanced Civics	4
“ American Republic	3
“ Elementary Civics	2

A few others are mentioned once or twice.

Periodicals:

Survey, Literary Digest, Outlook, Independent, Review of Reviews.

6. What form of syllabus is used?

No answer	41
None	43
Bulletin No. 23 U. S. Department Education	35
Teachers' own	22
New England History Teachers' Association	8
Found in text-book	6
Others mentioned at least once:	
Hill, Butler, Hart, consular reports.	

7. What methods of instruction are employed?

No answer	34
Text and recitations	56
Local investigation, trips, reports	75
Collateral reading	13
Discussion on practical subjects	32
Notebooks compiled from reports and newspapers, etc.	11
Debates and forum	11
Topical assignments	10
Lectures by public men	11
Informal talks to school	7
Magazine assignments and discussion	6
Laboratory method	6

Current events discussed	5
Self-governing organizations	3
Coöperation with English department	1
Coöperation with town departments	1
8. Are the teachers required to have any preparation for this work?	
No answer	18
None required	50
Preparation required (not specified)	51
General preparation	23
College preparation	5
Wide preparation	4
Assumed	3
9. What suggestions or recommendations would you make for broadening the usefulness of this subject?	
None, 73	
Closer to community life.	
Marked emphasis on personal citizenship and its obligations.	
Personal service and observation.	
Compulsory attendance at town meetings, courts, etc.	
Sense of responsibility encouraged.	
More emphasis for those who do not attend college.	
Clearing house in state for distribution of information.	
Added enthusiasm of teacher.	
Begin in elementary school and continue to grade.	
More conferences for teachers of the subject.	
Required in every high school.	
Increase to full college entrance unit.	
More trained teachers.	
More college courses for training of teachers.	
Extended use of public night schools in citizenship.	
Live teachers—less text-book.	
More text-book.	
Extended use of Bulletin No. 23.	
Text-book based on Bulletin No. 23.	
Increased sources of information.	
Extended use of survey of conditions.	
More laboratory work.	
More home discussion.	
Self-government in every school.	
Explanatory speeches by officials of the town or city.	
More time, broader scope, larger emphasis, compulsory, etc.	

- Correlate with other subjects.
 - Less technical language.
 - Text-books to fit local conditions.
 - Protection of teachers from political pressure.
 - More emphasis on economics or sociology.
 - Remove it from lower grades in small schools in country districts.
 - Colleges demand framework—schools teach social aspect.
- Submitted by E. W. Cottrell, State Representative.

MICHIGAN

Twenty-eight schools reporting.

Number enrolled in these schools 12,782.

In what year of school is government taught?

Twenty-five teach civics in the fourth year of high school.

One in the second year.

One in the third year.

One in the third or fourth year.

Number of hours per week:

One reports eight hours per week.

Twenty-four report five hours per week.

Two report four hours.

One three hours.

Number of weeks in the course:

Two report six weeks.

Two " ten weeks.

Four " twelve weeks.

One " fourteen weeks.

One " sixteen weeks.

One " nineteen weeks.

Seven " twenty weeks.

One " thirty-two weeks.

Five " thirty-eight weeks.

Three " forty weeks.

One " forty-eight weeks.

It is difficult to draw conclusions from the above report on the number of weeks in the courses as there was some confusion in regard to what was meant by a separate or combined course. I think that some of the longer courses include the whole course where two terms were given to history and then one term devoted to civics

alone. Some called such an arrangement a combined history and civics course.

Is government required or elective?

Twelve report required with an enrollment of 907 in classes now.
Eleven report elective with an enrollment of 362 in classes now.
Total enrollment of those in classes now 1,269, five schools do not report on this point.

Is the course in civics separate or combined with history?

Nine report that the course is separate.
Twenty-one report that the course is combined with history.

What text-book do you use, if any?

One reports Forman, Advanced Civics.
Two report Forman, The American Republic.
Two report Garner, Government in the United States.
Nine report Guitteau, Government and Politics in the United States.
One reports Hinsdale, American Government.
One reports Haskins, American Government.
Seven report James and Sanford, Government in State and Nation.
Seven report that they do not use a text-book.

One school gives a course entirely different from the rest. Detroit Central High School devotes its whole twenty weeks of government to the study of city problems. No national or state civics are taught, and but two weeks to the organization of the city government and all the rest to city problems.

What are the supplementary books used? Among those in use are:

Ashley, American Government.
Bryce, American Commonwealth.
Forman, Advanced American Government.
Garner, Government in the United States.
Guitteau, Government and Politics in the United States.
Haskins, American Government.

What are the principal defects in the present text-books?

Six report that they are not practical enough. Too much theory of government.
Five report that they are dead and formal.
Four report that there is too little local government.
Three report that there is not enough about present-day problems, social and economic.
Two report that they are not accurate.

Two report that there is much detail about the government, but not enough about the workings of the government as a whole. Two report that they are very satisfactory. There are many excellent texts.

One reports that they are not scholarly. They make a cheap bid for popularity.

One, not up to date.

One, not "dynamic," whatever that may mean.

One, indefinite, language hard for the students to understand.

I notice some tendency for teachers to be influenced by the particular book they are using. If they like it, all books seem good, if not, civics text-books are pretty bad.

Does government get a fair allotment of time compared with other studies?

Four said it does.

One said it depended on the teacher.

Twenty said it does not.

Three did not report on this point.

Time allotment for different phases of civics.

In combining the answers to this question I find that national government gets almost half the time, state and local government, the other half.

What devices are used to supplement regular text-book work?

Ten form a civic scrap book.

Twenty-two have a weekly drill in current events, one has a monthly drill and one, a daily drill in current events.

Twenty-three have debates on political issues.

Nineteen have classes read non-partisan periodicals.

Fifteen have talks to classes by public officials.

Fourteen visit court houses and city officers with classes.

Two have mock city councils.

One has a mock court.

Two have a mock senate.

Two have mock elections.

Two watch the enforcement of law in the city.

One each of the following:

Visits to state legislature.

Visits to board of education.

Student house of representatives.

Separate class in magazine reading.

Good citizenship league.

Names of periodicals used in classes:

- One uses Current Opinion.
- Seven, The Independent.
- Eight, The Literary Digest.
- One, The New York Evening Post.
- Three, The Outlook.
- One, The Survey.
- One, World's Work.

Preparation for teaching government.

Schools Attended:

- University of Michigan, fourteen.
- University of Wisconsin, one.
- Olivet College, four.
- Normal College, Ypsilanti, two.
- University of Alabama, one.
- Teachers' College, Columbia, two.
- University of Illinois, one.
- University of Chicago, one.
- Hillsdale College, Michigan, one.
- Vassar College, one.

Degrees secured:

- Four, A. M.
- Thirteen, A. B.
- Two, Ph. B.
- One, M. S.
- One, B. S.
- One, LL. B.
- One, B. L.

Twenty-three out of twenty-eight have degrees from colleges or universities and of these, six have degrees in advance of the bachelor's degree.

Of these, seventeen have specialized in history and government; one each in history and English; German and history; law; science; English and history.

Submitted by Carl E. Pray, State Representative.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

A. *Elementary Schools:*

I. The state department is now at work upon a new elementary program which will be issued some time this year.

II. The elementary schools of the state pay special attention to

civics in the eighth grade. The study of the Constitution of New Hampshire is obligatory. Other topics covered are:

1. The Constitution and Government of the United States. This includes the work of the great departments.
2. Government of New Hampshire. Work in agriculture, forestry, education, etc.
3. Local Government. Administration of town or city in which the pupil lives.
4. Civics of the schoolroom, building, and playground.
5. Civics of the family. The personal virtues.

B. *Secondary Schools:*

1. The state course of study as prepared by the State Department of Public Instruction is used by the majority of the secondary schools. The course is known as the Constitutional History of the United States. All Seniors are required to take the course for the entire year, four periods per week of at least forty minutes each.

Various additional lines of study are employed to give special interest and instruction to particular topics, as:—

Class organization into house of Congress or state legislatures or town meetings where the actual workings of these bodies are participated in by the entire class, bills are passed or deliberated upon.

Debates on current events.

The local city government is dramatized in each school and local conditions discussed.

Courts are organized and trials conducted.

Athletic organizations and other school societies are taught to conduct their elections upon the basis of a political campaign.

Field work includes visits to city and town offices, consultation of records; attendance at municipal meetings.

Library instruction is gained through constant study of topics for investigation by individuals with reports both oral and written.

Emphasis is laid upon the ability of each pupil to stand and speak fluently upon all topics under discussion.

C. *Normal Schools:*

Neither of the schools offers a distinct course in civics. The state program is followed, and the prospective teachers are taught to use it in the practice schools.

Submitted by Guy E. Speare, Chairman.

NEW YORK

1. *Course of Study:*

In New York state the civics course is combined with American history in the fourth year of high school. Together they get 38 weeks, in some schools of four periods, in most of five. Of this time, in practically every school less than 30% is given to civics alone, partly because in the examination most weight has generally been given to history. One might add, too, most teachers flounder when they get beyond the rule of a compendious text-book, and limit the subject to the material that demands of them the least physical and mental exertion. Naturally that material is text-book material.

2. (a) *Text-books:*

Without setting down a compilation more valuable for advertising purposes than for real enlightenment on the respective merit of the text-books, we may say that chief mention was made of Guitteau, Ashley, Forman, James and Sanford, Garner, Boynton, Hoxie and Sullivan, the last three dealing especially with New York state.

(b) *Supplementary Works:*

Congressional Record, City Record, Bryce, Beard—American Government and Politics, Beard—Readings in American Government and Politics, Reinsch—Readings, Kaye—Readings, several numbers of the Brooklyn Eagle library including the City Charters, Tenement House Laws, etc., Federal documents such as the Year Book of the Department of Agriculture, Almanacs (for statistical abstracts), state documents, publications of city departments, etc. The Municipal Year Book of New York City for 1912 is often mentioned. That of 1915, just out, is far better, and will probably be used extensively. Such magazines as *The Outlook*, *Literary Digest*, etc., were often spoken of, and more rarely newspapers. Proceedings of legislative bodies were also listed.

3. *Defects of Text-books:*

As to the faults of text-books several teachers called attention to their emphasis on the organization rather than on the operations of government. Some stated that "they lack an interesting presentation of the subject" but neglected to say in what respect. One might deduce from other answers that this was due to the purely bookish character of the presentation, which failed to set problems, the greatest aid to interest. It is objected that text-books lay stress on ma-

chinery rather than functions; that they lack concrete illustration as to the actual work done by various officials. In fact the feeling seems to be that the text-book makers are in the conspiracy to render government "invisible"—certainly opaque.

4. *Distribution of Time to National, State and Local Government:*

The answers here were few and disappointing. In the main the preponderance of time was given to national government, although some regret was expressed that more could not be spent on local. The average proportion of time was 20 periods to federal government, 20 to state, and 10 to local, with the understanding that a good deal of federal civics had been taught along the way with American history.

5. *Order of Procedure:*

The majority began with local government, although the order was sometimes varied to fit the text-books. The syllabus for New York state suggests going from local through state to federal. Yet one of our best text-books on state and local government proceeds from state to local, with gratifying results.

On the whole the answer seems to be that the order should be natural, proceeding from the *material* and not the text-book. Chapters for a good text-book can make any order logical. For if instruction is only from a text-book how is local government any nearer than national?

Let us assume, however, that we do really objective teaching—that we treat the text as a manual for occasional reference on the forms of government, so that the pupil can organize his real data—the road he sees being built or the quarantine sign on the door or the notice of the sheriff's sale on the telegraph-pole, then the thing he sees first, probably facts of local government, will furnish his best point of approach to his new subject.

6. *Devices to Supplement Civics Teaching, such as:*

- (a) A civics scrap book.
- (b) Weekly drill in current events.
- (c) Debates on political issues.
- (d) Reading of a non-partisan periodical by class.
- (e) Talks to classes by public officials concerning applied politics.
- (f) Mention any other devices used to supplement formal instruction in classes.

(a) Several answered yes—composed of clippings (filibustering, home rule in cities), of accounts of visits to public institutions, and of study of budget reports, etc.

(b) Often engaged in—but not in any formal way.

(c) Generally done, although it would seem that this work should be standardized in coöperation with the English department, which emphasizes argumentation in the year civics is studied. In one school it was the custom for the civics teacher to supervise the compilation of material for debates, giving credit for it, whereas the English department rated it on form and style.

(d) Gratifyingly the rule. Many of these have been named in answer to (2). One might suggest that newspapers deserve a better trial than they have received. These are, if you rule out inspired articles and editorials, and accept press reports, real sources on civil government, and the political guide of the average voter. One teacher used them, explaining how his first attempt to distinguish obiter dicta from real news was most satisfactory in that the same article was presented from three papers of widely different attitudes on every question.

(e) Occasional. In New York City the pupils are addressed by public officials from the health and police departments to inspire them with a spirit of coöperation and helpfulness to those special departments.

(f) Bulletin boards, visits to courts, addresses by students in assembly, use of ballots and other illustrative material in class.

7. *Personal Field Investigation, Surveys and Study of Annual Reports.*

The answer in this case was on the whole negative with respect to field work. The city schools do, however, study the budget and many public documents. The work evidently fails because it is not systematic. Civic publications are not used enough when we consider their accessibility and value. The problem of city planning is touched on by some. Others require a comparison of receipts and expenditures for local state and federal government, and with a justification or the reverse of the relative amounts spent.

8. *System of Student Self-government:*

In secondary schools there is little of self-government and no instance of its thorough application. Yet every school in New York City has some form of it. In one at least they use a system of class captains or monitors with good results. In every one there is some

form of general organization, with a supervising board largely representative, which is elected under regular forms. Formal self-government is treated with suspicion.

9. *Special Preparation to Teach Civics:*

In the larger cities, especially New York, special training seems to be the rule. In smaller communities most of the teachers have civics because they "fell into it" as the tag end of a mixed program. Even in normal schools civics is often taught by a German or mathematics teacher, who is hired for his ability to teach these subjects, and takes civics because there is not enough in his chosen field to keep him busy.

10. *General Conclusions of the Committee:*

It is not so much a syllabus that is needed as a method. The problem differs in states, cities and even wards of a city, and the material at hand is in every case the proper material, if the knowledge to be gained is to be actual and character forming. It is our business to take this accessible material and bring it before the pupil, that by concrete instruction and experience he may, through greater interest, learn better and perhaps learn more.

As for our opinion on the questionnaires, we stand united on all except order of procedure and the question of a separate course. Our opinions on these important questions are: On order of procedure there was a close division as to whether we had better start with state or federal government. It was decided that wherever it should be possible to get 100 periods of American history and 100 periods of civics, with separate examinations, we should start with state civics but in case we do not get this arrangement, we should start with the national government. In most schools in the first term of the senior year, American history is taught down to 1865. At the beginning of the second term the history is concluded and civics at once started. It seems natural to take national government in that event first since the pupil has just been studying its history. But in case the civics course is to be distinct from history, the order should be state, local and national since the state is the source of all local authority and we must derive local functions from delegation on the part of the state. Since we are agreed that a brief study of the outline of the organization of government and a consideration of some of its underlying principles should be given to the pupil to make his work on the details of functions coherent and intelligible, we decided that state must precede local in any event.

We voted for 100 periods of each with distinct examinations. We

felt that since a good deal of history since 1900 is incidental to civics, the history could be covered in 100 periods.

We wish to recommend in the main the New England syllabus with modifications we will suggest later.

Submitted by Wm. W. Rogers, Chairman.

NORTH DAKOTA

1. Practically all schools follow the state high school manual and the requirement of the State Board of Education, 5 hrs., 18 wks., fourth year required of Seniors.
2. (a) Text—Boyle, James E., *Government in North Dakota*, almost exclusively.
3. Criticisms of Text—Out of touch with life as a boy sees it; local government overlooked.
4. Order of Procedure—National to state and local, following text: Session of Congress or legislature influences the order.
5. Current Events are widely used and some periodical (*Independent, Outlook, Review of Reviews, Current Events*,—daily newspaper, etc.) is usually read. Officials address classes here and there. Sometimes reports of local officials are used and their meetings attended. Reports given in class by students. Talks by teacher on local subjects and notes taken on them. Debates are not used very widely.
6. Practical devices and personal field investigation used only to a limited extent.
7. Is present instruction regarded satisfactory? Yes. Many, however, answer "No" because of inadequate correlation with life.
8. Training of teachers. No special preparation generally.
9. Coöperation with public officials and civic agencies. Half answer none; half answer that bankers, lawyers, etc., address the class in civics at times.

Submitted by A. T. Vollweiler, Chairman.

OHIO

A. *Elementary Schools:*

A state law requires the teaching of civics in the elementary schools in connection with United States history. In most schools, the pupils do not have a text-book in civics, but the instruction is given in connection with the work in history.

In too many elementary schools, especially in the rural schools, the

attention is given to a study of the Federal Constitution and the actual work done by the government, in the locality where the child lives is neglected. Very often the teachers of history have had little or no training in civics, and are not prepared to give it the attention it should have. In a graded school system teachers have more time and usually give more attention to it.

The appearance of some elementary books dealing with the actual working of governments has called the attention of teachers to this phase of the work and they are giving instruction that will show much better results. Teachers are giving more time to the subject now, than formerly, so that there is an improvement in civics teaching, throughout the state.

B. *Secondary Schools*—(a) *Weak Points*:

1. In many secondary schools, the text-books in use are rather inadequate and often behind the march of governmental changes. It is necessary for text-books in civics to be revised every few years, and teachers and boards of education should see to it that up-to-date editions are in use.

2. Not enough time is given to it. American history and civics make a year's work, and often almost all the time is used for the history. It would be a better plan, if the course could be arranged so that a half year could be given to civics.

3. There is too often a lack of supplementary material. Pupils do not have access to books other than their text-books, and no government reports and documents are provided for the pupils' use. Much supplementary material may be had at little cost, and teachers should attend to getting it for their classes.

4. Too many teachers have not had the proper preparation for teaching civics well. In many small secondary schools, the teacher of civics must teach several other branches and cannot make the preparation necessary for the best teaching. It is sometimes shifted from one teacher to another.

5. The course for the secondary schools is usually so arranged that civics comes in either the third or fourth year. Since so many pupils who enter the secondary schools never complete the course, it necessarily follows that many of them never get the work in civics. A partial solution of this problem would be to emphasize this subject to a greater degree in the elementary school. It might be taught earlier in the secondary school, but it seems best to have it come after the other work in history has been completed.

6. In many schools the instruction is not closely enough connected with the actual working of the government. There are the local officers in every community, and pupils should be taught to understand the local government. Sometimes the instruction is carried on as if the government was a fixed thing and pupils do not understand that it is changing all the time. They should be shown how every citizen has a part in the management of affairs, and an earnest effort should be made to instill in the minds of pupils a high ideal of citizenship.

(b) *Strong Points:*

1. In many small secondary schools civics receives very little attention, but in those of the best grade it is required for graduation. This recognizes its importance as a prominent factor in the education of the future citizen. It is usually taught in the last year and is combined with United States history. From one-third to one-half the time devoted to history and civics is given to the latter.

2. Teachers generally make an effort to impress upon their pupils the responsibilities of citizenship. The attention of the pupil is called to many distinct acts, such as the work of the local, state, and national officers in the community where the school is located, and he begins to realize that the life of the community in which he lives is very complex. In addition to this, teachers try to have pupils understand their relations to other members of society and their duties and responsibilities as citizens.

3. In our better secondary schools teachers are trying to relate the actual working of governmental machinery and the theoretical discussion of the text-book. They are doing this by using the reports of various commissions and officers, the Congressional Record, magazine articles, and newspapers.

Submitted by L. O. Lantis, Chairman.

VIRGINIA

A. *Preparation of the Teachers of Civics:*

Three sources of information lay open to us, the report of the department of education, the catalogues of the colleges, and the replies to the questionnaire. All of the information in the possession of the department is embodied in its annual report for the year 1914-1915. From this we learn that in the session 1914-1915 there were in the state 1,320 high school teachers. Of these, 630—48%—had at-

tended a standard college two or more years. ("Standard" is used in contrast to the "Junior" college which is also recognized by the department of education.) How many of the 630 "college trained teachers" had attended college two years, and how many three or four years, it was impossible to ascertain either from the report or from the department. All of the standard colleges except one offer one or more courses in political science. These courses are elective except in one college and are usually given in the junior or senior year. We may safely assume that of the 630 "college trained teachers" none who attended college two years only had taken any course in political science, and many of those who attended three or four years did not select it as one of their electives. And certainly some of those who did take political science are teaching other subjects and not civics. On the other hand, we have another source from which to draw our teachers. There were 118 graduates of normal schools teaching in the high schools in 1914-1915. Practically all of these had taken some work intended to fit them to teach civics. Though it is true of course, that not all of the 118 were teaching civics.

As stated above, all of the standard colleges and universities of the state, except Virginia Polytechnic Institute offer one or more courses in political science. In one college only, is the course required. These courses as a rule are open to the objection—as far as the preparation of the teachers of civics is concerned—that they deal with the *theory* of government to the exclusion of the structure and the function of government. The four normal schools offer courses in civics and civics teaching which are required for those who are training to teach in the upper grammar grades or the high schools. The questionnaire replies are too indefinite to be used except to confirm the conclusion which the above facts seem to warrant, viz.: A large number, perhaps 50 per cent, of the teachers of civics in the high schools of the state have had no special preparation to fit them for their position.

B. *Text-Books and Syllabus:*

So far as we can learn there never has been any civics syllabus, outline, or other helpful material published in the state. The recent course of study for the high schools of Virginia contains the following statement for the guidance and help of the civics teachers. . . . "The study of civics is as far as possible to be correlated with the study of history, and civics should be taught, especially in its relation to citizenship. Local government, municipal government, state and federal government should be taken up in order. The proper study

of the county or city as a unit of government will add greatly to the preparation for intelligent citizenship, . . ." p. 28.

"With American history comes civics. If civics is taught in the first or second year Forman's Essentials in Civil Government is the text to be used, if in the third or fourth year Forman's Advanced Civics," p. 29. The state reading course contains no book on its list of direct value to the teacher of civics.

C. Time Allotment, etc:

The state course of study requires that civics be taught in the last year of the high school in connection with American history. One hundred and eighty forty-minute periods are required for the two during the session. No provision is made as to the division of the time between the two. The replies to the questionnaire were comparatively so few and of such an unsatisfactory nature that but little weight can be placed upon them. From the replies received we learn the time allotted civics varies from 36 to 90 periods per session. The replies were about evenly divided as to the sufficiency of the time allotment and the adequacy of the courses to train for citizenship. The only suggestion as to how this training could be better given was that some work along this line should be undertaken in each grade beginning with the fourth grade and continuing throughout the high school.

The order followed is usually that of the text, national, state, local. On the other hand, a large percentage follow the order, local, state, national. A very large percentage stress the duties of citizenship rather than the form or function of government, and with few exceptions some devices are employed to vitalize the subject such as debates, newspaper reports, discussions of current events, and local excursions. The replies to this question form the one bright spot upon a rather dull sky.

Submitted by J. M. Lear, Chairman.

WASHINGTON

A. Normal Schools:

There are three normal schools in this state, two of which report courses in civics. These courses are classified as of high school rank, and no courses are offered in the methods of teaching civics. The teachers who have charge of the work are well trained but not in this special line: the work is in the hands of women teachers who majored in English. Few devices, such as visiting court, civics scrap books,

debates, talks by professional men, etc., are used in any of the normal schools. Each school states definitely that the average teacher going out into the rural or graded work is not sufficiently prepared to teach the subject of government. The normal schools recommend the use of the combined American history and civics course for secondary schools and believe that a suitable book could and should be prepared for use in the grades.

B. Civics in the Schools of Spokane, Seattle and Tacoma.

1. Elementary Schools:

In Spokane six weeks are given to the study of civics, the work being based on Reinsch's Civil Government. In Seattle and Tacoma instruction in civics begins in the 6th grade. It is presented incidentally in connection with a study of the history of the state of Washington. From this time on local civics is emphasized, with the aim to create in the child a consciousness of his immediate social environment. In the last half of the 8th grade a text is used,—Dunn, *The Community and The Citizen*.

2. High Schools:

In the high schools of Spokane a separate elective semester course in civics is offered in the second, third and fourth years. Forman's American Republic is made the basis of the work, supplemented by the city charter, state constitution, and collateral reading. About one-third of the semester is devoted to a consideration of municipal and state government, and the development of the subject proceeds from national to state and local forms. The main emphasis in one high school is laid upon the organization and operation of government, in the other, upon the duties and obligations of citizens.

The course in civics in Seattle and Tacoma is for one semester and is open to juniors and seniors. The class meets five times per week. A one semester course is offered in United States history. This course is separate from the civics and is not a prerequisite for the course in civics or vice versa. However, students that take the civics usually take the United States history also, because of the recommendation of the history faculty and the expressed preference of the University of Washington for United States history and civics as the year's history required for entrance. In two out of six courses in Seattle civics is a required subject; in one out of four courses it is a required subject in Tacoma.

In Seattle the text used is James and Sanford, *Government in*

State and Nation. In Tacoma it is Guitteau, Government and Politics in the United States. Supplementary to the text the following are reported as being used: Bryce, American Commonwealth; Haskins, American Government; Hart, Actual Government; Beard, American Government; Chandler, History of the State of Washington; the State Constitution and the City Charter.

The unanimous opinion of the teachers is that one semester provides ample time for the teaching of civics as a separate course. The complaint is just as unanimous that civics is not required in all courses and that too few follow up the civics with the study of economics.

The order of development is generally to proceed from local to state and national affairs. All of the teachers report an extensive use of periodical literature and the special devices to increase interest in current events and the practical obligations of citizenship. The preparation of the teachers in these schools is adequate and the work as a rule satisfactory.

C. Town and Smaller City High Schools of Washington:

The material in this report has been gathered from the replies to a questionnaire sent out to the accredited high schools of the state, outside of Seattle, Spokane, and Tacoma. Fifty-five replies have been received from high schools whose enrollment runs from thirty-five to nine hundred and fifty.

The course in civics is a one semester course required of practically all students in the junior, or senior year, and alternates with a semester of American history. The course as offered follows closely the course as outlined in the State Manual, and is usually given in the second semester of each school year. The only variation from this plan that the replies to the questionnaire reveal is the one-year combined American history and civics course.

A wide range of text-books is in use—Ashley leads with thirteen schools reporting its use, and Guitteau, Garner, Chandler and Forman follow in the order named. The new combined American history and civics by Professor West is receiving favorable comment and some use. As supplementary texts, a large number of books are in use, including Bryce, Ashley, Reinsch, Beard, Wilson, etc.

Wide difference of opinion is found among the school men of the state as to whether a sufficient amount of time is now given to the study of civics. While twenty-two of those reporting desire a longer period of time in which to do justice to the subject, eleven others express the opinion that we now have enough time for the proper in-

culcation of the ideas and ideals we desire to impress providing the time is properly used and the work vigorously prosecuted.

In the relative amounts of time given to each division of the subject the standard seems to be to devote one-third of the time to each division. The most notable variation from this scheme is the giving of one-half of the time to the national government and one-fourth each to state and local government. Two schools report that one-half of the time is given to local government, and the other half divided between national and state. If error is made in this respect in Washington, it is, we should say, in giving too much time to the national government and not enough to local government.

Two-thirds of the schools report that they develop the government of the nation first, passing afterwards to the state and local governments.

Defects in Text-Books:

The defect most often mentioned is that they do not cover state and community requirements, and from the nature of things that is impossible. A more just criticism is that they do not sufficiently emphasize the duties of citizenship. Likewise the criticism is in most cases just that they do not discuss the newer forms of government,—commission form, etc. We are not as one in what constitutes the ideal text, for one teacher finds the text at fault in being too general, while another criticizes another text for giving too much attention to details. In the same way, one teacher complains that the texts do not link the past to the present, while another declares the texts at fault for paying too much attention to the history of the institutions. A number complain that the texts in use are too technical and abstract, and give too much attention to form. Charges that the texts are not pedagogical, that they ought to present the fundamentals of elementary law, and that they do not correlate the work with history, economics and other subjects, call attention to the difficulties of the book makers in pleasing all the teachers of the subject. The observation of one superintendent so aptly covers our own impression of the matter that we are pleased to quote it. "There may be some defects, but the improvements in modern text-books on civics is so apparent that we ought to be satisfied for a time."

Plan of Instruction in Government:

Eight teachers of civics frankly state that their plan is to develop the organization of government and show how it works, while twenty-

two others just as frankly declare that they plan for the training of their students in the duties and obligations of citizenship. Twelve teachers declare that their plan covers both sides of the question, and by developing the organization and operation of government, they seek to develop the sense of the responsibilities of citizenship.

Aids in Teaching:

In some twenty schools a civics scrap book is maintained, and in others a bulletin board in the class room gives opportunity to post clippings, pictures and other items of interest. Practically all the schools have frequent drill in current events, and since the State Department of Education organizes and carries through a very extensive series of inter-high-school debates, which are political or economic in nature, they also have frequent debates. Over half of the schools reporting have talks by people in authority. The use of magazines, of which the Digest leads, with the Independent, Outlook, Current Opinion and the Review of Reviews in order, is also reported. Several interesting special developments may be noted: trips or tours, classes organized as clubs or political bodies, research work and reports on special municipal topics, elections, etc. Through visits to courts, city halls, etc., and by interviews with officials, two-thirds of the schools are able to awake a large degree of interest in local affairs.

Realization of Aims:

Those who have made special preparation to teach this work have no hesitation in saying that it is the most important of the subjects in the high school curriculum, and others place it on a par with any of the other work. Few there are who do not feel that civics is essential to the person of ordinary intelligence. Many of the teachers feel that the instruction in civics would be more far-reaching if it were better correlated with history, economics, English, and other high school subjects. In that way only can its academic flavor be lost and can it become a part of the life of the students.

A considerable number of teachers believe that when the elementary work is well done we are realizing the aims of civics teaching in as large a measure as the immaturity of the pupils and the limited time at our disposal permit. On the other hand, a much larger number of teachers believe we are falling far short of our ideals. Several would like time to trace out some of the bearings of political action upon economic problems or sociology. Over and over, complaint is made that nothing can be done except to present the framework of govern-

ment because the time allotment is so short. Others feel that the near-at-home problems have had no consideration, and the pupils are too immature to get the full significance of the work.

D. Final Summary and Recommendations:

1. Civics should be a required subject for graduation in every course in the high school.

2. To provide training in citizenship for the great number of our high school students who attend high school only for one or two years, a course should be offered in the freshman or sophomore year. The subject-matter of this course should be largely sociological. If a separate course of this kind is impossible in any high school, then there could be substituted regular work in current history or current events, the material to be gathered from periodical literature and newspapers. Work of this kind could be done either in connection with the regular English or history courses in the freshman and sophomore years. Whether the course suggested were provided or the substitute, the object would be to awaken the students to a knowledge of and an interest in the social life and problems of their own time. We need to vitalize the work for the girls to the end that they may be as intelligently trained for the suffrage as the boys.

3. The subject-matter of civics as now taught in the third or fourth year of high school should include more of the practice and less of the theory of government. It should emphasize what a citizen can do and how he can do it. There should be a well defined plan for the study of present day problems. Local government and the problems of the students' immediate social environment should receive more attention.

4. Along with a change in subject-matter there should be a change in methods of instruction. A variety of devices should be resorted to in order to vitalize the subject and make it as far as possible experimental for each student. Such devices include scrap books, bulletin boards for the posting of clippings, talks to the class by local officers, visits to centres of community interest, debates, etc. The survey upon which this report and these recommendations are based shows that civics teachers are eager to avail themselves of such devices, but the crowded program of the rural and small town teacher leaves little time or opportunity for originality in methods of instruction. The way to help such teachers is to suggest such devices as have been found practicable and give full details for their use.

5. The work in civics should be thoroughly standardized by the use of outlines, and, if necessary, by uniform examinations.

6. The State Board of Education should provide at cost to the high schools of the state, a state manual. This manual should contain outlines and helps for the teaching of local and state civics. It should also contain portions of the State Constitution and a brief of State history.

7. There should be full and adequate training in civics and in the teaching of civics provided in the normal schools of the state for all graded and rural teachers. Every teacher should have the preparation to fit him to give instruction in citizenship and such instruction should be given in one way or another by every teacher. The fact that the teaching of civics is assigned to a particular teacher as a separate course, does not relieve other teachers from the responsibility of teaching citizenship any more than the fact that emphasis is placed on spelling and grammar in a particular division of the school discharges other teachers from giving attention to these subjects. Since the development of the "citizen spirit" is the great justification for devoting time to civics in the high school, we must secure teachers who have not only the facts of the subject, but also an ardor and "citizenship spirit" which are contagious.¹

Submitted by A. C. Roberts, Chairman.

WEST VIRGINIA

The greater number of our high schools follow the direction of our state manual as to the time given to the teaching of government, that is, they give one semester of the senior year to the subject of government exclusively. Five recitation periods per week are devoted to it for a period of eighteen weeks and one-half credit is granted for the completion of the work. There are variations, however, from the mean average as to time. In some of the smaller high schools, government as a specific subject is not taught at all, and in many of the larger ones a whole year is now devoted to it. The number of high schools which do not teach government as a specific subject of their programs is very few, and the number of schools that are adding another half year is steadily increasing.

The course in government is elective in some high schools, but in the majority of them it is regarded so highly as to be a required subject.

¹ The committee also submitted a suggested plan of course for the elementary school, junior high school and fourth year high school. As the essential features of this plan are embodied in the recommendations of the Committee of Seven (pp. 78-111) it was thought unnecessary to include the plan here.

The requirement for American history and government in the stronger high schools is almost as universal as the requirement for English. It is the opinion of most of those who answered our questionnaire that the subject of government is one of the most important and most practical that can be taught in a democratic republic.

In schools which give a whole year to government, the first course is generally one in community civics, a course which lays emphasis upon local conditions and local government. This course is a new one and is not yet required to any great extent, although it is regarded as a very valuable addition to the program of studies. It is usually given in the first year with Dunn's Community Civics as a text, supplemented by a study of local conditions.

The course in advanced civics is usually given in the fourth year, and consists of a study of our whole governmental system, local, state and national. This is the course that is generally required. In addition to this course, economics is given in a few high schools as an elective subject.

Forman's *The American Republic* is the favored text in West Virginia, since it is adopted by the state school book board. There are several high schools which by reason of the dense population of the community where they are located, are not bound by the action of the board. These schools have various texts: Forman's, Ashley's, Guitteau's, Garner's, James and Sanford's, and Andrews's *Manual of the Constitution*. The one last named is used in a preparatory school, not a high school. One school reported no special text which of course means no special study of the subject.

As to reference books, supplementary works, etc., many answered "too numerous to mention." Among those mentioned are Bryce's *American Commonwealth*, Beard's books on the subject, Fiske's *Critical Period*, Ashley's *American Federal State*, Taussig's *Tariff History*, Garner's *Introduction to Political Science*, various other texts on government, the *Congressional Record*, public documents, constitutions, treaties and current magazines. It seems that our first class high schools are well provided with reference books.

Many and varied comments were made concerning defects in the text-books. Several of these follow. "The emphasis is wrongly placed, too much national and too little local." "Too much organization and operation, too little of duties and obligations of citizens." "Illogical arrangement, along with absence of clarification and of emphasis of fundamentals." "Too much theory." "They are not written for secondary work." "Too wordy and too abstract." "Too

much form and not enough actual working." "Not up to date." "No supplement for the state government." The last comment refers to the lack of any description of any sort of the government of the particular state in which the subject is taught. A few of those who answered said they were very well satisfied with their texts and thought there were several good texts in existence.

The predominance of opinion on the question of extension of time for the subject is favorable to the increase. Two-thirds of the answers received indicated this opinion. Most of them favored extension of time to one full year for government alone. A few wanted one and one-half years for American history and government combined. Various suggestions were made to provide for this extension. One advised to drop English history; another, to shorten the time for ancient, mediæval and modern history; others, to reduce the time for Latin, mathematics and possibly English; and still others, to lengthen the high school course.

The majority of those answering the questionnaire agree that the proper procedure in the order of teaching the various divisions of the subject is from local, through state, to national, but there are several who still think that the reverse is the proper way.

About two-thirds of the schools place the emphasis upon the duties and obligations of citizens rather than upon the organization and operation of the government. About one-third favor the reverse emphasis. Although the theory of the first is more favored, the practice of the second seems the easier.

Many devices to supplement the teaching are used in our high schools. About one-third of the schools which reported use a civics scrap book, and nearly all have drills on current events. Three-fourths of them have debates on political issues; one-half have talks by public officials concerning applied politics. Practically all have parallel reading. Other devices which were reported, but are not very widely used, are: the student legislature, holding of elections under the regular system, trials, special home survey and report of such surveys.

Local government is made a subject of personal field investigation by the pupils in one-half of the schools reporting. The investigation generally takes the form of visits to officials at work and interviews. Inspection of actual conditions prevails in many schools, especially in the matters of health, sanitation, water supply, etc. This phase of the study of government has grown into actual coöperation with city officials in some cities for the purpose of accomplishing some es-

pecially desired end, for instance, in the campaign for a new school bond issue in Huntington, West Virginia. The investigations are always followed by reports and papers, which of course compel organization of material.

The systems of student self-government in West Virginia high schools are practically negligible so far as number is concerned. There are only a very few and those are not reported as completely successful in any special way. This is comparatively a new thing here, and is now just being tried out for the first time in a few places. One school reported a school city plan of organization; another, an organization on state and national plan; one other, a student council; and still another, a student body association which took care of all matters of general interest to all the high school. No particular effect on discipline is reported from any of these. Some thought a knowledge of parliamentary law was gained, a fact of no discriminating value, but none mentioned any appreciable effect upon civic relations.

There were many answers to the question on the aim of instruction in government, but not all need be included in this report. A representative list of the answers, however, is necessary. The principal answers follow: "To train for intelligent citizenship." "To make efficient citizens." "To acquaint with duties as citizens." "To teach practical problems of citizenship." "To familiarize pupils with our system, and to create a desire to be good citizens." "Right notions of conduct, clean politics, and willingness to support authority;" "To make plain to each that he is growing into citizenship and to instill into each the duties and privileges of a citizen." "To cultivate proper ideals of civic and social conduct and to inspire action toward the attainment or realization of the ideals."

With reference to the relation of government to the other subjects of the secondary curriculum, the majority of answers indicated that it should be closely interwoven with history; that it should be correlated with English, with economics and with science; and, that it should be required for one year. This is only the opinion of the majority of those who answered the particular question. Most of the schools reporting did not answer the question.

Upon the assumption that the aim of instruction in government is to train for citizenship, those reporting were asked whether they considered their course adequate. About three-fourths of them answered in the negative and assigned various reasons, the chief of which was "not sufficient time." Other answers were: "not practical enough"; "does not furnish sufficient acquaintance"; "poor teaching"; "sub-

ject-matter, notice, and aim are wrong." A few said that their course satisfied its object, and others added to that statement, "in conjunction with history."

As to special preparation for the teaching of government, the teachers of the subject in the schools reporting are about equally divided between "college graduates with special preparation," and "college graduates without special preparation." That special preparation has reference to subject-matter alone. There are extremely few who are reported as having special pedagogical training as preparation. This lack is one of the great weaknesses in the matter of preparation to teach both subjects, history and government. Several of the teachers have received their preparation in West Virginia University, but the schools of political science in the University of Virginia, in Yale, and in Columbia have their representatives among the teachers of the subject in this state.

The suggestions relative to ways and means of improvement in instruction in government are many. Among them are: "Text revision"; "Special preparation of teachers"; "Thorough drills on the text"; "Practical community work"; "Governmental organization in the high school"; "Better home training"; "Vitalization of teaching and showing the relation to life and public welfare"; "Careful introductory study in the grades"; "Lengthening of the term in the high school"; "General agreement on the work desired and the place to offer it"; "Connection with the N. E. A. committee on teaching of civics"; "Coöperation with our state university as to literature on the subject"; "A published list of available material and the places to get it"; and, "Coöperative work with community officers."

Nearly half of the schools reporting announce no coöperation between school, and civic or commercial organizations and local authorities. A few coöperate with officials in securing a certain end. Some have lectures from the officials, and in many places the pupils are assisted in their investigations, but only one school reports any assistance from a civic or commercial club. Many schools have in fact never asked for it.

Our normal schools are doing nothing to prepare special teachers of civics. They spend most of their time and energy training grade teachers, and doing high school work. No special emphasis is given to the subject of government. What they give in that subject is about the same as is given in our high schools.

No special syllabi were reported by the city superintendents of the state, who answered the request. The state manual is a guide, and

teaching is largely text teaching, supplemented by a little local investigation, by actual visits to officers and trials, public meetings, etc.

Submitted by C. L. Broadwater, Chairman.

WISCONSIN

1. We favor an outline of civics work for each of the eight grades below the high school, and in accord with the brief paragraph outline in your digest of the "Recommendation of Committee of Five of the American Political Science Association, 1908" as to both elementary and high schools. In this connection, we wish to encourage the plan of teaching grade civics as community civics. All the work in civics should lead to a realization of the service of the individual as a part of the state. Emphasize the duties of citizens rather than the control of citizens under the laws of the state. Never to forget that the "whole is the sum of the parts" and in a democracy every individual has a part in determining the character of the state.

2. Our views on what the course of study should be in the grades are fully exemplified in the course of study in Two Rivers, Wis., Indianapolis, Ind., New York City schools, and Superior, Wis. In all of these cities, the course provides something for each grade, and the point of view is the ideal one.

3. In the high school, as I have said, we find ourselves in accord with the recommendation of the Political Science Association of 1908. We especially wish to emphasize that our committee is unanimous in favoring emphasis placed on town, county and state, rather than upon the national government, as is so frequently done. We do not sympathize with the plan of combining American history and civics in one year's course, as is done in many places. We do not agree with the report of the committee to the Wisconsin History Teachers' Association, which I inclose, and I may add, neither did the history and civics teachers at the Association agree with the report.

4. In connection with local civics in the high school, we recognize the handicap of lack of text-book material accessible to teachers and pupils.

We heartily recommend the plan recently carried out by the teachers of the Rockford, Ill., high school, and the Milwaukee high schools. Here the teachers have, in the absence of texts, written up their own outlines for their pupils. This can be done, in most cases, in

a pamphlet of thirty or forty pages, and can be printed and sold to the pupils for five or ten cents. The result is a thorough treatment of local history and government. We recommend that at least two-thirds of the civics course be devoted to local and state government.

Submitted by A. C. Shong, Chairman.

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Assistant Professor of Political Science in the University of Wisconsin

NEW YORK, 1913. FOURTH REPRINT, 1915.

8vo, 668 pages, \$3.00

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