

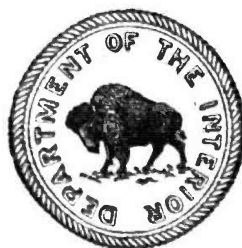
DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1919, No. 50
IN SEVEN PARTS

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM
OF MEMPHIS, TENNESSEE

REPORT OF A SURVEY MADE UNDER THE
DIRECTION OF THE
COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

PART 3
CIVIC EDUCATION



WASHINGTON
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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,

Washington, September 25, 1919.

SIR: I am transmitting herewith for publication as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education the report of a survey of the schools of the city of Memphis, Tenn., made under my direction. I am asking that it be printed in the following seven parts:

Part 1. Chapter I. An Industrial and Social Study of Memphis.

Chapter II. School Organization, Supervision, and Finance.

Chapter III. The Building Problem.

Part 2. Chapter I. The Elementary Schools.

Chapter II. The High Schools.

Part 3. Civic Education.

Part 4. Science.

Part 5. Music.

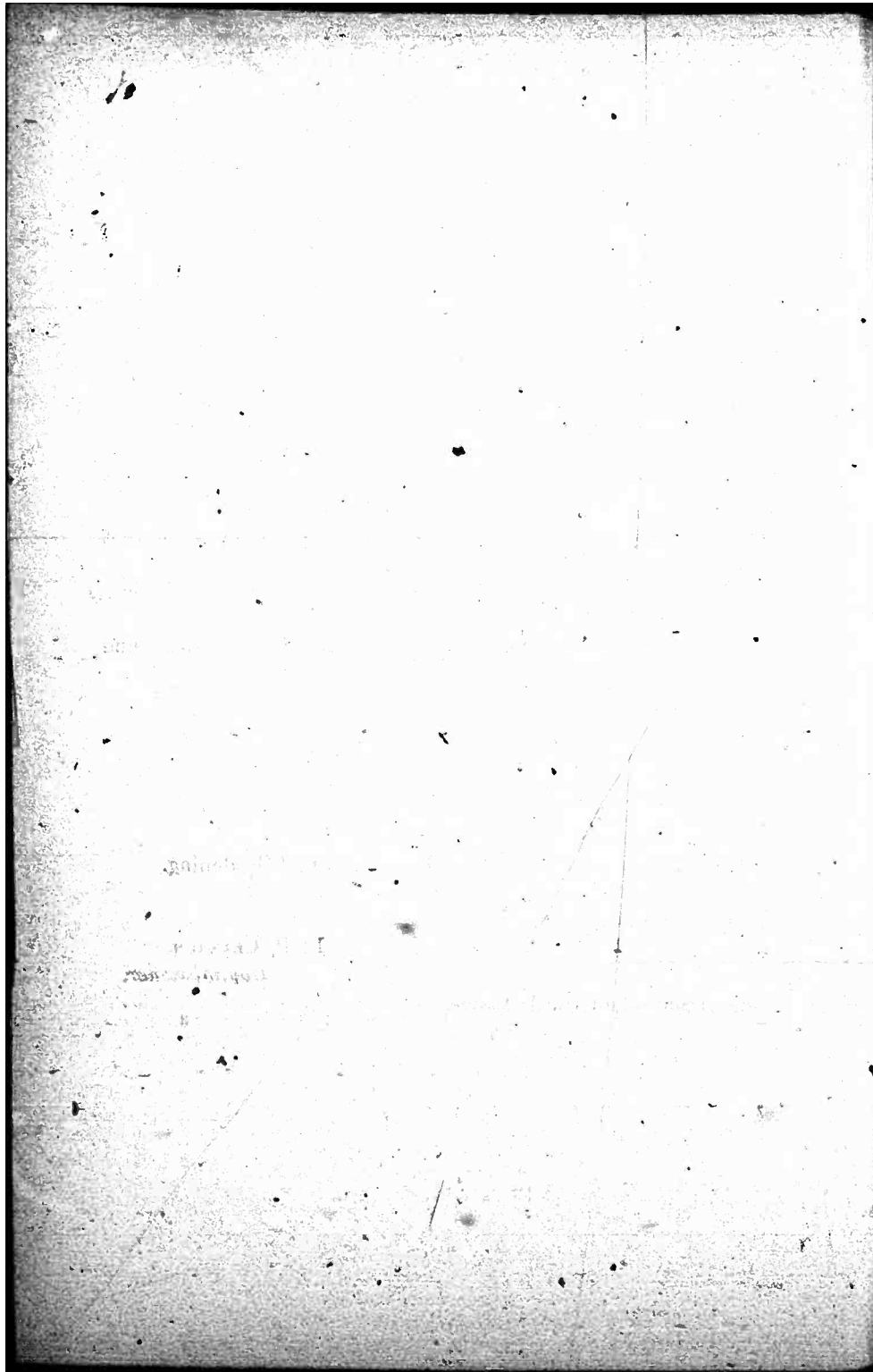
Part 6. Industrial Arts, Home Economics, and Gardening.

Part 7. Health Work.

Respectfully submitted.

P. P. CLAXTON,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR,



THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM OF MEMPHIS, TENNESSEE.

INTRODUCTION.

In April, 1919, at the request of the Board of Education of Memphis, Tenn., the United States Commissioner of Education submitted the conditions on which the Bureau of Education would make a survey of the public school system of that city. These conditions, as stated by the Commissioner of Education, follow:

(1) That the board of education, the superintendent of public schools, and all other public officers and teachers connected with the schools will give me and the persons detailed to make the survey their hearty cooperation, to the end that the survey may be made most effectively and economically.

(2) That the survey committee be permitted to find the facts as they are, and, in so far as may seem advisable, to report them as they are found.

(3) That the findings of the survey committee and such recommendations for the improvement of the schools as may seem to be desirable may be published as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education at the expense of the Federal Government for distribution, first, among the citizens of Memphis and, second, among students of education throughout the country.

(4) That the necessary expenses of the survey, including expenses for travel and subsistence for employees of the bureau detailed for this work, and the honorariums and expenses of the one or more additional persons whom it may be necessary to employ to assist in the work will be paid by the board of education. It is understood, however, that the board will not be obligated for expenses beyond \$5,000.

It is my purpose to begin the survey on or before May 12 and to have the field work of it finished in June. The final report will be submitted and printed as early as possible after the 1st of July. Such portion as may be needed by the board in determining their building policy for next year will be submitted as much earlier than the 1st of July as possible.

On May 5 the commissioner was notified that all the conditions named had been agreed to. To assist him in making this study the commissioner appointed the following commission:

THE SURVEY COMMISSION

Frank F. Bunker, *Specialist in City School Systems, Bureau of Education, director of the survey.*

Thomas Alexander, *Professor of Elementary Education, Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.*

William T. Bawden, *Specialist in Vocational Education, Bureau of Education.*

Hiram Byrd, *Specialist in Health Education, United States Public Health Service.*

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Elmer W. Christy, *Supervisor of Industrial Education, Public Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio.*

Fletcher B. Dresslar, *Specialist in School Architecture, Sanitation, Buildings, and Equipment, Bureau of Education.*

Arthur W. Dunn, *Specialist in Civic Education, Bureau of Education.*

Will Earhart, *Supervisor of Music, Public Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.*

Alice Barrows Fernandez, *Specialist in Social and Industrial Problems, Bureau of Education.*

Florence C. Fox, *Specialist in Primary Grade Education, Bureau of Education.*

Ada Van Stone Harris, *Director of Elementary Practice Teaching, Public Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.*

Carrie A. Lyford, *Specialist in Home Economics, Bureau of Education.*

F. A. Merrill, *Specialist in School and Home Gardening, Bureau of Education.*

John L. Randall, *Specialist in School and Home Gardening, Bureau of Education.*

Willard S. Small, *Specialist in School Hygiene and Physical Education, Bureau of Education.*

George R. Twiss, *Professor of Secondary Education and State High School Inspector, Ohio State University.*

The field work began May 12 and was completed June 7, except that two members of the staff remained two weeks longer.

While the time for the examination of conditions was short, the schools closing for the year on June 13, nevertheless, through careful organization of the work and through frequent meetings of the staff for the discussion of every phase of the problem, definite and positive conclusions in which all concurred were quickly reached. Although the commission as a whole considered every important activity of the work of the system, each member was assigned to the particular field of his interest. The reports of the members of the commission were organized by the director of the survey and transmitted to the Commissioner of Education for his approval. The report is issued in separate parts for general circulation.

THE PARTS TO BE ISSUED.

Part 1. Chapter I. An Industrial and Social Study of Memphis.

Chapter II. School Organization, Supervision, and Finance.

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Part 4. Science.

Part 5. Music.

Part 6. Industrial Arts, Home Economics and Gardening.

Part 7. Health Work.

This study of the Memphis schools is intended to be a study of policies and of practices; not of persons. The commission has con-

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sciously avoided either praising or blaming, crediting or discrediting, individuals. The matter of placing an estimate upon the value of the services which individuals are rendering is the duty of local authorities; it falls outside the province of the survey commission and has not been attempted.

The commission desires to express its appreciation of the courtesy and consideration shown its members by citizens of Memphis, the members of the board of education, the secretary's office, the superintendent and his clerks, and the entire school corps. Without exception, all cooperated to make the investigation as thorough and as efficient as the time would permit.

A special word of appreciation is due the management of the Young Men's Christian Association for providing office rooms and equipment for the staff, without charge, and to the local company handling the Burrough's Adding Machine, which very kindly loaned one of these machines to the staff.

A summary of conclusions and recommendations will be found at the end of each chapter.

PART 3. CIVIC EDUCATION.

CONTENTS.—1. Aims and need of civic education; civic consciousness of Memphis; how the schools meet their responsibility. 2. In the elementary schools—A. Civics in the grammar grades—A stenographic lesson; dominance of the textbook; concrete material in Memphis; B. Correlation of history and geography with civics—Outline of social study for grades; C. Training for citizenship in first six grades—Work of Jefferson Street School; problem of discipline; the socialized recitation; D. Instruction in civics in first six grades—Pupils' experiences proper basis; no use made of concrete material; E. History in the first six grades; in fourth and fifth grades; in sixth grade. 3. Civic education in the high schools; in the Central High School; in the Vocational High School; in the Kortrecht High School (colored); High school history, economic and other social studies; adaptations for the Vocational High School; adaptations for the Kortrecht High School. 4. A summary of recommendations.

1. THE AIMS AND NEED OF CIVIC EDUCATION IN MEMPHIS.

Good citizenship has always been recognized as an aim of public education. We need to be reminded occasionally, however, that it is the fundamental justification of schools supported by public taxation, and that it should be a controlling aim of all that the public schools do. We recognize a variety of other aims, such as facility in the use of spoken and written language, mental culture, æsthetic appreciation, physical fitness, or vocational preparedness. But whether we think of the aims of education in terms of mental, physical, industrial, moral, or social fitness, it is always fitness for community life and service. The efficiency of the work of the public schools in all lines must be measured by the degree to which it meets community needs.

How well the schools of Memphis are functioning with respect to these particular aims, all of which are contributory to the larger social or civic aim, is discussed in other chapters. But, in addition to these other recognized elements of an education, the good citizen must somehow acquire an intelligent and wholesome attitude toward, as well as an understanding of, his community relations and the agencies of community action. He must be conscious of a community of purpose, of the interdependence of individuals and groups and interests within the community, of the necessity and means of community teamwork. He must be possessed of high civic ideals and well-grounded habits of social conduct. In a word, he must realize his membership in the community, which is merely another name for his citizenship. It is the purpose of this chapter to discuss what the schools of Memphis are doing, and what they may be expected to do, to provide for this essential factor in good citizenship.

CITIZENSHIP A VOCATION.

Citizenship is a very practical thing. It is a vocation to which all boys and girls are called and in which all must serve. Education for citizenship must, therefore, be as practical as any form of vocational education. An attempt is made in the following paragraphs to define its aims in a practical way.

Speaking first in broad terms and from a national point of view, the ultimate aim of civic education is an *efficient democracy*. Our Nation is committed to the principles and ideals of democracy, for the preservation of which we have just passed through the most stupendous of wars. The *practice* of democracy, however, and especially its efficient practice, is a matter of slow and laborious cultivation. The public schools of Memphis are a part of the public educational system of the Nation, and have no right to do less than the best they are able to do for the promotion of a democracy that is efficient.

From a local point of view, the aim of civic education in the schools which Memphis supports by public taxation must certainly be to make Memphis a better place in which to live. The people of Memphis have just completed a week's celebration of the first centenary of the city's progress. They have much to be proud of, but most of all of the initiative, the leadership, the devotion to public interest, and the spirit of teamwork that have made this progress possible. But Memphis has only reached a milestone, and not the end, of her journey. She faces to-day intricate problems that are far from solution, as her people themselves recognize. There is to-day more need than ever before for initiative, constructive leadership, and whole-hearted teamwork for common ends. The civic education that does not demonstrate this fact and cultivate these qualities fails utterly in its purpose.

THE CIVIC CONSCIOUSNESS OF MEMPHIS.

In certain directions Memphis is rich in these qualities of good citizenship and of community progress. This is notably true in some fields of her economic life. Her business men have learned, for example, in the words of one of them, that Memphis "can not build a wall around herself and live for 30 days." Hence, the "farm bureau" of the chamber of commerce, which, through foresight, initiative, and wise leadership, has developed a remarkable degree of cooperation not only among the business men of Memphis herself but among and with the agricultural interests of the "Memphis territory," of which Memphis is but the heart. The teamwork secured in this field of community life has required organized leader-

ship, but it has also required, as the chamber of commerce will confirm, a vigorous campaign of education, of civic education, for a community consciousness had to be created, new habits of civic action had to be formed.

There are other phases of community life in Memphis in which civic consciousness and civic habits have not so clearly been formed. This appears to be true, for example, with respect to public education itself, the very bulwark of efficient democracy. Whatever deficiencies the school survey may show to exist within the school system, they owe their existence, in the final analysis, to this fact. The most frequent, indeed the almost universal, answer forthcoming from citizens of Memphis, within the school system and outside of it, in response to attempts to get to the bottom of obvious and acknowledged deficiencies, was *politics*—politics that makes of the school system, not an agency of community cooperation for community interests, as it was intended to be, but an agency by which the community interests are sacrificed for private ends. The only remedy is an enlightened and militant public opinion; and this is an aim of civic education.

A few years ago Memphis passed from the traditional American form of city government to the "commission plan." It was doubtless an evidence of civic progress, or at least of civic aspiration. But one may hear on all sides expressions of disappointment over the failure of the new form of government to accomplish all that was expected of it. A movement is now under way for another change to the "city manager plan," under which the government is expected to be both more efficient and more directly under the control of the people. Progressive and efficient democracy requires occasional changes in governmental mechanism to keep pace with changing conditions. Many such changes in our local and national Governments have been made in recent years, tending to give the people more direct control. But too complete reliance upon such changes has resulted in disappointment, and will continue to result in disappointment unless they are supported by a widespread and deep civic consciousness and conscience even in the small things that make community life pleasant and efficient. It is the aim of civic education to provide this support. Without it no form of government will be efficient in a democracy; with it, even a poor form may produce good results.

THE COOPERATION OF ALL AGENCIES NECESSARY.

The reference above to the chamber of commerce suggests that responsibility for civic education in Memphis does not rest with the schools alone. Civic education is constantly going on, for better or for worse, through countless agencies and influences. In the face of

this fact too much should not be expected of the schools. Their work, however good, may be largely negated by antagonistic influences in the community. It is a vital matter whether the schools and these other influences are pulling together or in opposite directions.

From the windows of a Memphis schoolroom, where a recitation was going serenely on regarding "how government protects property and property rights," there could be seen an entire row of vacant houses with every windowpane smashed. And during a ride around the city a visitor was heard to remark that never before had she seen a city with so many broken windows. Why does *not* government protect property and property rights in Memphis? Is government responsible? Do school children break windows? Are the schools responsible? Certainly government needs the cooperation of the schools and of school children; but, on the other hand, instruction in the schools regarding property rights must largely be futile in a community where property rights are not conspicuously sacred.

CONDITIONS WHICH MUST BE TAKEN INTO ACCOUNT.

Memphis is in many respects a beautiful city. Her beautiful parks and drives and residential streets are a more potent influence for a wholesome civic pride and loyalty and even for civic righteousness—for that portion of her population that really have opportunity to enjoy them—than any number of formal lessons in the schools on parks and clean streets and "civic beauty." A potent influence in the opposite direction exists, in spite of the best that the schools can do, for those portions of the population to whom the community denies the right to live and work in pleasant surroundings. It is hard for a visitor, in forming his impressions of a community, to overcome the effect of *unnecessary, nerve-wrecking, sleep-destroying noises* in the streets, chief offenders being automobiles with screeching sirens, whistles that would do credit to steam locomotives, open exhausts, and the like. Many such things are relatively small matters, but they are at once an evidence of an undeveloped civic consciousness, and a distinct influence in the civic education of the people, especially of the young.

Other matters are more serious. During the course of the school survey the local papers were full of alleged disclosures of law violation and failure of law enforcement. Following are extracts from an editorial in one of the papers:

There was a powder train all over Memphis Saturday. That there was no explosion was due to sheer luck.

Several days ago some one started a story that there was to be an outbreak of Negroes on Saturday. Others started the story that certain white people were going after the Negroes the same day. The story gathered in volume and in circulation as it was repeated.

Last Friday there was suppressed excitement throughout the city. During Saturday afternoon and Saturday night the police force was largely reinforced and placed in the Beale Street neighborhood. In the meantime pawnshops, where guns and pistols are kept, disposed of their stocks of goods. (It is unlawful to sell a pistol in Tennessee, but pawnshops and other stores do a thriving business in selling pistols of the latest improved pattern.)

There were probably more people armed in violation of the law and ready to break the law last Saturday in the city of Memphis than for many years before.

The law binds all alike, and only in the supremacy of the law and the cheerful obedience to the law is there a way out.

Memphis and this territory are on the verge of a tremendous development, but the harvest of this development for better things will not be reaped unless every thoughtful and intelligent man realizes that the way to order and prosperity is along the road of peace, sobriety, respect for authority, and a determination to permit the proper authorities to enforce the law, with a fuller determination to assist these authorities in their task by being law-abiding ourselves.

HOW THE MEMPHIS SCHOOLS MEET THEIR RESPONSIBILITY.

These random citations are made not to asperse Memphis, but as evidence that there is a very real and practical need of civic education in Memphis, as in every American community. In this matter the public schools have a heavy, though by no means the sole, responsibility. It is a matter of grave concern to Memphis and to the Nation how this responsibility is met.

It can not be emphasized too strongly that the question is not whether the schools of Memphis shall or shall not educate for citizenship, but *how*? They *are* doing so, and it is inevitable that they should do so. But they may do it adequately or inadequately, well or badly, in clear recognition of a definite civic aim or only casually as an almost unconscious by-product. As a matter of fact, a certain recognition is accorded to civic education as one of the aims of the Memphis schools by the inclusion of the subject of civics in the curriculum. A wholesome civic influence is unquestionably exerted by every good teacher, whatever her subject. This influence is often indirect and even unconscious, and never measurable. But, on the other hand, the survey led to the conclusion that civic education is far from being a conspicuous aim of public education in Memphis; that, so far as it is recognized, provision for it is entirely inadequate; that the civics instruction given, especially in the elementary schools, is ill adapted to the needs of Memphis or of our national democracy, or to promote the civic development of the pupils; and, finally, that many of the methods and practices throughout the school system, and the conditions under which education is carried on in many cases, are positively antagonistic to the development of an efficient citizenship or of an efficient democracy.

To justify these statements, and to illuminate the evidence that is given hereafter in support of them, it is necessary to recognize the standards that have been used in passing judgment. This report

is based on the premise that effective civic education must do at least three things:

THE THINGS WHICH CIVIC EDUCATION MUST DO.

1. It must produce intelligent citizens. Intelligence is based on knowledge, and the young citizen must be given the kind of knowledge that will enable him to act intelligently. The intelligent citizen must be observant of the actual civic conditions and situations in which he finds himself, must be capable of analyzing and interpreting these situations, of applying his knowledge to them, and of forming judgments regarding the best means of meeting them. This can only result from practice, and effective civic education must afford this practice. The intelligent citizen of Memphis, for example, will know not only that the police, and the courts, and other agencies exist to protect property and property rights, and to preserve order, and how they are organized for that purpose, but also that property rights and personal security are not altogether assured (as evidence the broken windows opposite the school-house, see p. 12), why this is, what he himself may do about it, etc.

2. Civic education must produce citizens who are not only familiar with the facts and the ideals of democracy, but who are also inspired to act in accordance with them. It must cultivate adequate and proper motives. The broken windows of Memphis are due more to indifference than to lack of knowledge. So are the defects in the school system, and the failure of the commission government to meet expectations.

3. Civic education must produce citizens who possess certain essential traits and habits characteristic of good citizenship. Obedience to the community will and loyalty to community ideals are among those that first come to mind. The list is long; but among the most important in a democracy are a sense of personal responsibility, the power of initiative, and a spirit and habit of teamwork. Precept and example have a part in the formation of such traits and habits, but the most important factor is *practice*, and civic education must afford the opportunity for it.

It may be possible to elaborate or extend these elements of civic education, but it is not likely that anyone will deny these three. No one of them can be adequately provided for without clearly recognizing the other two.

2. CIVIC EDUCATION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

In the elementary schools of Memphis there is just one place where citizenship training stands out as an obvious and explicit aim, and that is in the eighth grade, where the subject of "civics" is taught.

Of the approximately 20,000 young citizens in the elementary grades in 1919, only 1,300 were in the eighth grade and therefore receiving this instruction. Moreover, only a minority of the pupils who enter the elementary schools ever reach the eighth grade. In 1919 there were more than 4,000 children enrolled in the first grade as against the 1,300 in the eighth grade and the 1,900 in the sixth grade. The same mortality is shown by tracing the history of the eighth grade of 1918 back to 1911, when it entered as the first grade.

History of the eighth grade of 1918.

	White.	Colored.	Total.
First grade in 1911.....	2,618	2,298	4,916
Second grade in 1912.....	1,401	975	2,376
Third grade in 1913.....	1,382	1,004	2,386
Fourth grade in 1914.....	1,473	751	2,224
Fifth grade in 1915.....	1,889	613	2,502
Sixth grade in 1916.....	1,142	475	1,617
Seventh grade in 1917.....	1,023	273	1,296
Eighth grade in 1918.....	1,047	206	1,253

Thus the majority of the elementary pupils in the Memphis schools get no direct instruction in civics.

Instruction in American history is given in the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades. Presumably this has a more or less clearly recognized civic purpose, both in developing civic intelligence and civic ideals. In practice, however, it does not seem that this instruction can have any great civic value; certainly not the value that should reasonably be expected of it. The work is chiefly memory drill. The pupils carry away with them, at least until examination time, a more or less organized and accurate fund of information regarding the events of American history as described in the text and occasionally illuminated by the teacher. Doubtless many of them are more or less inspired with a pride in their country and with the ideals represented by some of our national leaders. But, as in the case of the eighth-grade civics, the observer gained the impression that the pupils were acquiring, in the main, mere word knowledge. The catechetical question-and-answer method was everywhere in use, and examination day was the goal. (See pp. 17-20.) Most of the classes were passively receptive, and where there was evident interest, it seemed to be an interest due to eagerness to "get the right answer" rather than in the significance to the pupils of the subject matter itself. This applies to the biographical study of the fifth grade as well as to the more formal history work of the sixth and seventh grades.

Current events" are said to be discussed more or less regularly in the higher elementary grades, but little evidence of this work

was seen in the last weeks of the term. Questioning the pupils in various classes in geography, history, and civics rarely elicited any evidence that these subjects were vitalized by any constant relation to current events in the world's history. Current events can not be said to be an important factor in the civic education of Memphis children at present.

As for the other subjects in the elementary curriculum, there is none with a definitely civic content or in which a civic aim is obvious, except on the general assumption that the more knowledge a pupil acquires in any subject the better citizen he may be.

A. CIVICS IN THE GRAMMAR GRADES.

The obvious purpose of the instruction in civics in the eighth grade of the Memphis schools is to lay a foundation for intelligent citizenship. This end is sought by giving the pupils a fund of information about government, the scope and character of which is indicated by the following typical lists of examination questions:

EXAMINATION OF JUNE 6, 1917, GRADE 8 ONE.

1. Tell what the State government does for education.
2. What is the purpose of taxation?
3. What is meant by a franchise tax?
4. What do you understand community progress to mean?
5. What are the departments into which the State government is divided? Explain each.
6. Tell how a measure becomes a law.
7. Describe the powers and duties of the governor.
8. Explain the difference between the grand jury and any other jury you know about.
9. Explain fully what constitutes the county court.
10. Describe the character of the work done by the county court.

EXAMINATION OF JANUARY 24, 1919, GRADE 8 TWO.

1. (a) Name the different courts of Tennessee. (b) Why is the supreme court the chief law-making body of the State?
2. (a) What is a county? (b) Name five county officers. (c) How are the affairs of the county managed?
3. (a) Name two systems of city government in Tennessee. (b) State two advantages of each.
4. (a) Give the qualifications of voters in Tennessee. (b) Tell how a vote is cast.
5. (a) Name two ways of nominating candidates for office. (b) State the advantages of each.
6. Give five reasons why a national government is necessary.
7. (a) State the main differences between the Articles of Confederation and our national Constitution. (b) How may the Constitution be amended?
8. (a) What taxes support the Federal Government? (b) Why is it necessary for the Federal Government to control coinage?

9. (a) How is the President elected? (b) How are Senators elected? (c) What is meant by the "committee system" in Congress?
10. (a) Why should the presidential term be longer than four years? (b) Name the Cabinet positions.

Doubtless the information for which these questions call is "useful" in a general or collective way, and is of a kind that adult citizens may be supposed to possess. Much of it young citizens may be expected to acquire in school. But the usefulness of information is relative, and depends upon many things—among others, whether it is correct or not and, again, whether it really becomes a part of the working capital of the citizen.

During the four weeks in which the inquiry into civic education in the Memphis schools was in progress no opportunity was afforded to observe class work under normal conditions, for all classes were engaged in reviewing the work of the term, in preparation for final examinations. This review was based almost entirely upon lists of questions, similar to those above, that had been used in examinations of preceding years. The predominant aim of the instruction throughout is to drill into the memory of the pupils information presumably "useful" to the citizen. How useful it is may best be judged if we have before us typical examples of work seen in Memphis classrooms. There follows a stenographic report of a recitation in the eighth grade. The recitation reported was selected at random.

A STENOGRAPHICALLY RECORDED LESSON IN EIGHTH GRADE.

TEACHER. Since I am writing up these questions on the board I will hereafter write them up early in the morning, and you can copy them when you have a few minutes to wait as you did this morning.

(The following questions are written by the teacher and copied by the pupils to be studied for to-morrow's lesson.)

1. Mention some ways in which a city government protects life against accidents.
2. Explain the right of trial by jury.
3. What are the different kinds of taxes?
4. Mention some ways in which a city government protects the property of citizens.

TEACHER. I put some questions up yesterday, and we will answer them now. Sam, name the different departments of the Government.

(Children read replies from written answers.)

A. There are three divisions: Legislative, executive, and judicial. Legislative makes the laws, and the executive sees that the laws are carried out, and the judicial determines what the laws mean.

Q: How have you answered yours, Austin?—A. The legislative department makes the laws, executive sees that the laws are carried out or executed; third, the judicial determines what the laws mean as applied to a particular case.

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Q. What is the constitution? Name two reasons why a constitution is necessary.—A. The constitution is a document planned by the people and outlines the aim of the State government. It is needed to designate what officers shall be chosen and when they shall be chosen.

PUPIL. We couldn't find it in our book.

TEACHER. Turn to that lesson in your book and let's see. I thought I marked that off. You will find it on page 99. Read through the paragraph—read it to yourself, and then tell me why a constitution is necessary. Yesterday is the first day that I let you find answers for this. I have done this in two or three history classes, but each day when I give you these questions you must read over the topic in which the answer occurs, and I think that will be better than having a regular review. Now, read it out loud, how Tennessee became a State.

(Pupil reads paragraph concluding "At that time Congress required that a Territory should have a population of only (over?) 60,000 before it could be admitted as a State.")

Q. Wait a minute. How were these Territories governed up to that time? Why was it necessary that they should become a State? Why did they desire to become a State?—A. Because, if they were a Territory, Congress had the whole control. Gov. Blount called a convention to meet in Knoxville, January, 1793. This was called to determine how Tennessee should be governed when admitted to the Union as a State.

Q. Why would the people need a written constitution?—A. Because they could refer to it whenever they needed it.

Q. What is a constitution?—A. It is a written document framed by the people.

Q. Have we anything in this school anything like a constitution?—A. Yes; the book of rules.

Q. And every month the teacher reads the rules and regulations of the school. She only reads the rules and regulations in regard to the pupils' conduct. There are rules and regulations regarding the care of the building, custodian's duty, principal's duty, teachers' duty, and each member of the board of education's duty, and this can be referred to at any time to know exactly what the duty of each individual connected with the school is. This constitution is nothing in the world but a book of rules for the conduct of the people of the State. Now, what is it that really carries out the constitution? I don't mean carries out the constitution. I mean how do we usually know? Could you go to the constitution of Tennessee and find out very much about it?—A. No.

Q. Who usually does?—A. Lawyers.

Q. In case of emergency we usually get a lawyer who understands and knows how to get at this constitution. Now, what is the constitution?—A. A book of rules for the people of the State.

Q. Just the same as this book of rules of the city schools?—A. Yes.

Q. What is taxation?—A. Taxation is a sum of money taken from the individual by the government for the good of the government.

Q. What are taxes?—A. Real estate taxes, assessment taxes.

Q. Are there the only form of taxes?—A. No; we have a great many. License tax, income tax, corporation tax, excise tax.

Q. Since this book was written we have an income tax, war tax, stamp taxes, luxury tax, all are different forms of taxation. What are they used for?—A. They pay for the salaries of the men that are employed by the city.

Q. Tell me in general.—A. For the interest of the community.

Q. The war tax is used for the interest of the Nation, is it not? You haven't studied that. Give three ways in which taxes are used.—A. Building roads, building buildings, keeping up schools.

Q. If I want a house built, suppose I took a notion I wanted a new buugalow. Would they build it for me?—A: No.

Q. I don't think you looked up these questions as I expected you to do. Each day you should read over the topic and take out the important parts. With these on the board for to-morrow, if we don't answer them more fully, I will have to answer them myself on the board and see if you can find them out. Books closed now. Sam, what do we mean by "eminent domain"?—A. It is when the Government takes your land to run roads or build buildings or to run streets and pays you a sum of money to take your property.

Q. I think it would be better to say takes your property for a road. Any property taken for the express purpose or the interest of the community is called eminent domain. When is that most frequently used?—A. In building a road.

Q. What kind of a road?—A. A railroad.

The usefulness of the information so acquired must be seriously questioned. It is inaccurate, unorganized, incoherent.

Even if the pupils should remember the answers asked until they have possible use for them in mature life, what working knowledge of the constitution, of taxation, of eminent domain, will they then have? Pupils and teachers alike are enslaved to the textbook; that is, to the letter of the textbook, while far afield from its spirit as proclaimed in its preface:

The arousing in the pupil's mind of a spirit of interested inquiry in the affairs of government is of far greater value to him than the knowledge of many unimportant details of governmental organization. Formal question-and-answer recitations should, therefore, be used sparingly.

DOMINANCE OF THE TEXTBOOK.

An illustration of the dominance of the textbook is taken from another class where the organization of the legislative machinery was under consideration. After having related certain facts regarding the legislative organization of the county, the pupils, in answer to questions asked by the teacher, described the "city council," dwelling in detail upon the method of electing "aldermen" by wards, and similar information. As the class was about to pass on to the consideration of the State legislature, the observer inquired, "What city have you been talking about?" The answer was, "Memphis." It then required a series of questions from the observer to elicit finally from one boy the statement, "Memphis doesn't have a city council; it has the commission form of government."

A suggestive incident in the recitation reported above appears in the discussion of taxes and taxation. The teacher remarked, "The war tax is used for the interest of the Nation, is it not?" And then added on second thought, "You haven't studied that"; and passed

once another question, "Give three ways in which taxes are used," to which the answer was, "Building roads, building buildings, keeping up schools." It is almost inconceivable that an eighth grade class in civics should have touched the subject of taxation in war time without having studied the war taxes at least sufficiently to have answered the question originally asked. But it was characteristic of the civics instruction observed in the eighth grade that it had almost no relation to the realities which have entered more or less into the pupils' experience.

This kind of instruction is by no means restricted to the civics work. It is practically universal in the Memphis schools. In a class in spelling a list of 15 difficult words was spelled without a miss, but the observer could not find a pupil in the class who knew the meaning of any of them. "Name the important products of Tennessee," was the question in a geography class. In the list of 8 or 10 given in response, including "vegetables," no mention was made of cotton or hardwood. In another geography class the question was, "Where is Europe?" Several pupils were passed before one was sent to the head of the class for saying, "West of Asia." As the teacher's next question was irrelevant to the first, the observer remarked, "Since I may want to go to Europe, I shall have to know where Asia is. Where is it?" No answer was forthcoming to this question until the teacher relieved the situation by remarking, "Ask them in what hemisphere Asia is"; to which a pupil at once replied, "Eastern Hemisphere." The observer persisted with another question, "Where is the President of the United States now?" A dazed silence followed, broken finally by a boy who ventured, "In the White House at Washington." Though others then opined that the President was "in Paris" or "in France," it seemed obvious that there was no relation in the minds of these young citizens between the Europe of the geography book, located by stereotyped phrases, and the stirring events of the present.

The pupils of Memphis are thus gaining a certain amount of information, such as it is worth, but very little training of the intelligence. They will doubtless forget much of what they learn long before they reach maturity, because they really learn nothing more than words. Moreover, they are given no motive for remembering beyond examination time. To these boys and girls the examination constitutes the chief, if not the only "usefulness" of the facts learned. They would even forget the English language before they reached maturity if they had no use for it in the interim.

PUPILS' CONCEPTION OF CITIZENSHIP.

Of course, when asked why they are studying civics, pupils answer, "To be good citizens." But even this is little more than one

of the phrases they have acquired. In one civics class the pupils had been discussing "citizenship" in terms of the fourteenth amendment. After they had clearly stated that a person must have been born in the United States, or naturalized, in order to be a citizen, and that all persons so born or naturalized *are* citizens, the observer asked the class when *they* would be citizens. From one after another the answer came, "when I am 21." This was an exceptional case, for in other classes the pupils generally admitted their present citizenship. But in spite of this they were universally puzzled by the question, "What does it *mean* to be a citizen?" A common answer was, "To have the right to vote." "But have *you* the right to vote?" "No." Another frequent reply was, "To obey laws." "But if you are driving on the street and violate the speed laws, do you cease to be a citizen?" "No."

The conception of citizenship as something that pertains solely to adult life rather than as a present and important reality during childhood and youth is, in fact, the source of most of the defects in the civic training afforded by the Memphis schools. It results in a cramming process, in the attempt to fill the mind of the youthful citizen with information which (it is hoped) will come to the foreground of consciousness when occasion arises in later years for its practical use. The measure of the "usefulness" of information to young citizens is primarily the degree to which it shapes their present attitude of mind and their present practice and otherwise determines their civic growth. The successful teacher of the young citizen will be like the gardener, who is, of course, concerned about his future crop, but who knows that the future crop will take care of itself if the present needs of the growing plant are properly provided for. Information useful in this sense will be useful in the future; and unless it is useful in this sense, there is little likelihood of its being useful in the future.

DEVELOPING A WHOLESOME ATTITUDE TOWARD GOVERNMENT.

There are certain fundamental ideas about government that every citizen should understand. The young citizen should be made to understand them, because of the effect the knowledge will have upon his present attitude toward government and toward his community relations. For example, if he is to have a proper attitude toward government, he must comprehend the idea that government is our means of securing teamwork in the pursuit of common ends. He must also understand the nature of these common ends, and the fact that he and all other members of the community are dependent upon one another for their fulfillment; the necessity for organization and leadership in securing teamwork, and that this is what government should provide; and that, in a democracy, the organization and

leadership by which teamwork is secured must be under the people's control.

These are the fundamentals that young citizens need to be taught, whereas most of that which is taught in the Memphis civics classes is mere detail—such as the methods of electing Presidents and legislators and city officials and school boards, of enacting laws, of meting out justice, of condemning property under the right of eminent domain, of enacting constitutions. Such things should doubtless be taught, but they will be *learned* only in their relation to these more fundamental ideas.

If citizens, young or old, can be made to *feel* the truth of these principles, it will be the best possible assurance of a wholesome attitude of mind, now and in the future, toward government and toward their own relations to it and to the community. It will tend to stimulate an interest in community organization and therefore a spirit of inquiry. It will simplify the teaching of such traits as obedience and loyalty, because it will give to them a new meaning and make of them a logical result of the common interest.

Fortunately it is possible to teach these principles to young citizens, because it is possible to demonstrate them in the concrete terms of the young citizens' own experience. There is not a playground, for example, in whose activities it is not possible to prove the existence of common interests and the importance of recognizing them, the dependence of each individual and group upon others, and the advantage of organized cooperation under controlled leadership. These principles hold in the relations of the home and of the school; in the activities of the Boy Scouts, of war gardening, and of every other enterprise where people have dealings with one another.

MEMPHIS FULL OF CONCRETE MATERIAL.

In fact the young citizens of Memphis are living in a community that is teeming with illustrations familiar to their experience. To take an instance to which reference has already been made, note the growing recognition of the common interests among the people of the larger Memphis territory, the interdependence of city and country and of the different kinds of business within the city, the organized cooperation provided for under the leadership of the farm bureau of the chamber of commerce. Or, again, to what extent is education a common interest and a common purpose of all the people of Memphis (or of Tennessee)? To what extent do the people recognize this common interest? How far are all groups and classes dependent upon one another for the attainment of the common purpose? How well do they "pull together"? In what manner do the city and State boards of education assure this teamwork? Is competent

leadership provided for, and how? How well do the methods of election or appointment of the school authorities secure wise leadership? Do the people of Memphis and Tennessee maintain control over their educational system, and how? And why should there be such control? If the civics instruction in the Memphis schools is really to cultivate an intelligent citizenship, such questions as these applied to every aspect of the community life in which the children participate are vital. In the pursuit of the answers more real knowledge with respect to governmental organization will be acquired and remembered for life than can possibly be the case by the cramming process now in vogue.

It is not to be inferred from what has been said that civics instruction, even in the elementary schools, should be restricted to the purely local. It is only meant that the larger and more remote problems of government and citizenship can be understood by the inexperienced citizen only when they are interpreted in terms of experience familiar to him. The war period vividly exemplified the importance of the principles mentioned in their application to national and international life. But they apply at all times. The constitution, taxation, eminent domain, Congress, the courts, the administrative departments of government may be made alive with meaning to young citizens when interpreted in terms of principles which determine the success or failure of home life, of school life, of play activities, and of community enterprises going on at all times under their eyes.

Mr. Herbert Quick, in advocating a vitalized education for rural schools, says: "Let us cease thinking so much about agricultural education and devote ourselves to educational agriculture. So will the Nation be made strong." So, in their efforts at civic training, the schools of Memphis will be successful in proportion as they make educational the present actual community relations and experience of their young citizens.

An outline is given on pages 25-33 to suggest more explicitly a kind of instruction that will serve this end. Its presentation is deferred, however, until the other social studies of the grammar grades, with which it should be closely correlated, are explained.

B. CORRELATION OF AMERICAN HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY WITH CIVICS IN THE GRAMMAR GRADES.

The instruction now given in American history in the elementary schools of Memphis is briefly but sufficiently characterized on page 15 of this chapter.

The study of American history and of civics should be closely correlated in the grammar grades, because, first, the history may be made to reinforce the civics, and because, second, the civics,

(always meaning the vitalized type of civics recommended in the foregoing pages) affords a basis for the interpretation of the history. Interpreted in terms of the pupils' experience, the story of our country's growth can be made vastly more interesting to them than it now is, and much more of it will be remembered. American history is but the story of the growth of our national community and of its component parts. It is the story of the evolution or realization of common national purposes; of a growing interdependence within the Nation and as between our Nation and the rest of the world; and of the gradual development of the spirit and the means of national cooperation. American history has been studied to little purpose if it does not make clear to the student the truth so important for every citizen to understand, that the ideals of an efficient democracy are a goal toward which we have been haltingly but persistently striving from the beginning.

It is recommended that, in order to achieve the best results from both the civics and the history of the grammar grades, the two subjects be carried together through both seventh and eighth grades according to some such plan as that suggested by the outline which follows. (For the history work of the sixth grade, where at present the textbook study of American history begins in the Memphis schools, see pp. 46, 47). At the same time the geographical factor in history and in present-day social life should be recognized throughout. At the present time there is no more correlation between the geography and the history than between the history and the civics. The best time to study American geography is when the pupils have use for it in its bearings upon American history and American economic and social life.

At the present time one period a day is given in the seventh grade to each of the subjects geography and American history, and in the eighth grade to each of the subjects geography and civics. Thus two periods a day during the two years are given to these three subjects, all of which have a rich social content and great value for the purposes of civic training. They are taught as distinct and separate subjects, with no correlation, and their civic value is almost wholly lost because of their extreme bookishness and their irrelevance to the life interests of the children.

COMBINE HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, AND CIVICS IN SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES.

It is now proposed that throughout the two grammar grades one period a day be given to a "social study" which will include both civics and American history, with strong emphasis upon the geographical factor which enters into both of these subjects. An adequate treatment of the three subjects can be provided for in this way at great economy of time, while their value and interest will

be greatly increased. A course in general science is recommended for the eighth grade in another chapter of this report (Part 4), and in connection with this course further opportunity for geographical study may be found. This arrangement will necessitate some reorganization of the geography of the earlier grades.

As to the time allotment for the civic, historical, and geographical aspects of this "social study," it is suggested that the general plan provide for approximately two days per week for the civics in the seventh grade and three days per week for the history; and in the eighth grade for about half the time for each subject. Geographical study will enter wherever and whenever it is appropriate. In practice, however, much will be gained if any one of the aspects (civic, historical, geographical) be emphasized on any day, or at any time, that seems most appropriate or workable.

The arrangement above suggested may seem somewhat confusing to teachers inexperienced in it, but a study of the following outline will make its practicability more apparent, for the same essential ideas run through both the civics and the history. It is suggested that at the opening of the seventh-grade work several days be devoted consecutively to the first few topics in the civics outline, and that the beginning of the history be deferred until after this preliminary study. By this procedure the pupils will acquire in familiar terms certain ideas that will give life to the historical facts, while the latter will reinforce the civic principles.

Possibly an easier way for many teachers would be to complete the seventh-grade civics outline in the first few weeks of the year, and then take up the history study. But the easiest way is not always the most effective.

OUTLINE OF SOCIAL STUDY FOR GRAMMAR GRADES.

Seventh Grade.

CIVICS.

General Theme.—To accomplish the purposes common to all of us in community life, there must be teamwork. Government is the community's means of securing this teamwork.

I. What is "our community"?

Any community consists of a group of people, living together in a common locality, and working together (teamwork) in an organized way (with government and laws) for common ends.

Apply this definition to the school, the home, the neighborhood, the city of Memphis, Shelby County, Tennessee, the "Memphis territory," the United States, the entire world.

The size may vary in number of people and in territory; but there must always be common purposes and organized teamwork.

Smaller communities are combined into larger ones; the classes into a school, neighborhoods into a city, city and rural communities into a county, States into a nation, etc.

II. *What is citizenship in a community?*

The idea of "membership."

For example, the "members" of the body. Members get life from the body, and give life to it. The body dependent upon its members, the members upon the body and upon one another. Apply this idea to "membership" in class, in school, in home, in club, in church, in the community, in Memphis. This is citizenship. Definition of the citizen in fourteenth amendment. This includes all—boys and girls as well.

III. *The beginning of the community of Memphis.*

The early settlers. Who they were. When, whence, how they came. Why they came—common purposes.

The land they occupied—extent and fitness for community life. How it determined the character and growth of the community.

Were they more or less dependent upon one another and upon the outside world than the people of Memphis to-day? Prove statements.

Teamwork, organization, leadership, in pioneer days.

The beginnings of government.

IV. *Teamwork presupposes common purposes.*

Prove the nature of these common purposes.

The Declaration of Independence sums them up as "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

Secretary Lane says, "Our national purpose is to transmute days of dreary work into happier lives."

In everyday language, "days of dreary work" refer to the purpose of *earning a living*, the economic purpose.

A "living" includes the satisfaction of our *physical, spiritual, and social wants—life and health, knowledge, beauty, companionship, & religion*. All of these are involved in "happier lives," or in "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." They represent the purposes of each person and each community.

(This classification gives a good working basis for later work. It is easy for the children to demonstrate that all that they do, all that their parents do, and all the activities they see going on about them, are for the purposes indicated. The application to national life and history will be seen later. Success with this line of thought depends upon *observation, analysis of experience, and discussion* on the part of the pupils.)

Prove the existence of common purposes.

In the home, in school, on the playground, in our Nation during the war, in Memphis, in the "Memphis territory," etc.

Conflicts in community life are due largely to failure to recognize and understand common purposes.

That community is best to live in that provides most adequate opportunity to fulfill these purposes.

V. *The people in communities are dependent upon one another in accomplishing these purposes.*

Prove this from observation or from reading in relation to getting a living, getting an education, preserving health, the protection of property, in play activities, etc.

Show how interdependence exists in the family, in the class or school, in the neighborhood where the pupil lives, among the different sections, groups, and industries of Memphis, as between the people of Memphis

and those of the surrounding region, in the Nation and among the nations during the war, etc.

(The purpose at this stage of the study is to get these elemental ideas planted in the minds of the pupils. The application of these ideas will be continued throughout the study. At present the important thing is to make the ideas concrete by means of varied illustration, much of which should already be familiar to the pupils.)

VI. Cooperation (teamwork) is necessary when people are interdependent for the fulfillment of their common purposes.

Prove this, as in the case of the preceding topics, by positive and negative illustrations drawn as largely as possible from the pupils' observation and experience.

VII. Effective cooperation necessitates (a) organization and (b) leadership.

Prove: In athletic sports, in the school, in the home, in father's business (consult father), in the business life of the city, in keeping a neighborhood clean and attractive, etc.

Illustrate: Unorganized group action, as in a mob, compared with organized group action, as in the police or the Army. The crowd at a fire as compared with an organized fire department. Bring in a list of agencies for organized cooperation in Memphis: Chamber of commerce, labor unions, women's clubs, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Red Cross, thrift clubs, etc.

Are there leaders among the pupils of the school? Name leaders in various activities of the city of Memphis.

VIII. Government provides organization and leadership for the entire community—city, county, State, Nation.

(It will be one of the chief purposes of the entire two-year course in civics to show how far this is true. At this time it is desired only to "set the idea." No systematic study of government is yet to be made, but only abundant illustrations to test the truth of the topic.)

How the fire department provides for community cooperation.

How the National Government secured cooperation in war-time.

How taxation is a means of cooperation.

How laws secure cooperation.

How the Treasury Department of the United States Government secures cooperation by means of a money system, banks, etc.

How the people of Memphis cooperate in building a schoolhouse, etc.

IX. Importance of the land in community life.

Intensive study of the geography of Memphis, the "Memphis territory," and Tennessee in its relations to the common purposes.

(How the land entered into the economic life, the social life, the intellectual, esthetic, and religious life of the community.)

X. The home as a community.

The pioneer home in Tennessee—how it met the wants (purposes) of its members.

Compare with the Indian family life of the early times.

Compare with the modern Memphis home as to—

The common purposes;

The interdependence of its members;

Its dependence upon others;

The completeness of cooperation;

Its leadership;

The responsibility of each member.

XI. *The home as a factor in the larger community life.*

How the home gives permanence to community life.

The service of the pioneer home to the Nation.

Do people in Memphis largely own their homes? What difference does it make?

The dependence of Memphis upon its homes for economic well-being, thrift, public health, education, beauty of the city, etc.

The home a "school of citizenship."

What the government does for the home.

Seventh Grade.

HISTORY.

AMERICAN EXPLORATION, COLONIZATION, AND INDEPENDENCE.

I. *The period of exploration and discovery.*

1. The "world community" of Columbus's time. (Opportunity for valuable geographical study.)

Extent of the then known world.

The "national communities" then most prominent.

Extent to which the national communities and parts of the world were interdependent. The sources of the world's supplies.

Trade routes and means of travel and communication. Influence on interdependence and cooperation.

Interests (or purposes) common to all nations and peoples (identical with our own to-day; see civics). Predominance of economic, religious, and scientific motives (desire for knowledge). How about the physical well-being, the social relations, the esthetic interests of the different nations? (State of medicine and surgery, feudal and caste systems, art, etc.)

Extent to which nations cooperated in those days.

2. Explorations and discoveries.

Motives that inspired Columbus and other explorers. Predominance of economic, scientific, religious motives.

Individual explorers and their work. Importance of leadership, Geographical study of the world and especially of America as unfolded by the explorations.

II. *Colonization.*

1. First settlements of the American Continent (Spanish, Portuguese, French).

Geography of these settlements.

Predominant motives of each. Make comparisons.

How relations with the land were established (hunting, trading, gold hunting, agriculture, etc.). Compare with the relations held by the Indians.

2. English colonization.

Motives that led to English colonization.

Adverse conditions in England (economic, religious, social, arbitrary government, etc.).

How they expected to better conditions in America.

Geography of colonization (New England, Southern, Middle).

How relations were established with the land.

Why agriculture gives greater permanence to community life (compare with Spanish and French occupations).

Interests that bound the three groups of colonies together.

Interests that caused conflict:

Poor transportation and communication.

Land disputes.

Economic differences.

Religious and social differences.

Importance of home building in colonization and efforts to secure it.

Development in each group of colonies along lines of each "interest" or "purpose": Economic; physical well-being; social life (recreation, amusement, etc.); education, science and literature; religion; aesthetic; care of the unfortunate, etc.

Growing interdependence and causes.

Development of government as a means of cooperation.

Local, colonial, intercolonial, relations with English Government.

Direct and indirect control by the people over their Government.

Conception of democracy.

Conflicts with other peoples, and causes.

(a) Indians.

Land difficulties.

Difference in mode of life.

(The study of the Indians in American history is usually perfunctory and uninteresting. It may be made interesting and valuable by way of comparison. They had the same common interests in life, but different methods of providing for them—economic life (occupations), religious life, notions about the world, social customs, home life, organization and leadership (chiefs, sachems, etc.), tribes, clans, confederations.)

(b) Spanish—where, when, why?

(c) Dutch and Swedes—where, when, why?

(d) French—where, when, why?

III. Independence—the birth of a national community.

Common purposes of all English people. Development of democracy in England.

Causes of the Revolution: Conflicts of interest—

Between Colonies and mother country.

Between classes (or parties) in England.

Was the English Government a serviceable means of cooperation?

Was its leadership controlled by the people of England? What part in it did the colonists have?

The difference between autocracy and democracy. Compare the English Government of that time with that of Germany in 1914.

The war and independence—

The infringement of what interests or "rights" brought on the war? Give the incidents.

The Declaration of Independence—

The "inalienable rights," "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." (Compare same topic in civics.)

The development of teamwork among the Colonies for the one great purpose.

Organization and leadership: Military; civil; Continental Congress.

Obstacles—

Failure to understand common interests.

Nonsympathizing groups (tories; compare with recent war).

Transportation and communication.

Lack of leadership in the Government.

The winning of independence—

In what respect?

Is America independent of England to-day in economic matters?

Is England independent of America in economic matters?

After the Revolution—

The territory of the new Nation and its neighbors.

The Government of the new Nation: The central government; the State governments.

The "critical period"—

Continued conflicts of interest and lack of teamwork.

Growing recognition of interdependence.

The necessity for a stronger Government recognized.

The Constitutional Convention and the Constitution—

The leaders.

The nature of the Constitution (not a detailed study at this time, but an explanation of its important features in the light of the principles controlling throughout this study).

The preamble.

The new national idea.

Hopes and fears regarding the new Government (arguments for and against).

Eighth Grade.

CIVICS.

General themes: The service of Government, in securing teamwork in accomplishing the purposes of people in communities; the organization of Government to secure leadership and popular control, efficiency and democracy.

I. *Brief review of the essentials of community life as last term.*

II. *The service of Government in securing teamwork.*

(“Teamwork” involves responsibility on the part of the “members of the team.” It is in assuming this responsibility that the character of citizenship is shown. This idea should be prominent throughout.)

1. *In earning a living (the economic purpose). (Start from the interest that boys and girls of this age almost always have in this subject.)*

Earning a living involves service to the community.

Responsibility for wise choice and preparation.

Responsibility of community to afford opportunity for wise choice and for preparation.

Independence *versus* interdependence in earning a living—in pioneer days; at the present time, in Memphis; increasing specialization.

The necessity for teamwork—Within a given business or industry; among different businesses and industries.

Voluntary organization for business purposes—

Business corporations, etc.

Chambers of commerce, labor unions, etc.

The service of government. (Consider always local, State, and National Governments.)

Laws to protect and regulate.

Money, banks, etc.

Departments of the city government that relate especially to business life.

Departments of State government for the same purpose.

Departments of the National Government—

Treasury Department.

Department of Commerce, of Labor, of Agriculture, of the Interior, etc.

(In all this work the pupils should not be limited to textbook. Note what is going on in Memphis, and use newspapers, etc.)

2. The conservation of natural resources.

3. Thrift from a personal and national standpoint.

4. Transportation and communication.

Importance in community life (local and national) as a means of cooperation.

Service of the Government—Roads and streets; transportation control; Postal Service, etc.

5. Protection of property and property rights.

(All the above topics, 1-5, relate to the economic interest, or to the activities connected with earning a living. It is essential that the study be directed toward the real activities of the city or Nation, and not be merely a mechanical study of the text.)

6. The conservation of life and health.

Physical fitness as a civic necessity. (What are the facts regarding the physical fitness of Memphis school children? Of the men drafted into the Army from Tennessee? From the country as a whole?)

Interdependence in matters of health and accident.

Voluntary cooperation for health conservation in Memphis; in the United States.

Governmental service—

Local board of health, work of the schools, etc.

State board of health, etc.

Work of the National Government—

Public Health Service.

War Department.

Department of Labor.

Dependence of results of Government work on cooperation of the citizen and of the home.

7. Education and the promotion of knowledge.

8. Recreation and social life.

9. Pleasant and beautiful surroundings.

32 . THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM OF MEMPHIS, TENNESSEE.

10. Religious life and agencies.
 11. How the community deals with dependent, defective, and delinquent citizens—Through voluntary agencies; through governmental agencies.
 12. Taxation—Cooperation in meeting the cost of Government.
- III. Organization of government to secure leadership and popular control—efficiency and democracy.

(It is important not to allow the following study to lapse into the formal, mechanical methods of the present time. Study each feature of governmental organization and procedure from the point of view of its adaptation to the ends required in a democracy—cooperation, efficiency through leadership, democracy through popular control.)

How we govern ourselves—the general and essential features of American government, such as—

Direct and representative government.

The threefold character of government—local, State, and National.

The checks and balances.

The suffrage.

Methods of nomination and election.

The party system as a means of cooperation. How it promotes and obstructs democracy and efficiency.

Extragovernmental leadership—the political “boss” and “machine.”

The gradual evolution of democracy.

Local government—city and county.

(A profitable and interesting way to handle this subject is by setting a problem, such as, “Why was the form of government in Memphis changed from the old form to the commission form.” Or, “Why it is proposed to adopt the city manager plan of government for Memphis.” Arguments pro and con should be obtained not only from the textbooks, but also by consultation at home and with friends, and by reading newspapers, etc.)

The State government.

The National Government.

International government.

Eighth grade.

AMERICAN HISTORY—THE GROWTH OF OUR NATIONAL COMMUNITY.

Introduction.—Our national community at present: The people, the land, the common purposes, the interdependence of its people and parts, the need of cooperation. A few days may well be spent in a review of the present elements of our national community life as developed in the civics of the seventh grade and contrasted with the period at the close of the Revolution described at the end of the seventh-grade history. This glance at the present affords an objective for the history work.

The point of view and the spirit of the civics and of the seventh-grade history should be maintained as consistently as possible.

Throughout the various well-marked periods of national development the following topics, relating the subject clearly to the civics work, should be among those clearly emphasized and followed through:

Growth, development, and organization of territory.

Growth and changing character of population.

Immigration—Motives; problems presented by.

Growth of cities: Urban and rural distribution.

Economic development—agriculture, industry, commerce.

Transportation and communication.
 Physical well-being of the people.
 Intellectual progress—science and invention; literature, the press, etc.;
 education.
 Aesthetic, social, and religious life.
 Sectional development and sectional differences and their results (including
 the Civil War).
 States' rights and the tendency toward nationalism.
 Development of democratic ideals and agencies—on the side of equality of
 opportunity; on the side of increasing self-government.
 Development of governmental forms—State and National.
 Political parties, their function and methods.
 International relations.

The correlation of subjects in the grammar grades for civic ends should not stop here. The language work affords abundant opportunity for civic instruction. The subject matter of the above outline affords rich material for oral and written composition and for debate.

Personal hygiene and public health are two aspects of the same thing. They can not be separated in actuality, and they should not be separated in instruction. Correlation here should be very close.

Even arithmetic presents its opportunity for civic instruction. Pupils may get as much practice in the principles of percentage from problems like the following, taken from real life in a certain city, as from the monotonous and often meaningless problems of most textbooks, while the problems have at the same time clear-cut civic and geographical connotations:

During the year 1910 there were 3,520 patients treated at the city hospital. Of these, 7 came from Bulgaria, 12 from Greece, 15 from Hungary, 24 from Macedonia, 1 from Montenegro, 36 from Roumania, 33 from Servia, 1 from Turkey. What per cent of all patients came from the southeastern part of Europe?

During the year 1910 the fire department responded to 1,402 calls. During the year 1911 it responded to 1,700 calls. What was the per cent of increase in calls for 1911?

C. TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP IN THE FIRST SIX ELEMENTARY GRADES.

The success of the civic training in the grammar grades will depend largely upon what happens in the preceding grades. A clue is afforded to the direction that civic training must take in these grades if we bear in mind, first, the fact that these younger pupils are *growing* citizens, and not merely *prospective* citizens; and, second, the three aims of civic education—civic intelligence, civic motives and ideals, and civic traits and habits. (See p. 14.) Doubtless many influences are at work in the elementary schools that make for good civic character; but it must be said, on the other

hand, that the schools of the city not only fall short of their opportunity in this matter, but even cultivate habits that are inconsistent with good citizenship and efficient democracy.

INITIATIVE NEEDED IN GOOD CITIZENSHIP.

One of the most essential characteristics of good citizenship in a democracy is *initiative*. Yet in the Memphis schools, initiative is constantly, if unconsciously, repressed. This repression manifests itself in a multitude of ways, among others in the rigid adherence to the textbook and in the catechetical question-and-answer method of conducting recitations. Pupils seldom ask questions; and when they do it is likely to be, as in one case observed, because the teacher *tells* them to question one another, and the questions which they then propound are formal textbook questions in imitation of the teacher's questions, and not spontaneous endeavors to find out something they *really want to know*. Very little group activity is seen, of the spontaneous and interested kind to encourage individual initiative and cooperation—that other essential to efficient democracy. The “socialized recitation,” in which the pupils are given and joyfully accept a large share of responsibility for the conduct of the recitation, is practically unknown.

THE WORK OF THE JEFFERSON STREET SCHOOL.

It would be interesting to know how far the repression of initiative in the elementary schools of Memphis is responsible for the attendance at the Jefferson Street School (the Juvenile Court and truant school). There can be little doubt that it is at least a factor in both truancy and juvenile delinquency. On the other hand, one of the prerequisites to success in such a school is freedom of initiative under guidance; and in fact, one of the differences first to strike the observer in comparing the Jefferson Street School with the regular elementary schools of the city is the greater degree of initiative allowed to the pupils in the former. Under methods such as prevail generally in the elementary schools of Memphis, one of two things will happen to the pupils: Either they will submit more or less docilely to the “system,” or they will “kick over the traces,” play truant, engage in escapades that result in “disciplinary” measures, and seek a vent for their initiative outside of school, sometimes in directions that lead to delinquency. The great mass of the children yield submissively to authority. In the case of the exceptions, initiative needs to be *guided* and not repressed; while in the case of the great majority, it needs stimulation as well as guidance. (See Part 7 of this report, “Health Work,” section on Mental Status of Children, for further treatment of this subject and illustration of the point suggested in this paragraph.)

The lack of opportunity for such self-activity in those schoolrooms where obedience to authority is the chief principle emphasized, may well account for the fact that the most successful pupils, judged by the ranking they attain, are by no means certain to be found in later life among the most useful and influential members of the community. Children who are naturally the most docile and imitative make the readiest response to authority, and hence are the most successful where the requirements are mastery of subject matter taught by authority and unquestioning obedience to rules laid down by the powers that be. On the other hand, the children with the greatest capacity for initiative and self-direction, finding in the school life small outlet for their self-activity, turn their main attention to matters outside of school. In this way they often secure for themselves such practical education in the various fields of social life as enables them to excel, in later life, the mature achievements of the citizens who took the prizes of their school days. The school, however, has in such cases lost its opportunity to make the most of the best material for citizenship in a democracy. It has neglected to encourage in its pupils of greatest promise the practice of initiative guided by useful social ideals, and has left to chance the cultivation and direction of this most desirable civic trait.¹

The Jefferson Street School is performing invaluable service for the community and for the exceptional pupils in its charge, handicapped, however, by most adverse conditions. With a shop in the basement, well equipped with benches and tools, the boys of the school are denied this peculiarly important channel for the expression of initiative through failure to provide a shop teacher. A small cottage on the school grounds, formerly used for the practical training of the girls in household economy, has been turned over, in the name of economy, to occupancy by the janitor's family. Pending more adequate arrangements, which should not be deferred, why not allow some of the best-trained boys in the Vocational High School to render service in the Jefferson Street School shop? The principals of both schools gave this suggestion their eager approval, and the plan would be of great educational value to all concerned.

THE PROBLEM OF DISCIPLINE.

In the Memphis schools a great deal is heard about the need for "discipline." Perhaps the trait or habit that we most often insist upon cultivating in young citizens is obedience. The conception of discipline and of obedience which generally prevails in the Memphis elementary schools is in direct antagonism to the development of initiative. But obedience and initiative should not conflict, and will not if they are rightly conceived.

To the casual observer the order in the schools, elementary and high, seemed to be good. Few instances were observed where discipline was lacking in classrooms and corridors. In spite of this there is a pronounced feeling in Memphis, among school authorities and

¹ Dunn and Harris, *Citizenship in School and Out*, p. 10.

outside of the schools, that discipline has been lacking, especially in the high schools. A relatively small number of individual cases of misconduct, however, may easily lead to an unjust judgment in this matter.

It is this feeling that furnishes the chief argument to the advocates of military training in the Memphis high schools. The principals of the high schools and other advocates of military drill assert that it has already worked wonders in a disciplinary way; for example, by reducing stealing from lockers, gambling, etc. There are others, some of whom have opportunity for intimate contact with high-school pupils, who allege that the improvement is merely superficial. The truth in regard to the matter is hard to ascertain. One assertion, however, may be ventured: The discipline afforded by a military régime does not necessarily carry over into civil life, nor is it the type of discipline most needed by the youth of a democracy. Witness the recent riots in the City of Washington, in which uniformed soldiers, sailors, and marines played a leading rôle.

The comments made here are not to be taken as a denial of certain values in military training; that question is not at issue in this chapter. The point is merely that obedience to authority under a military régime does not necessarily create an habitual respect for law and an intelligent and voluntary obedience to it under the ordinary conditions of community life for the very reason that the conditions of military discipline are not the conditions of ordinary community life in a democracy. There is even a positive tendency toward a reaction to lawlessness when the rigid military restraint is removed. There is abundant evidence of this both in school and out.

The principal of one of the schools, when asked how military training reduced certain undesirable practices in the school, said in effect, "The boys are watched so closely that they have no opportunity for misconduct." The thing most needed in a democracy is self-restraint in the face of opportunity for unsocial conduct. The commandant of the high-school cadets related his experience in attempting to deal with one high-school situation. He said that the lack of order, the confusion, the hubbub in the corridors when the pupils pass from class to class, were intolerable. He therefore issued an order to the cadets to pass at such times in silence. He had no authority over the girls, and "they would talk!" Under these circumstances the boys disregarded the order. An assembly was called and the girls appealed to; but in vain. It was necessary to withdraw the order to the cadets.

It would be most unfortunate if high-school boys and girls were denied as full relaxation and opportunity for normal intercourse between classes as is consistent with good manners and the proper conduct of the school work. What they most need is experience under

guidance in social conduct under the natural conditions of community life. The school should reproduce such conditions to the fullest extent possible.

NEED FOR RIGHT CIVIC HABITS.

This reference to the high-school situation is introduced here because of its bearing upon the elementary-school problem. The problem of discipline in the high school has its roots in the elementary school. If a disregard for law exists in the high schools to any marked degree, as is alleged by some, this itself suggests that the elementary schools have not been wholly successful in fixing right civic habits in their pupils. It is not to be expected that they should be wholly successful, even under the best conditions; but the experience of the boys and girls in the elementary grades is bound to be a factor in determining the character of their citizenship in the high school.

Not only many of the disciplinary problems of the high school, but also very much of the downright failure, with its consequent enormous losses, in the first year of the high school, is the result of social maladjustment for which the elementary schools are in part responsible. During eight impressionable years the pupil is brought up under a social régime in which he is given little opportunity to exercise traits that are essential in normal community life in a democracy. When he enters the high school, where there is necessarily and properly a larger freedom, less restraint from external authority arbitrarily imposed, he finds himself without habits of self-control and self-direction in new situations as they arise. An attempt is made to counteract the resulting unsocial conduct in the Memphis high schools by superimposing upon the normal high-school life a rigid military régime, which only aggravates the difficulty, instead of enriching and interpreting the social experience of the elementary school years.

Every school in Memphis should reproduce as completely as possible the conditions of the larger community life outside, in order that the young citizens may gain experience in community living and action. The school should build on the normal interests of the children and extend them. The activity which they crave should characterize the life of the school to a much greater extent than is now the case; and it should be *group* activity wherever this is possible.

IN THE PRIMARY GRADES.

In the primary grades, especially, instruction should grow out of activities, and the activities should be such as the children are naturally interested in. In an increasing number of schools in the

United States, the aim "seems to be to make of education, not a process of instruction in a variety of subjects, but a process of living, of growth, during which the various relations of life are unfolded—civic, geographical, historical, ethical, vocational, etc. In the first grade, for example, the pupil does not even study 'English' or 'language'; he merely does things, and talks about things, and hears and tells stories about things, the teacher alone being conscious that she is giving to the child his first organized lessons in civic life."

Even though the school work is governed by a daily program which divides the time into brief periods, each labeled with the name of some subject of study, the invitation to a walk which is given by the beauty of a bright September day need not be denied. The teacher appropriates for the walk the 15 minutes marked on the program "nature study"; to this time she adds another 15 minutes borrowed from some other study, the "drawing" perhaps (for how can children draw till they have been taught to observe accurately, and is this not a tour of observation upon which they are bound?), and in the half hour now at her disposal she gives valuable training to the children's senses and at the same time awakens some definite interest which shall become a center from which other school work shall lead out in radiating lines for several days to come.

In short, from this walk has come suggestion and a basis in experience for most of the regular lessons until it is time, two or three days later, for another little excursion. There are likely to be physical activities, music lessons, and perhaps other exercises, which are called for by the program, but which are not related to this center of interest. It is never desirable to force a correlation. This other work comes in on its own merits, affording the children a change from the main interest of the day or week.

THE SOCIALIZED RECITATION.

Above the primary grades, the subjects of the curriculum naturally become more distinctly marked, but group activity remains as important as in the primary grades. The excursion still finds an important place. In another part (pt. 2, Ch. I) reference is made to the wealth of material in and about Memphis which should be used as a basis for much of the geography work, but which is now largely neglected. The same excursions are productive of material of equal value in civics, history, language, arithmetic, etc. Dramatization should occupy a much larger place in the Memphis schools. And among the things most needed is the "socialization" of the recitation.

The socialized recitation is the outcome of practical experiments to create an atmosphere of activity and responsibility for the child in the classroom. The schoolroom of the past has emphasized discipline and control from the standpoint of the teacher. The socialized recitation emphasizes self-control and activity through experiences created in the classroom for the purpose of training the child by means of his cooperation with others in some essential and profitable work.

* Civic Education in Elementary Schools as Illustrated in Indianapolis, Bulletin, 1916, No. 17. U. S. Bureau of Education.

* Dunn and Harris. Citizenship in School and Out, pp. 24, 25.

The socialized recitation avoids the artificial conditions of the old classroom and recitation. The children become members of a working community which adopts the principles of character and of good citizenship as the standard of living and working. The teacher becomes a better planner and guide, but is less active in the classroom during recitations. The teacher's work must be done before school opens, and once in the classroom she becomes only a member of the class with more or less authority as required.¹

It will be instructive to compare the following illustration of the socialized recitation quoted by F. B. Pearson with the recitation reported on page 17 of this chapter.

The class was called to order by the chairman [a pupil] for the assignment of the next day's lesson, which proceeded as follows:

TEACHER. To-morrow we shall have for the work of this convention the new Constitution as a whole. We are ready for suggestions as to how we had best proceed.

EARL. It seems to me that a good way would be to compare it with the Articles of Confederation.

JOE. I don't quite get your idea. Do you mean to take them article by article?

EARL. Yes.

(Joe and Frank begin at the same time. Teacher indicates Joe by nod.)

JOE. But there are so many things in the new that are not in the old.

EARL. That is just it. Let us make a list of points in one that do not appear in the other. Then by investigation and discussion see if we can tell why.

TEACHER. Frank, you had something to say a moment ago.

FRANK. Not on Earl's plan, which I think an excellent one; but I wished to ask the class if they think it important while looking through these two documents to keep in mind the questions: "Is this the way things are done to-day?" and "Does this apply in our own city?" and "In case the President or Congress failed in their duty what could the people do about it?"

ELLA. It seems to me that Frank's suggestion is a good one, for it bears upon what we decided in the beginning, that we must apply the history of the past to see how it affects us to-day.

VIOLET. I should like to know how the people received the work of this convention. You know, it was all so secret no one knew what they were doing behind their closed doors. If the people were like they are to-day, there would certainly be some opposition to the new Constitution.

ELSIE. Good. Mr. Chairman, I move that Violet report the reception and rejection of the new Constitution by the people of the several States as a special topic for to-morrow.

ROBERT. Second the motion.

CHAIRMAN. Miss Brown, have you any suggestion as to time limit?

TEACHER. I suggest 10 minutes. (Chairman puts vote and suggestion is carried.)

TEACHER. Mr. Chairman, may we have the secretary read the several points in the assignment?

At the chairman's request the secretary reads and the class note as follows: Study of the new Constitution, emphasizing points of similarity and difference. Reasons for same. Application of Constitution to our present-day life. Remedy for failure if officers fail to do their duty. Special topic 10 minutes in length on the reception of the Constitution by the people of the different States.

¹ Whitney, William T. The Socialized Recitation, pp. 12, 13.

TEACHER. I think that will be enough. Consult the text. In connection with the special topic, some valuable material may be found in the civics section in the reference room. The other references on this subject you had given you. Mr. Chairman, may we have the secretary read the points brought out by yesterday's recitation?

Those who use the socialized recitation assert that the pupils "learn" no less and, in fact, remember much more than by the older question-and-answer method applied to memorized pages of the text. But even if they learned fewer "facts," there is ample compensation in the interest created, in the attitude of mind toward the study, and in the initiative and teamwork developed. It is the common experience that under this system the problem of discipline solves itself; the teacher does not have to "keep order," for the class keeps its own order, being interested and busy. The "socialization" of the school—that is, the reproduction in the school of the conditions of normal social life, in the classroom and in corridors, on the playground and in assembly—gives the young citizen experience and practice that tend to establish the ideals and habits essential to democracy.

D. INSTRUCTION IN CIVICS IN THE FIRST SIX ELEMENTARY GRADES.

Not too much should be expected of elementary school children by way of realization of civic intelligence. It would be a waste of time to extend into the lower grades a type of civics instruction similar to that now given in the eighth grade. But a certain type of instruction is not only possible but necessary.

The experiences of the pupils in a socialized school are themselves instructive, especially if the pupils are trained to observe, analyze, and interpret what happens. They not only get the habit of teamwork, but they also learn its value in such enterprises as are carried on in the school. They learn how to get teamwork in these enterprises; that it requires organization and leadership, for example. They not only acquire habits of orderliness, but they learn its value in the group life of the school, and that to get it there must be "rules of the game," whether on the playground or in the classroom or in the corridors. They learn that obedience is subservience, not to a despot in the teacher's chair or principal's office, but to the common interest. These and many other lessons in democracy can be taught only in terms of the learner's experience, and the schools must afford the necessary experience.

AN UNDESIRABLE PLAN.

No amount of "moralizing" about these things will avail if the experience is lacking. It was stated to members of the survey staff

that a plan of "moral instruction" is being projected, whereby the various moral virtues, such as truthfulness, honesty, unselfishness, loyalty, generosity, etc., are to be taught systematically by devoting short periods each month in all schools to one or more of them. Occasions arise when direct instruction in these qualities of good citizenship and good character has its value, and occasions are still more frequent when they may be inculcated indirectly through suitable stories, the study of the lives of historical characters, and the learning of "memory gems." But the parceling out of these virtues to be "taught," certain prescribed virtues in January and others in February or March, is artificial, and lends itself to an undesirable type of "moralizing." Every concrete situation involving group action in a socialized school presents its object lessons in the social values of one or other of these qualities, and it is rare, indeed, that verbally attaching a moral is either efficacious or desirable.

PUPILS' EXPERIENCES THE PROPER BASIS

The pupils' experiences are not limited to the school. They are derived in the home, at play, at work, and even in the organized life of the community. The schools of Memphis should make a much larger use than they do of these experiences as a basis for civic instruction. Some of them may profitably be dramatized in the school-room, as where various forms of housekeeping play are introduced in the primary grades. Or it may be the work that older boys and girls do after school hours or on Saturdays that serves as a point of departure for useful instruction. Or it may be the activities of the Boy Scouts, of whom there are 1,100 in Memphis organized in 40 registered troops, 11 of them being in the rural districts of the county. Five of the city troops meet in school buildings, but there seems to be a feeling that there is a lack of sympathy with the scout movement on the part of the school authorities. The Boy Scouts are one of the most useful agencies for civic training, and their activities afford valuable materials to be drawn upon by the schools. School life and life outside of school should be more definitely correlated.

The out-of-school activities widen the range of experience from which to demonstrate the principles of group action and the value of essential civic traits under conditions somewhat different from those in school. By comparison, the pupil is enabled to form judgments and to arrive at generalizations that will control his conduct in still other situations yet to come, in the high school or elsewhere.

The first step is to find out what civic relationships and activities do, as a matter of fact, concern the children and engage their thoughts and feelings in the present years of their lives and in the place which they normally fill as child, citizens of the community.

The next step is to give recognition in the school life to the most useful among these relationships and activities, and to supplement them in the school-room and on the playground until they become well-rounded social experiences productive of desirable social habits.

The final step is so to interpret these experiences in lessons based upon them as to add to the children's intelligence in civic matters and supply incentive for efforts toward good citizenship.¹

"Any material which has a legitimate place in the course holds that place because it is related to some 'civic situation' in which a child is normally to be found, and his reaction to which is capable of being modified by a 'civic lesson.'" The following outline, taken from the preliminary draft of a bulletin now in preparation by the United States Bureau of Education, illustrates the application of this principle:

SITUATIONS TYPICAL OF THE FIRST YEAR OF SCHOOL LIFE.

1. The daily walk to and from school.
2. Entering the school building and leaving it by assigned doors, hallways, and stairways, according to prescribed rules for filing, etc.
3. Becoming familiar with the schoolroom surroundings—furnishings, decorations, materials for work.
4. Play on the school playground with many playfellows.
5. Using coat closets, toilet rooms, drinking fountains, etc.
6. Taking part in fire drills.
7. Coming into contact with certain persons who represent the authority and the service of organized society—the policeman, the janitor, the teacher, the principal, the postman.

OUTLINE OF LESSONS BASED ON THE FIRST OF THE ABOVE SITUATIONS.

THE DAILY WALK TO AND FROM SCHOOL.

1. Children's experiences and observations:
 - a. Walking or running on sidewalk or street.
 - b. Having attention diverted.
 - c. Stopping to play on sidewalk or street.
 - d. Meeting other persons.
 - e. Seeing street cars and other traffic and the policeman at the corner.
 - f. Crossing the street.
 - g. Losing the way, or seeing a lost child or a stranger seeking direction.
2. Teacher's interpretation and enlargement:
 - a. Sidewalk for walking; street for traffic; why.
 - b. Look where you are going; why.
 - c. Danger of running or playing in street; inconvenience to others of playing on sidewalk.
 - d. Keep to the right; why.
 - e. Cross the street at the crossing; why.
 - f. Look both ways; why.

¹ Dana and Harris. *Citizenship in School and Out*, p. 6.

- g. Cross when there is little traffic, or if there is a policeman there, when he gives the signal.
 - h. Kinds of help policeman gives; if in any trouble, ask him.
8. Methods of teaching:
- a. Conversational lessons, including stories of true incidents, told by teacher and pupils.
 - b. A plan of neighboring streets and crossings and sidewalks drawn with chalk on basement floor or school yard pavement.
 - c. Dramatization with aid of above plan and without such aid.
 - d. Sentence making by pupils (oral language lesson and reading lesson from blackboard).
4. Results to be worked for;
- a. Knowledge of common dangers from street accidents and of elementary arrangements and regulations designed to prevent such.
 - b. Attitude of caution regarding one's own safety.
 - c. Attitude of consideration regarding the safety and convenience of others.
 - d. Feeling that the policeman is powerful, helpful, and friendly.

FURTHER SITUATIONS.

Typical of the third year.

1. The walk to and from school.
2. Riding alone in street cars.
3. Choosing places to play games and material to play with.
4. Helping to care for surroundings—at school, at home, in the neighborhood of each.
5. Fire drills at school.
6. Accidents and narrow escapes from accidents at home and on the street.
7. A visit to the fire-engine house.
8. Illness among the pupils or their families.
9. Visiting the library, the park, etc.
10. Arrival of new pupils at school.
11. Arrival of newcomers in the neighborhood.
12. Contact with certain persons who represent the authority of organized society: Teacher, principal, janitor, truant officer, policeman, school nurse, doctor, street cleaner, collector of garbage and rubbish, fireman.

Typical of sixth year.

1. Approach of election day.
2. Members of families paying taxes, or buying licenses.
3. Violation of law by some child.
4. Suffering inconvenience from contagion of disease or unhealthful conditions.
5. Using school supplies.
6. Need of hospital by members of family, friends, or classmates; Doing some work for the hospitals.
7. Use of libraries, parks, etc.
8. Taking part in governing and being governed at school and at home.
9. Attending military or naval parades, celebration of memorial days, etc.
10. Observing the coming of immigrants.

The civic intelligence of elementary pupils may be further broadened and deepened by the observation and study of concrete occurrences or situations in which they may not have a direct part but in which they have an interest, or in which their interest may be stimulated, and which may be interpreted in terms of their own experiences. Such occurrences are abundant in local community life, and many others come within the range of their interest as they grow older through their reading and through talk they hear at home or elsewhere.

NO USE MADE OF MEMPHIS CENTENNIAL CELEBRATION.

A week's centennial celebration occurred in Memphis while the survey was in progress. If the school program was modified in any way by this interesting and significant occasion, other than by complete suspension of work at certain times, it failed to come to the notice of the survey staff. The pupils were dismissed to go out to the celebration, some of them participating in parades, but the celebration was not brought into the schools to enrich instruction. Not only was the occasion rich in materials pertaining to the history and industrial life of Memphis and the "Memphis territory," which could have been used for dramatization and pageantry and to vitalize the work in history, geography, language, and other subjects, but it was also a civic object lesson (or might have been) in community teamwork, in organization, in leadership, in initiative. It was a rare opportunity to stress the ideals, the devotion to the public good, the initiative, the leadership, of those who, a hundred years ago and at the present time, have made Memphis and Tennessee and the Nation possible.

WHEN CIVICS INSTRUCTION MAY BE GIVEN.

Perhaps a few minutes each day may be found expressly for civics instruction of the kind suggested in the foregoing pages, at least in the upper elementary grades, say from the third grade to the sixth. An occasional opening exercise may profitably be spent in this way. But the brief time thus found is far from adequate. Occasion and opportunity occur in connection with every subject and every activity of the school and should be taken advantage of as they arise.

The language period is a peculiarly favorable time for informal conversations, oral and written composition, debate, and dramatization of topics of civic import. Geography, if vitalized as suggested on pages 24 and 25, affords materials and situations by which to impress civic lessons. Hygiene and even arithmetic present their opportunities. Personal health can not be separated from public health in fact, and it should not be in instruction. Arithmetical problems in taxation, banking, and similar topics relate to civic ques-

tions, and may be relieved of much of their tedium to many pupils by discussion of their civic bearings and by the examination of tax receipts and similar documents. The problems themselves should be as largely as possible taken from the real life of the community. (See suggestions on p. 33.)¹

E. HISTORY IN THE FIRST SIX ELEMENTARY GRADES.

A special word must be said in regard to history study in the elementary grades, though some suggestion in regard to it has been made in Part 2, Ch. I. As has already been said (p. 15), history, when properly taught, has peculiar civic value. As a formal study it has no place in the primary grades, but it should be drawn upon for stories to be used in other subjects and to illuminate present events and situations. The celebration of the various holidays affords one of the most favorable opportunities for such stories. Stories of Indian and Eskimo home life and customs afford highly interesting material for comparison with the present. The same is true of pioneer home life and conditions. Occasions like the Memphis centenary should not be allowed to pass without making the most of their historical significance. Simple dramatization of historical scenes, including scenes from local history, finds a place in language periods and at times devoted to recreation.

FOURTH AND FIFTH GRADE HISTORY.

In the fourth and fifth grades, work similar to that in the primary grades should be continued, but on a somewhat higher plane. In addition to this, biographical stories find an important place. (See Part 2, Ch. I.) In the fifth grade a text, or reading book, of biographical stories may even be used. It is of the utmost importance, however, that the mechanical, indiscriminating biographical study that now largely prevails in the fifth grade in Memphis be avoided. The study of the life of a particular man merely because it happens to come next in the textbook, and the mere memorization of all the facts that happen to be given in that particular book, without regard to relative values, is of little use. The teacher must learn how to select "such efforts of the man and such events of his life as will be of interest and use to the children at their present stage of experience, and * * * so present them that whatever in the narrative has stood out to her as worth while will stand out boldly for the children to see."

Every biographer necessarily has an individual point of view, studies his subject in the light of his own experiences and sympathies, writes of him with the purpose to meet the interests, and answer the unspoken questions of his

¹ See also Bul., 1915, No. 17, pp. 23-26, U. S. Bu. of Ed.

readers. In this method of teaching, the teacher becomes a biographer and the class her public, for whom she selects facts and to whom she presents them from her point of view.

Of course the ability to handle this method belongs only to the teacher who is herself a reader. She can not do the work on the foundation of brief stories written for children, but must have read at least one of the longer and more careful biographies—if possible, more than one—in order that she may have in mind, before beginning to plan the work for the children, a vivid sense of the man's personality and a clear notion of his relation to the larger historical movement of which his work is a part. She must also be a reader of current periodicals. Newspapers and magazines must keep her in touch with what is going on in the world to-day in order that she may judge what persons and what historical movements in past days have most vital meanings for children who are living in this particular year of the world's history. No familiarity with the "storied past" will take the place of intelligent and warm interest in the history that is amaking to-day.¹

SIXTH GRADE HISTORY.

For the sixth grade a study of the "European background of American history" is commonly recommended. However—

the teacher may do well to remind herself how little the general statements of a brief history of Europe, no matter how pleasing the style, can mean to readers with such limited experience and immature grasp as her children have. She will doubtless conclude from her own observation that a passage, of one paragraph or of a dozen, which summarizes the history of a nation or of a stage of civilization—like Feudalism or the Crusades, for instance—makes on a child's mind far too light an impression to become an effective background for any future study.

Whereas, if a child has followed with absorbed interest and lively sympathy the personal fortunes of even one devoted patriot in each of the countries in question, he has caught many a vivid glimpse of what that nation stands for, and the chances are that he has acquired a desire to learn more and yet more of its life. * * * With these conditions in mind, the teacher will emphasize, in any European history course for the sixth grade, those concrete and personal elements which are so strong in human interest and make special appeal to the childish sympathy and imagination.²

Much old-world history may be introduced in its relation to innumerable topics that arise in the various subjects of study. In relation to manual work (which does not now occupy the place that it should in the Memphis elementary schools), as well as in relation to geography and other subjects, and as a first step toward vocational and economic study in later years, there is opportunity for a concrete, elementary insight into the occupations of men. Here history becomes useful and interesting. In the early grades the story of Robinson Crusoe affords a concrete epitome of industrial history. This may be followed by descriptions (and to some extent by reproductions) of the mechanical arts of the American Indians

¹ Dunn and Harris. *Citizenship in School and Out*, pp. 81, 82.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 83, 84.

or Eskimos, and of the American pioneers. From this it is but another step to comparisons with the handicraft of the ancient Greeks and of other peoples, and to the story of inventors and inventions that have made modern life possible. The subject of transportation and communication should come up in a variety of concrete ways during the elementary grade work, and offers the opportunity for the story of the Roman roads and of means of travel and transportation at different times and in different lands; or it may suggest the fascinating story of the development from the picture writing of the American Indians, through the hieroglyphs of Egypt, the alphabet of the Phœnicians, the stylus and tablet of the Greeks and Romans, and the methods of printing in the Middle Ages, to the inventor and the invention of the printing press.

The selection of old-world biographies and old-world stories of human interest for use in the sixth grade should be made with the double purpose of illuminating present-day life and the early events of American history; also to develop an appreciation of the achievements of peoples other than ourselves and a sympathetic attitude toward their representatives at the present time. Any list of such stories should include the more important explorers and first colonizers of America, studied so as to bring out the old-world conditions that inspired them to action, as well as the results of their work. There is an abundant literature helpful to the teacher in selecting and organizing such stories.

3. CIVIC EDUCATION IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS.

The civic training suggested in the preceding pages for the elementary and grammar grades is designed to meet the needs of growth at the various stages of the pupils' progress, and to give the fullest measure of preparation for the responsibilities of civic life compatible with the experience and mental maturity of those who leave school at various points. It should also lay a foundation for instruction and training in the high school that would otherwise be impossible. The value of the elementary work will largely be lost if it is not persistently followed up in the high school. The first necessary step toward effective civic training in the high school is to provide effective civic training in the grades below the high school; the second necessary step is to build consciously and definitely on this.

Some changes are recommended in the course of study of the Memphis high schools to meet the demands for civic training. A brief review of the present course of study, from a civic-educational standpoint, is first in order.

IN THE CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL.

The Central High School offers to its pupils a wide range of social studies. A four-year course in history is offered—ancient history in the first year, medieval history in the second, modern European history and the history of England in the third, and American history and civics in the fourth year. In addition to this, a year's work in economic and commercial history is offered for pupils in the third or fourth years. Of other social studies there are offered, besides the half-year course in civics in the fourth year, courses in economics, commercial geography, and commercial law, all for third and fourth year pupils. A good deal of emphasis is placed upon public speaking and debating, in which public questions are studied and discussed, and the English work generally lends itself to, and is more or less utilized for, similar study.

The half year of American history and the half year of civics, both in the fourth year, are said to be required of all pupils. All other history and social studies are elective, except that ancient, medieval, and modern European history are also required of all pupils following the "history curriculum," and the history of commerce, economics, commercial geography, and commercial law are required of pupils following the "commercial curriculum."

An attempt was made, by means of a questionnaire, to ascertain directly from the pupils in attendance on a given day the history and other social studies actually taken by them. For various reasons the returns were incomplete, and those received are obviously inaccurate in certain respects. Nevertheless, returns were received from 1,027 pupils out of the reported net enrollment of 1,308. From these returns certain general conclusions may be drawn.

The following table shows the number of pupils who have taken the several history subjects:

Total number reporting	1,027
Total number having taken ancient history	572
Modern history	58
Number having taken medieval history	130
American history	98
Economic or commercial history	22

The number taking American history includes only third and fourth year pupils. Ninety-two first and second year pupils reported American history, but they obviously referred to the subject in the grammar grades and not in the high school; the same may be true of some of the 38 third-year pupils. It is certain that fewer than 100 pupils have had the subject in high school. During the term in which the survey was made there were two classes in American history with an aggregate enrollment of 53.

The tabulation for the other social studies offered is as follows:

Total number reporting.....	1,027
Number having taken civics.....	91
Number having taken economics.....	54
Number having taken commercial geography.....	48
Number having taken commercial law.....	14

As in the case of American history, more than 100 first and second year pupils reported civics, clearly referring to grammar-grade work. These have been excluded. It is possible that some of the third-year pupils should be excluded on the same ground.

The number reporting economics is unreliable. There have been excluded already 24 first-year girls in the home-economics course who could not have had the third-year economics and doubtless confuse the subject with home economics. This may also be true of some of the remaining 54, only 10 of whom are boys.

The following table is illuminating:

	Per cent.
Per cent of all pupils reporting have had ancient history.....	55.7
Per cent of all pupils above first year ¹ having had medieval history.....	21.0
Per cent of all pupils above first year having had modern European history.....	9.5
Per cent of all pupils above second year ² having had American history.....	31.2
Per cent of all pupils above second year having had economics or commercial history.....	7.0
Per cent of all pupils above second year having had civics.....	20.0
Per cent of all pupils above second year having had economics.....	17.0
Per cent of all pupils above second year having had commercial geography.....	13.7
Per cent of all pupils above second year having had commercial law.....	4.4

From these figures it will be seen that the subjects that deal with American institutions and with present-day problems actually reach a small minority of the pupils who attend Central High School.

American history and civics are said to be required for graduation and are offered in the fourth year, though third-year pupils may take the subjects. There are only 154 pupils enrolled in the fourth year and 221 in the third, as against 576 in the first year. Moreover, many pupils seem to have reached the end of the fourth year without having had the American history or civics. The following table, showing the returns from 117 fourth-year pupils, classified by curriculums, brings out the facts relating to the social studies actually taken by the group just completing the high-school course:

¹ First-year pupils do not take this and the following subjects.

² First and second year pupils do not take this and the following subjects.

Social studies taken by 117 fourth-year pupils, Central High School.

Studies.	Elective curriculum.			Latin curriculum.			History curriculum.			Modern language.			Scientific.		
	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Number reporting.....	13	19	32	7	26	33	2	10	12	1	1	2	4	1	5
Ancient history.....	13	16	29	7	24	31	2	10	12	1	1	2	3	1	4
Medieval history.....	3	8	11	0	1	1	2	10	12	1	1	2	0	0	0
Modern history.....	0	4	4	0	0	0	2	9	11	0	0	0	0	0	0
American history.....	7	14	21	0	0	0	2	9	11	1	1	2	1	1	2
Civics.....	7	13	20	1	1	2	2	5	7	1	1	2	1	1	2
Economics.....	2	4	6	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Commercial geography.....	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Studies.	English.			Technical.			Commercial.			Home economics.			Total.		
	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Number reporting.....	0	3	3	4	0	4	4	8	11	0	15	15	34	83	117
Ancient history.....	0	3	3	4	0	4	4	8	11	0	3	3	29	56	85
Medieval history.....	0	3	3	1	0	1	0	0	0	5	5	8	28	36	60
Modern history.....	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	18	20	
American history.....	0	2	2	2	2	4	2	11	11	11	15	15	45	60	
Civics.....	0	3	3	2	2	4	1	1	2	10	10	15	37	52	
Economics.....	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	7	10	4	8	8	13	17	
Commercial geography.....	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	5	6	0	0	0	1	6	

This table shows that out of the 117 pupils reporting 57 have had no American history and 65 no civics, while only 32 have come through without ancient history. Only 20 have had modern European history, 17 economics, and 6 commercial geography. None of the 33 pupils in the Latin curriculum has had American history, and only 2 civics, suggesting exemption for this group.

The table shows some attempt to adapt the social studies to group needs; for example, 31 of the 33 pupils in the Latin curriculum have taken ancient history, whereas none of the 11 pupils in the commercial curriculum has had the subject. In the commercial curriculum economics and commercial geography are emphasized, while ignored in the Latin curriculum. This adaptation of social studies to curriculum groups, however, has been very imperfectly made. Why, for instance, should American boys and girls, even though studying Latin, be exempt from American history and civics? All of the 4 boys in the technical curriculum have had ancient history, while only 2 of them have had American history and civics, and no one of them economics. Three of the 5 pupils in the scientific course have had ancient history, none modern history, none economics, and only 1 American history.

Of the 20 pupils in this fourth-year class who have had modern European history 18 are girls; of the 17 who have had economics only 4 are boys. Less than half of the boys have had American history; more than half the girls.

All of the social studies have their values. It is important, however, to consider their *relative* values—their values relative to the purposes of secondary education and to the needs of the groups represented by the several curriculums. These relative values do not seem to have been sufficiently taken into account in Central High School, a fact which is true, however, in high schools generally.

The civic value of any of the social studies depends largely upon the methods by which they are taught. Some really vital instruction was observed in civics and in economics. The quality of instruction in the history classes varies, but the average is perhaps equal to that in most high schools of the same class. In many of the classes, however, there is a tendency toward the formalism that deadens the instruction in the elementary grades. This formalism, or bookishness, increases in the lower grades of history, where the largest number and the least mature of the pupils are to be found.

In passing it should be said that the material equipment for the teaching of history and other social studies is very poor in Central High School, though better there than in either of the other high schools in the city. The school has a very good library, which many if not all of the teachers use freely and intelligently in connection with the social studies. The public library is also used largely, with cordial cooperation on the part of the librarian. But class after class was visited where no maps were available, and pictures and exhibit materials of various kinds were almost wholly wanting. One teacher only was seen who made use of a "reflectoscope" to project upon a screen post card and other pictures gathered largely by herself to illustrate historical scenes.

IN THE VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL.

The Crockett Vocational High School is at present practically a two-year high school. A full four-year course is projected, but at the close of the year 1918-19 there were but seven pupils doing third-year work and none in the fourth year. While there is an academic department enrolling 212 pupils (June, 1919) the chief emphasis is placed upon the trade courses established under the Smith-Hughes Act, and enrolling 99 pupils. Seventh and eighth-grade prevocational classes are conducted in the same building and under the same management, the enrollment being 303.

In the prevocational classes the same courses in United States history and civics are given as in the other seventh and eighth grade classes of the city. They are not modified in any way to meet the special needs that pupils who are preparing for vocational courses might be supposed to have.

The principal of the Vocational High School reports that he is planning a full course of social studies to be installed as the four-

year high-school course is developed. At present, however, there is a glaring paucity of such studies. The only social study in actual operation during the term in which the survey was made was industrial history of the United States.

Questionnaires were received from only 128 of the 311 pupils enrolled in the high school; 91 of these are first-year pupils; 72 of them (13 boys and 59 girls) are pursuing the commercial curriculum, 9 (5 boys and 4 girls) the scientific or academic curriculum, 43 (all boys) the industrial curriculum, and 4 (all girls) the home economics curriculum. These returns are too meager to warrant any but the most general conclusions. Of the 128 pupils reporting, 57 report having had American history and 85 civics; but this refers to the grammar-grade work. Leaving the American history and civics out of account, therefore, 62 of the 128 report having had no social study; 33 of these are boys and 29 girls. There seems to have been a vague attempt to adapt the social studies in this school to the needs of the pupils. For example, less emphasis is placed upon ancient history than in Central High School, and, theoretically, the economic subjects are stressed. As a matter of fact, however, more pupils take ancient history than any other social subject and comparatively few the economic subjects. Thirty-one have taken industrial history and 22 commercial geography. Only 10 indicate having had a course in economics, and all of these are girls.

IN THE KORTRECHT HIGH SCHOOL (COLORED).

The enrollment in this high school for colored boys and girls includes 280 pupils in a three-year high-school course (116 in the first year, 82 in the second, and 82 in the third), and 128 grammar-grade pupils (124 eighth grade and 4 seventh grade). All eighth-grade colored pupils in Memphis are concentrated in the Kortrecht High School and in the Grant School—193 altogether—who are the only colored children in the Memphis schools receiving instruction in civics, which is a very serious matter.

The course of study in Kortrecht is not differentiated into curriculums, all pupils taking the same required courses. Shopwork is offered for the boys and home economics for the girls, but the equipment for these courses is very inadequate. The building itself is wholly unsuitable for school purposes.

The social studies offered are meager and ill adapted to the needs of the pupils. No civics and no American history are offered in the high-school years. Ancient history is required of the first-year pupils, 149 of the 168 pupils reporting having taken it; 65 report having had medieval history. Although it was stated by the principal that no modern European or English history is offered, 8 pupils report having had the former and 24 the latter. Economics

is reported by 25, all of whom are girls, and 24 of them in the first year. As it was stated by the principal that no economics was offered in this school, the work of these girls apparently relates to some aspect of household economics. Twenty-three pupils (20 girls and 3 boys) report having had commercial geography.

Although these figures are incomplete for the school as a whole, they indicate the inadequacy and inappropriateness of the social study offered from the point of view of training for citizenship.

PROPOSED PROGRAM OF SOCIAL STUDIES FOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

First year of high school or ninth grade.—It is recommended that a social study be offered in the ninth grade or first year of high school, which may properly be called "civics" and which should be an organic continuation of the civics of the grammar grades, but which should be organized around the economic or vocational interest. The term "vocational civics" has been suggested to designate this course. An outline is given below to suggest the general nature of the course proposed. The topics included are not intended to be taken up seriatim, but to be interwoven as occasion demands.

VOCATIONAL CIVICS.

1. Review the "interests" or "purposes" of community life as discussed in the grammar grades (see outline, pp. 25-33), with stress upon the importance of the economic interest in its relation to the other interests. Review particularly the topic "earning a living" as treated in the eighth grade.
2. A concrete study of vocations and occupations, largely based on local observation and investigation, but extended as widely as may be desired to national considerations. The primary purpose of this study is *not* vocational guidance, but it should have great value in this connection. The primary purpose contemplated is civic:
 - (a) Earning a living is conditioned on *performing services*.
 - (b) The importance to the community (local and national) of particular vocations and occupations.
 - (c) The civic responsibility of every worker.
 - (d) The interdependence of occupations.
 - (e) The importance in economic life of organization and leadership.
3. The geographical factor. A practical study and concrete application of commercial and industrial geography.
4. Certain fundamental and elementary economic principles and problems, such as: The factors in production; the use of capital and how it is produced; the labor factor; the machinery of exchange of wealth; the use of money, etc.; wages, profits, etc. These topics should be studied *inductively*, and in elementary terms.
5. Certain social problems related to economic life. For example, immigration, housing, child labor, etc. These also should be studied *inductively* and with concrete application to particular situations and conditions.

6. Historical development, especially but not exclusively in the United States, of social-economic elements in community life. For example, opening of natural resources; discoveries and inventions of industrial importance; diversification of occupations and specialization; industrial organization; transportation; immigration; growth of cities, etc.
7. Health, accident prevention, insurance, education, etc., in relation to vocational life.
8. The services and mechanism of government in relation to vocational and economic life.

Such a social study as this in the first year of the high school has decided values. It brings into prominence the supremely important high-school function of training young Americans for citizenship. It completes the cycle of social study begun in the seventh grade and following the elementary cycle of the first six grades. If the junior high-school organization is introduced in Memphis, as is proposed, this program of social studies for the grades seven to nine fits in with it completely. But it has an equal value under the present organization of eight elementary grades and four high-school grades. It tends to give continuity to the work of the elementary and high schools, bridging the gulf that tends to exist between the two. Its practical character will tend to induce larger numbers of pupils to continue in the high school and to remain there. Finally the course in vocational civics brings to a much larger body of high-school pupils some familiarity with economic and sociological ideas which have a place in secondary education, but which at the present time, if introduced at all, are deferred so long in the course that few pupils get the advantage of them.

The course here proposed for the first year of the high school has peculiar value for pupils pursuing commercial or industrial curriculums, but it should be offered to all pupils regardless of the curriculum elected, and it should be offered in all three of the high schools. It would be recommended that the course be *required* of all first-year pupils but for one consideration. This consideration is the increasing demand for elementary science in the eighth grade and first-year high school. There is a limit to the number of subjects that may be taken in a given year. But along with the demand for greater attention to the natural sciences, there has come also a recognition of the need for closer correlation between the natural science and social science fields. One expression of this is to be found in "civic biology," which is an elementary study of biological science with especial emphasis upon its social relations. Textbooks have appeared under this title. In part 4 of this report recommendation is made for a course in "general science" in the eighth grade, to be followed by "civic biology" in the first year of the high school. It would be highly desirable if every high-

school pupil could take both the "civic biology" and the "vocational civics" in the first or second year; but since this is probably not feasible for any large number of pupils in view of the demands upon their time, an option between the two subjects is provided for in the several curriculums recommended in part 4.

THE LAST THREE YEARS OF HIGH SCHOOL.

For the last three years of the high school, the following *minimum required course* of social studies is recommended:

Grade 10 (second year).—The modern world: European history from about the middle of the seventeenth century to the present. This may be introduced by a two or three weeks' view of "cross sections" of earlier history, or excursions into earlier periods may be made at any time when necessary to explain later developments. The course should include some examination of near Eastern and far Eastern questions and world colonization by Europe.

Grade 11 (third year).—United States history during the national period, with emphasis upon topical treatment, and including world relations of the United States and a comparison of American institutions with those of other countries.

Grade 12 (fourth year).—Problems of democracy: An inductive study of vital problems of civic, economic and social significance, leading pupils into the elements of the several social sciences.

This recommendation is in general accord with that of the Committee on Social Studies (National Education Association's Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education). (See the report of the committee, Bulletin, 1916, No. 28, U. S. Bureau of Education.)

The following comments may be made:

1. The requirement of this minimum course does not preclude the offering of further elective subjects in the social studies.

2. Only 58 of 1,027 pupils reporting from Central High School report taking modern European history. This is less than 10 per cent of the pupils reporting as enrolled in the third and fourth years. The surpassing importance and interest of world problems and movements at the present time justify their emphasis in the education of high school pupils.

3. The preeminence now given to ancient history in high schools is a survival of the days when it was required for entrance to college. The Memphis schools have to meet this condition only in rare instances. The relative value of ancient and medieval history for the vast majority of Memphis pupils is less than that of the history of the modern world.

4. For pupils who need ancient history for college entrance, for those pursuing the Latin curriculum, and for others who may want

it, an intensive course in ancient history may be offered in the second or third years.

5. No argument is necessary in support of a required course in American history in the high school. Such course is now given in Central High School. It should be given in all of the high schools and placed earlier than the fourth year to reach a larger number of pupils. It should by no means be a mere repetition of the grammar-grade history and should be treated on broader lines than the present course in the fourth year. Intensive topical study should be prominent, and world relations emphasized.

6. The recommendation of a study of "problems of democracy" in the fourth year is in accord with that of the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association, and is approved by the American Historical Association's Committee on History and Education for Citizenship. Arguments for such a course are given in the report of the National Education Association Committee, Bulletin, 1916, No. 28, pages 52-56, U. S. Bureau of Education.

7. The course in "problems of democracy" lends itself readily to adaptation to the needs and aims of the several curriculums proposed for the high schools. (See part 2 of this report.) For example, in the industrial and commercial curriculum, industrial and economic problems may be given special emphasis.

Work of this character, however, must still be largely experimental and must depend upon the initiative of the teacher, since textbooks and syllabi built on this plan have not so far been forthcoming. All that can be urged now for the Memphis high schools is that every young citizen who is completing the course of preparation provided by the city and about to enter the active and productive life of the community shall be inspired as deeply as possible with the meaning of American history, American institutions, and American problems of democracy; and that, whatever form the courses offered for this purpose may take, "book study" shall be subordinate to and vitalized by an intimate familiarity with the actualities which touch the pupils' experience.

ECONOMICS AND OTHER SOCIAL STUDIES.

An understanding of elemental economic problems and principles is an essential to efficient citizenship as an understanding of government, whether we consider the citizen in his capacity as a producer or as a consumer of the community's goods. The attempt to meet this need by introducing in the high school a course in economics has not been entirely successful for two reasons: First, because the course in

economics in most high schools (as in Memphis) is elected by a mere handful of pupils; and, second, because as usually presented it is not adapted to high-school needs. If such a course were required of all pupils it would mean, in most cases, the sacrifice of some other subject of perhaps equal value.

If the course of "social studies" proposed in the foregoing pages, from the elementary grades to the last year of the high school, be examined, it will be found that the economic "interest," or factor, is not only recognized, but is given prominence all along the line. Even if no course in economics, as such, were offered, the pupils can hardly escape considerable familiarity with the economic aspect of community life if the course herein outlined is wisely used.

The same is true, in large measure, of those other economic subjects, commercial geography and industrial or commercial history. Business law is merely a specialization of civics, and an adequate treatment of it for most pupils may be provided for in the course in "vocational civics."

For those groups of pupils, however, who are pursuing commercial or industrial curriculums, it may be desirable to offer a more intensive study of such economic subjects as those referred to, for which the course in vocational civics should have laid an effective foundation and afforded a valuable perspective. They may be fitted into the several curriculums proposed in part 2 of this report.

A DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES.

It is highly desirable that all of the social studies, including the history subjects, be grouped in a department thoroughly organized and with a directing head. It is immaterial whether this department be called a "Department of History," or a "Department of Social Studies," or a "Department of Citizenship"; but it is highly important that all the social studies which have a content of direct civic value should be grouped, correlated, and directed by the same head; and that the directing head be selected with especial reference to his ability to adapt and apply the several social studies to their civic ends.

ADAPTATIONS FOR THE VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL.

The high-school program indicated above has been proposed primarily with reference to a general high-school course of study, such as exists in the Central High School. Such a program should be modified, or the emphasis placed differently, to meet the special needs of the vocational school.

The course in "vocational civics" recommended for the first year of the high school is peculiarly adapted to the purpose of the Vocational High School, and should be preceded in the prevocational years

by the type of instruction in civics and United States history recommended for the seventh and eighth grades.

As long as the vocational school remains a two or three year school, it is recommended that the course in ancient and medieval history be dropped entirely, and that the course in vocational civics (or civic biology) in the first year be followed in the second year by offerings in industrial history and commercial geography with emphasis upon elemental economic principles. Business law may find ample place in the course in vocational civics. It is highly important that commercial and industrial pupils should be given a social and civic viewpoint and should be well grounded in elemental economic principles.

When the four-year course is established in the Vocational High School, the minimum requirements recommended above should be applied, with offerings in commercial geography and industrial history, and with special emphasis in the fourth year upon economic problems.

ADAPTATIONS FOR KORTRECHT HIGH SCHOOL.

The fact can not be escaped that the colored population of Memphis is an integral part of the community and a significant factor in its life; and that every negro child in the public-school system of Memphis is "a citizen of the United States and of the State wherein he resides." Every citizen needs training for citizenship, and it is of the most vital importance to the community that every citizen should have such training. The more unprepared the citizen is for his civic obligations, the greater the need, whether he be native or foreign, white or black.

It is imperative that the civic training urged in this report for the school system of Memphis be extended to the colored schools. The principles set forth in section 1 of this part are the same for both colored and white schools. Differences in presentation there should be, but they are differences of the kind that should characterize two white schools in different sections because of differences in conditions of life, experience, and interest of the children affected.

In order that the colored boys and girls of Memphis may receive adequate civic training, it is necessary, first, that they all be in school during the compulsory school age, and that they be given a full eight-year elementary course and a four-year high-school course, or, better, that they be provided with junior and senior high schools. It is necessary, in the second place, that they should be afforded an environment with respect to buildings and equipment such as is indispensable to effective education and will make the community mean something to these boys and girls and stimulate in them a deeper sense of their obligation and responsibility to their community.

These things being provided for, the course of civic training recommended in this chapter for the first six elementary grades and for the grammar grades should be installed in the colored schools, with only such adaptations in manner of approach, in illustration, and in application as will make it function in their lives. The course in civics suggested for the ninth grade or the first-year high school is equally desirable for the colored high school or junior high school. The stressing of ancient and medieval history is certainly no more to be desired in the colored high school than in the Central or Vocational High Schools. The aim should be to give these boys and girls as intelligent an appreciation as possible of the problems of their community and national life in the solution of which they must inevitably be factors.

4. A SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS.

1. That training for citizenship be made a more conspicuous aim of the public schools, from the first elementary grade to the last year of the high school.
2. That this civic training be so organized with respect to content and method as to function in the present and later life of the pupil as a citizen, and in the development of a better Memphis and an efficient democracy.
3. That the course of civic training be organized in three well-defined "cycles"—(1) for the first six elementary grades, (2) for the grammar grades and first year of high school, or the junior high-school grades, and (3) for the last three years of the high school.
4. That in all three cycles pupil activities and experience be utilized as a means of cultivating civic habits and traits and as a basis for the interpretation of instruction.
5. That the instruction given in each cycle be organized primarily as a means of influencing the pupils' present attitude of mind toward the community and its government, and of otherwise meeting the needs of present growth.
6. That a course of social study be provided for the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades (junior high-school cycle) that will be continuous, that will coordinate vitally the civic, historical, economic, and geographical elements in the subject matter of the grades, and that will culminate in a civics course in the ninth grade in which the vocational interest of the pupil is predominant.
7. That, in the high schools, a minimum requirement of social study be made as follows: first year (ninth grade)—civics, with vocational relations emphasized; second year (tenth grade)—Modern European and world history; third year (eleventh grade)—American history and its world relations; fourth year (twelfth grade)—problems of democracy.

8. That greater discrimination be shown in the offerings, elections, and adaptations of the social studies in the several high schools and in the several curriculums of these schools with respect to the needs of particular groups.

9. That the social studies in each high school be grouped together in a department under the direction of a head whose qualifications shall include ability to adapt and apply the several social studies to their civics ends.