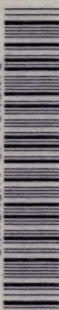



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THE TEACHING OF HISTORY IN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

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THE TEACHING OF HISTORY
IN JUNIOR AND SENIOR
HIGH SCHOOLS

BY

ROLLA MILTON TRYON

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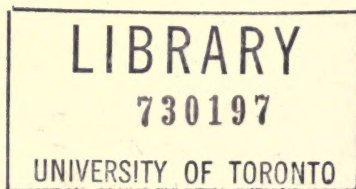
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PREFACE

This book has been written in the interest of better history teaching. It deals in most part with what might be denominated everyday classroom problems in the teaching of history in the upper-elementary and high-school grades, both junior and senior. The technic of teaching has received the chief emphasis in the majority of the chapters, and the general psychological, pedagogical, and historical phases of the subject, as well as the unsettled problem of what to teach, have been omitted. The idea back of the discussion throughout is that there is a technic of teaching history in the junior and senior high schools that can be mastered by a teacher and actually applied in directing the daily classroom activities, regardless of the content of the course.

The writer fully realizes the dangers accompanying a discussion which attempts to be so practical and concrete as the one contained in the following pages purports to be. When one presents a history-recitation score card, a specific procedure for supervised study in history, a detailed outline of how to use a textbook, a definite scheme to attain progress within the subject, directions for writing a term paper, concrete examples of the problem-solving method in history, and a score or more of similar suggestions, one is likely to be met with the objection that the specific procedure proposed is by no means the best or the only one. The author's rejoinder to such an objection is that in no case has he done more than present *a* way of doing a specific thing. This definiteness in all probability will be more helpful to some teachers than to others. It is highly desirable that the beginner know a number of effective

ways of doing a multitude of things connected with everyday procedure in history teaching. While a teacher might eventually discover through experience many or all of the suggestions this book contains, his initial success will be more certainly assured if he knows on beginning his career an effective way to do a number of things.

The reader will observe that the author has made considerable use, mainly for illustrative purposes, of the work of others in the field. Pains-taking care has been exercised throughout the book to give due credit for all material used in this manner. Some utilization has also been made of the writer's material recently published in the *Elementary School Journal*, the *School Review*, and the *Historical Outlook* (formerly the *History Teacher's Magazine*). For the privilege of drawing quite freely on this material he wishes to express to the editors of these periodicals his sincere appreciation. He also desires to express his gratitude to Mr. Howard C. Hill, Head of the Department of History in The University of Chicago High School, for a critical reading of the entire manuscript and for valuable suggestions relative to the content and organization of a number of chapters.

ROLLA M. TRYON

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THE TEACHING OF HISTORY IN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

CHAPTER I

THE HISTORY RECITATION

A history teacher's success is largely determined by what goes on from day to day in the recitation period. While it is highly desirable that a teacher possess certain personal and social qualities, it is nevertheless true that he must be able to show considerable skill in conducting a recitation in order long to maintain his existence in a progressive school system. Since this fact is so generally accepted, the problem for the actual or would-be history teacher becomes one of mastering a recitation technic, the application of which will give worth-while results. However, before one can master this technic, one must objectify it and analyze it into its component parts to discover the contribution of each of these parts to a well-conducted recitation. In other words, one must see that certain conditions are requisite to a good recitation in history, that there are definite principles to apply, standards to attain, and qualities to seek; that there are also certain forms or types of a recitation to employ, definite things to do in making an effective assignment of a history lesson, a legitimate amount of time due the pupils in most recitations, and a proper number and a desirable kind of questions to ask. It is to a consideration of all these important phases of the history teacher's daily work that this first chapter is devoted.

CONDITIONS NECESSARY TO A GOOD RECITATION
IN HISTORY

Before a history teacher can expect to do effective teaching he must surround himself and the class with conditions necessary to a good recitation. Generally speaking, these conditions are freedom from distraction by the teacher, the pupils, and the outside world; interest and enthusiasm on the part of the teacher and the pupils; carefully planned work on the part of the teacher and carefully prepared work on the part of the pupils; high standards of attainment; a spirit of coöperation and sympathy; and pupils surrounded with suitable material equipment.¹ All of these are both desirable and necessary. The majority of them are also under the direct control of the teacher. The two not completely under his control are distractions from the outside world and the proper environment in the matter of heat, light, and a room of suitable size and appropriately supplied with desks, tables, chairs, and historical laboratory equipment. State and municipal regulations may aid in securing the first of these exceptions, but if a history teacher gets what is absolutely necessary for effective work in the line of maps, charts, pictures, diagrams, models, books, and magazines, he will often need to use all the persuasive powers at his command to convince superintendents and school boards that he deserves an equipment for his subject, history, equal to that which is almost universally supplied for physics, chemistry, manual training, and domestic science; and that to do good work in history he should have his share of the money which is too often lavishly spent in equipping laboratories, shops, and cooking establishments in high schools.

While a teacher does not have full control of the distractions from the outside world, he is personally responsible for those created either by himself or by a member of the class. Here is a high-school student's actual description of her history

¹ G. H. Betts, *The Recitation*, pp. 81 ff.

teachers who hindered the progress of their recitations by their self-created distractions and exasperating annoyances:

The teacher of Greek history was a nervous little old woman who did not seem to know what she was going to do next. She would bob around the room continually, no matter whether she was explaining something or one of the pupils was reciting. This seemed to me very annoying and distracted attention from the work. Besides this, she talked extremely fast and her voice did not carry well. She very seldom repeated her statements or questions when asked to, but more often gave one a zero for inattention. When this happened two or three times, it usually led to discouragement and, on the part of several including myself, to stubbornness. The Roman history teacher was quite a different individual. She was a fluffy little middle-aged woman who tried to act like a girl of sixteen. She had many new and fancy clothes which caused a great deal of comment among the girls and boys of her classes. She was always careful to strike a becoming pose when sitting or standing, which disgusted the girls and made the boys snicker quite often.

While these are in all probability extreme cases, the fact remains, however, that the teacher is occasionally the distraction which most interferes with the progress of the recitation.

Of all the factors essential to a good recitation in history none are more important than interest and enthusiasm on the part of the teacher. These plus a charming personality are the main factors so far as the teacher is concerned in causing high-school pupils to like and appreciate history. "I liked and appreciated history in the high school because of a wide-awake, interested, and enthusiastic teacher" occurs over and over again in the answers of high-school graduates to the question, "Why did you like history in the high school?" Typical of many of these answers is the one which reads:

The reason I liked history in high school was because the teacher under whom I started was unusually good. He made the subject very interesting and it was no longer a forced subject, but I loved

to study it. When I took up medieval history, my teacher was changed and my interest shifted too. This teacher was not as enthusiastic as the former and failed to arouse an appreciation for this period of history; consequently it was of very little interest to me. My history teacher for the last two years of high school was a lady of remarkable personality who seemed to radiate her enthusiasm for the subject. She strove to arouse and guide our appreciation and to elevate and train our taste, as well as to impart knowledge and to increase skill. The interest she aroused was not a means, but served as a motive, for the acquisition of knowledge and for the formation of right habits of thought and action.

Carefully planned work on the part of the teacher, carefully prepared work on the part of the pupils, and high standards of attainment are also prerequisites to a good recitation in history. A teacher who has labored through a recitation for which neither he himself nor his pupils had especially prepared knows how painful such an experience really is. Exigencies of time occasionally compel all parties concerned in a recitation to approach it somewhat unprepared. Making due allowance, however, for all such occasions, there should be no escape for a single individual from a painstaking preparation of the material on which each history recitation is to be based. A good rule for the teacher to follow in this matter is always to be sure that each student knows in advance exactly what is required of him and subsequently to see that each one lives up to this requirement to the best of his ability. As for his own preparation, the ideal for the teacher is to have the entire course planned in considerable detail before beginning to teach it. Evidently no teacher can know on beginning a course just what he is going to do on the sixteenth day of the semester. To be prepared in detail he does not need to know this, for what he does on this particular day will be determined by what he did on the fifteenth and the fourteenth or possibly on all of the fifteen preceding days. The detail that he does need to know consists of the general organization of the field

of history to be taught, the dates-events worth remembering, the personages to be known, and the maps to be made. He should also have in his possession a teaching outline of each main division of the field with the best available references, maps, charts, pictures, and similar supplementary materials indicated in their proper places. Painstaking carefulness in the organization and preparation of work on the part of the teacher will invariably pay big dividends in the form of well-prepared work on the part of the pupils, because the teacher will be able to make clear from day to day just what is required and will consequently be in a position to demand that each pupil live up to the requirements to the best of his ability. All of this in the end will result in recitations where high standards of attainment are maintained. Slackers will soon discover that to come to a recitation unprepared is a very disagreeable experience, one which they will not desire to undergo repeatedly.

GOVERNING PRINCIPLES AND FUNDAMENTAL QUALITIES

If a history teacher wishes to become an artist in the matter of planning, managing, and conducting a recitation, it will be necessary for him to master and apply the old and familiar principles of unity, proportion, and coherence. In all probability the application of these principles will be a conscious one on the part of beginners, but with the accumulation of successful teaching experience they will be applied with ease and facility quite unconsciously. There are, of course, certain types of formal work such as drill and miscellaneous reviews in which one does not expect to apply them. Generally speaking, however, as the work progresses from day to day there will be few meritorious recitations that ignore them entirely.

How the principles of unity, proportion, and coherence can be applied in a single recitation period in history may be illustrated by the following concrete example. The assignment for the recitation in question was on early canals and railroads in

the United States. The three main topics for consideration were the Erie Canal in New York, 1817-1825, canal construction in other states, and the first American railroads. In the recitation based on this assignment unified thinking was attained in many ways. In the first place the whole discussion centered on early canals and railroads in the United States. Everything said and done throughout the period related directly to the main topic. The members of the class knew at every stage of the recitation what phase of the main topic was under consideration. Other unifying phases of this same recitation were the position of the pupil in front of the class when making a recitation of some length, the use of maps, charts, sketches, and drawings large enough for the entire class to see, and the summary at the close of the period. All these unifying devices were employed with excellent results. The summary served to bring together the main features of the discussion and leave the class with a unified body of material. A review at the beginning of the period was instrumental in unifying the work of the previous day with that of the present.

The principle of proportion was applied in this particular recitation in two ways; namely, giving a specific amount of time to each phase of the recitation and devoting a specific amount of the time allowed for the new material to each of the three subtopics. The phases of the recitation were assignment, review, consideration of the new lesson, and the summary. To each of these was given a specific amount of the entire time of the period, thus applying the principle of proportion. The twenty-five minutes devoted to the consideration of the new material was distributed in such a way as to bring out what one of the three subtopics was of most importance, what one next, and what one least. The class was conscious of this distribution, and when the summary was made by one of the members the three subpoints were emphasized in about the same proportion that they had been in the original discussion.

Coherence was much in evidence in the recitation under consideration. The review connected the past material with the present. Inasmuch as the lesson the day before was on the general subject of internal improvements, it was important that the relation of the previous work to the present be shown. The summary also served to tie the work of the day more firmly to that of previous days, thus applying the important principle of coherence. Individual recitations of some length on each of the three subtopics also served to give a connected view of the material relating thereto.¹ Thus it will be seen from this brief description of an actual recitation in history that the principles of unity, proportion, and coherence can be applied in teaching just as they are in literature and art.

Besides controlling principles there are certain fundamental qualities of a teaching exercise that it is well for a history teacher to keep in mind if he is to achieve other than mediocre results. These are clearness, force, and fine adaptation. The boy who said that a "furlough" is a "mule" is a splendid example of the need of clearness. This same boy attempted to prove that he was right by citing the picture of a soldier on a mule, with the legend, "Going Home on a Furlough." There are certain unavoidable defects in history texts which make it imperative for the teacher to keep the quality of clearness always in evidence during the recitation. Text-books in history by necessity are made up largely of generalizations; they also contain many unfamiliar words, as well as words expressing ideas differing greatly from the ideas commonly associated with them. The history teacher must continuously be on his guard for all such pitfalls. To make the abstract generalizations of the text concrete, he must use an abundance of illustrative material in the form of supplementary reading, pictures, diagrams, sketch maps, and charts; and to clear up any misconceptions which are likely to result

¹ The recitation described above was taught by H. C. Hill, of The University of Chicago High School.

from familiar words used figuratively or expressing ideas not usually associated with them, he will need to give such words special attention. The necessity for care along both of these lines will be brought home to the teacher every time he reads a set of test papers, in which he is sure to find words used incorrectly, facts wrongly applied, and, in truth, all sorts of historical monstrosities. To minimize the misconceptions he is sure to find on testing his teaching for the quality of clearness, the history teacher must plan a multitude of schemes to determine the clarity of his own and the textbook's presentation of the subject as well as to give the pupils every possible opportunity to express in their own words what they have gleaned on any given subject from various sources; for it is only through the exercise of vigilant care and intelligent foresight that the history teacher can feel sure that his presentation of the subject contains the all-important quality of clearness.

The quality of force is a spiritual one and consequently difficult to define and measure. One can recognize it in a recitation when one sees it, but just how to attain it is not easy to tell. It depends very largely upon the interest and enthusiasm of the teacher. An enthusiastic and interested teacher begets in a class like characteristics. A teacher full of vivacity, natural vigor, and life will fill his class with similar desirable qualities. Forceful history teaching is almost sure to be good teaching, since much of the value of historical instruction lies in the lasting impressions made upon the students. Recitations continuously lacking in force seldom make any impressions at all on a class. A dead history recitation is certainly not to be tolerated. A study so teeming with life must be forcefully taught. By conscious striving a teacher whose recitations are lacking the quality of force may in time acquire considerable skill in injecting this desirable quality into them.

Fine adaptation is a prerequisite to the qualities of clearness and force. If what the teacher is teaching is not adapted to the age, interest, and capacity of the pupils, it will

unfailingly be difficult to make it either clear or forceful. The great problem of adapting history to children both in the elementary and in the secondary schools is far from a satisfactory solution. As the situation now stands, it is incumbent upon the individual teacher to take the material outlined in the course of study or in the textbook and to adapt it to those he is teaching. He can be materially aided in this matter if both syllabus and text strive to select and discuss only the topics and movements which are adaptable to the pupils for whom they are intended. Since this is a condition still to be dreamed of, the teacher will need to give much attention to the matter of adaptation; and since adapting history to high-school pupils is so much a problem of method of presentation, there is much necessity for a careful consideration of this problem. What is meant here is this: The American Revolution is taught on both the junior and the senior high-school level. It often happens that a teacher presents this subject to the same pupils on each of these levels. In all such cases the material taught would have to be adapted to the age and capacity of the pupils largely through the method of presentation. Facts relating to the Stamp Act Congress, the Boston Tea Party, England's commercial policy toward the colonies, and the battles of Bunker Hill and Lexington and Concord might be taught on each level, but if the same devices and methods of presentation were used in both cases, there would certainly be a lack of adaptation on one of the levels. Thus it will be seen that adapting to the pupils the material taught in any given recitation is a problem of supreme importance and one largely left for the individual teacher to solve.

CONTROLLING AIMS

History teachers are often accused of doing indefinite teaching. This criticism has resulted in wholesome efforts on the part of some teachers to make their work more definite.

They accomplish this by setting up specific objectives for a series of lessons or even a single lesson. If a teacher sets out to teach the American Revolution with a very explicit aim in mind and tests his results strictly according to it, he will escape the criticism of indefiniteness so common and so just nowadays.

Besides the explicit aim that the teacher may have in mind in teaching the American Revolution or a similar topic, there are certain specific aims common to all recitations. These are no other than the common ones of testing, teaching, and drill. Whatever else he does with the assignment made the day before, the history teacher must unfailingly test the pupils' preparation of what he has assigned them; and since knowledge of history and historical movements will always remain one of the legitimate goals of all history teaching, he will need to test the actual knowledge his pupils are acquiring as they proceed along the historical way. If he is unacquainted with the class, he will also want to spend much time in testing habits of study, since it is only by this means that he will be able to locate improper methods and to supplant them with proper ones. During the time of the recitation given over to such testing the teacher should secure the information necessary to make it possible for him to diagnose the cause of both general and individual failures. He can also check his own skill in applying the principles and qualities discussed above. Such a self-examination may often bring disappointments, but will in the end work for the good of all concerned.

The history teacher's real skill is best evidenced by his ability to do what in reality he is paid to do; namely, teach. To teach, however, does not necessarily mean to do all the reciting. This may be advisable occasionally but not often. Among other things, high-school history teaching means (1) giving the pupils opportunities to express themselves concerning things they have read; (2) correcting wrong impressions wherever they exist; (3) helping pupils to master and to organize related historical facts; (4) giving additional

information which the teacher has acquired through reading and travel; (5) having at hand at the opportune time illustrative materials to make abstract and general statements concrete and meaningful; (6) developing certain principles underlying history study; and (7) inspiring pupils to better efforts, not only in history but in all phases of their work both in and out of school.

In spite of the fact that he may run the risk of being dry and formal, the history teacher should spend some time in actual drill work. Before this can be profitably done, however, he must have definitely in mind the phases of the work which he hopes to make automatic. Quite often too much is attempted along this line, with the accompanying result of making little or nothing automatic. There are, of course, certain dates in each field of history which must be learned for all time, personages who ought to be known very intimately, maps which must be produced from memory, large historical movements which need to be known and remembered as unified wholes. Before the teacher can do any effective drill on dates, personages, maps, and the story of large movements, he must decide with definiteness just what is to be included in each of these lines. In other words, before beginning his work as a teacher of American history, or in any other field of history for that matter, the history teacher ought to make a list of dates-events to identify and remember, of personages to know, of maps to make—and he ought to formulate an overview or story of the entire field. Having done these things he will never be uncertain about the drill phases of the work—a very desirable state of mind in which to be. Of course the teacher's method of teaching facts of this character will make certain that there is much content associated with them before any drill upon them. A good way to think of such material is to look upon it as forming the multiplication tables of history, which are to be drilled upon and known quite automatically just as the tables in arithmetic are.¹

¹ See Chapter XI for a full treatment of this phase of the teacher's work.

MANAGEMENT

The ordinary rules of scientific management are undeniably as germane to a high-school history recitation as to the management of a farm, a factory, a shop, a store, or a household. In discussing the application of some principles of scientific management to city-school systems, one writer mentions among others the following principle as especially relevant to the management of city schools: "The worker must be kept supplied with detailed instruction as to the work to be done, the standards to be reached, the methods to be employed, and the appliances to be used."¹ If one substitutes the word "student" for the word "worker" in this quotation, one has an excellent principle of guidance for the high-school history teacher. When students are kept supplied with specific instructions as to the work to be done, the standards to be reached, the methods to be employed, and the materials to be used, they will work with a definiteness hitherto unknown. Recitation standards must be well understood by all concerned; the general method of procedure must be no secret of the teacher's; the directions for preparing the work for the daily recitation must be so explicit that no one can fail to understand and to meet them; and, finally, the maps, charts, reference books, and all other classroom equipment must be as familiar to the pupils as to the teacher. Few will question the validity of these statements. Their application is sure to result in tangible rewards.

Besides applying the foregoing principle of ordinary business procedure, the history teacher must also master some of the technic of history-recitation management. What is meant by this is that he will have to learn to utilize at the proper time and in the proper place all the resources at his command. A special report has been planned to make concrete some

¹ J. F. Bobbitt, "Some General Principles of Management applied to the Problems of City-School Systems," *Twelfth Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I, p. 89.

abstract statement of the text. Able manipulation brings this forth at the opportune time. An illustrative source extract is to be read when a certain point in the recitation is reached. Efficient direction sees to it that this source is at hand and read. An appropriate picture, sketch, chart, or what not is to be used somewhere in the lesson. A skillful manager will have these at hand and use them at the appropriate time and place. To manage a history recitation scientifically and effectively is not the work of a neophyte. Skill in it comes only through much experience and careful attention to all of its phases.

Two examples of good management have recently come to the writer's attention. One of these divides the recitation into four parts, as follows: review, recitation upon assigned work, summary, and the advanced assignment. The *review* usually takes five or ten minutes and aims to do two things: first, to emphasize and throw new light on facts of the previous lesson, and, secondly, to connect past and present material. The *recitation* proper usually takes the form of questions and answers, narrative account of certain topics, or a combination of the two, in which case the teacher calls on one pupil to discuss fully one topic in the lesson outline. When this pupil has finished, the teacher brings out by questions additional points of information and connection. Into this part of the recitation period the teacher often introduces readings by himself or by pupils, special reports, blackboard work, and the filling-in of outline maps. The *summary* takes the form of an oral recitation by one or more pupils or of an outline worked out by the class and teacher coöperatively, the main points being written on the board and copied in the pupils' notebooks. The aim of the summary is to emphasize the important points in the lesson of the day and at the same time to show the relation of this lesson to previous lessons. The *advance assignment* is usually in two parts, one consisting of a review topic and the other of an outline mainly based on the text. The teacher accompanies the giving out of the outline with a few words as to where the

references may be found and what they contain, as well as an indication of the points of difficulty and of special emphasis. The summary very often leads up to and introduces the advanced assignment.¹

The other example of management which has come to the writer's attention divides the period into the following six parts: preliminary questions, assignment of blackboard work, quiz questions, floor talks, explanation of blackboard work, and assignment of the new lesson. The time ordinarily devoted to each of these phases of the recitation in the order named is five, two, eight, fifteen, ten, and five minutes. The object of the *preliminary questions* is to focus the thoughts of the pupils at once on the lesson. Such questions as What impressed you most in the lesson? What was most significant? Anything you particularly enjoyed? are typical of the kind of preliminary questions asked. The assignment of the *blackboard work* follows the preliminary questions. Ten or twelve pupils are asked to place on the board (from memory) maps, graphs, outlines, diagrams, and lists of names which have been assigned the previous day. While these ten or twelve pupils are at the board the attention of the remainder of the class is occupied with quiz questions asked by the pupils themselves. Sometimes one pupil is selected to answer all questions propounded, his place being taken by a volunteer if he fails quickly. At other times the class is divided into two sections, one section quizzing the other. In fact, all sorts of devices are employed to secure variety and to sustain interest. When all or nearly all of the pupils at the board have finished their work, the class gives its attention to a single speaker in what is called a *floor talk*. In this talk the pupil faces the audience and speaks without notes, the aim being to set forth in a straightforward, concise manner his knowledge of the subject under consideration. After he has finished, the teacher calls for criticisms and makes them himself, both adverse and favorable. Before closing the recitation

¹ Used by A. F. Barnard, of The University of Chicago High School.

the teacher gives the pupils who were sent to the blackboard at the beginning of the hour an opportunity to explain what they have done. Just enough attention is given to this phase of the work to make those doing it feel that their work has been observed and checked. The last five minutes of the period are devoted to the assignment of the new lesson. This seems to be enough time because the work is planned with such care. To guide him each student is presented with a card containing the study plan for the history lesson.¹

Whether or not one agrees *in toto* with the two foregoing programs of history-recitation management, one must accept as feasible the idea back of them. Of course, not every day's work of necessity falls into the four divisions mentioned in the first example or the six mentioned in the second; this would grow monotonous. Nevertheless pupils enjoy doing the same kind of work for several days in succession. They learn what is expected of them and enjoy living up to these expectations.

Of the constant elements in good recitation management, the assignment of the new lesson is of supreme importance, for upon it and its accomplishment rests the success or failure of the entire recitation period. It is certainly not putting the case too strongly to say that one of the most important things done by a teacher in any given history recitation is the assignment of the work upon which the next one is to be based. Just when and how an assignment should be made and the amount of time that should be devoted to it are matters that the teacher must settle for himself. It is in all probability safe to assume that few history teachers spend too much time in assigning the lesson; and that fewer still make the assignment too definite, especially for immature pupils.

Considerable time and a rich store of schemes are required to make all history assignments sufficiently specific, clearly

¹ For a full description of this plan by its originator see "A Lesson in History," *Ohio History Teacher's Journal* (November, 1916), pp. 110 ff. The card is reproduced on page 40 of the following chapter.

comprehensive, and adequately appealing. The following is a list of specific things which a history teacher might do in assigning a lesson (the explicit thing will, of course, always be determined by the ability and advancement of the class): (1) call attention to the most important points in the advanced lesson; (2) outline the lesson for the pupils; (3) explain difficult parts of the new lesson; (4) give a list of leading questions; (5) show pupils how to make their own outlines; (6) suggest definite references, pictures, and maps for study; (7) develop the outline of the advanced lesson with the aid of the class; (8) place the difficult words on the blackboard and pronounce them; (9) read the advanced lesson over with the pupils, noting the large topics and asking them to prepare the new lesson according to the outline thus made; (10) simply outline enough of the lesson to show the pupils how to study it, and leave the remainder for them to do; (11) assign by topics with little discussion or explanation; and (12) give a list of topics with general references and citations to special references, indicating at the same time the relative importance of the topics. It is often desirable with beginners in high-school history to read the lesson over with them one day and ask them to recite upon it the following day. Good general rules to follow in making the assignment are: set definite tasks to be performed; give specific instructions as to what to learn as well as to where to find material and how to master it; and never feel that the assignment is effectively made until each pupil clearly understands just what work is to be done in preparation for the succeeding period.

FORMS OR TYPES

Junior and senior high-school history recitations may legitimately assume a number of forms or types, the chief ones being (1) a combination of the recitation and the lecture method with the emphasis on reciting by the pupils; (2) a combination of the recitation and lecture method with the

emphasis on the part taken by the teacher; (3) the topical recitation; (4) the study recitation; (5) the textbook recitation; (6) the review and drill recitation; (7) the test recitation; (8) the individual recitation; and (9) the socialized recitation. If a teacher desires to develop a subject inductively, he will make much use of the first mentioned of these forms. He will question the class sharply on the assigned material which relates to the subject under consideration. When necessary he will amplify with extra material in the form of a brief lecture or explanation, such work on his own part being connecting links in the development of the lesson. There will be no digression or lack of continuity in the work. The line of cause and effect will hold things together. Coherence will be much in evidence.

When the teacher desires to cover a subject not fully treated in the textbook he may use a combination of the recitation and the lecture method, placing the emphasis on the latter. In using this form of recitation the textbook material will not receive much attention. The teacher will do most of the talking, making a liberal use of illustrative material to render his presentation clear and concrete. Questions will be asked now and then to make sure that the pupils are following. When this form is used day after day and for all kinds of work it becomes the lecture method pure and simple.

The topical and the textbook recitation may at times be identical. For example, if the work on the French and Indian Wars is taken up in the recitation period topic by topic as presented in the text, there would be no distinction in the two forms. The recitation in this case would be carried on by a mere announcement of the topic by the teacher and a presentation of what the text contains by some pupil. This procedure would continue until all the topics the text contains on the subject were covered. While the two forms are identical when thought of in this connection there is, however, a use of each where this identity is not present. In using what is known as

the topical method in teaching history some teachers assign each member of the class a topic. The recitation takes the form of special reports on these assigned topics, one topical report after another being given. Another use of this form of recitation is when the teacher outlines somewhat independently of the text the work on the tariff, slavery, or like topics. The recitation in this case is carried on by the members of the class discussing each topic in the assignment when it is announced by the teacher. Each member of the group will know something about each topic. This fact makes the topical recitation in this form better adapted to high-school pupils than individually assigned topics.

The textbook recitation may take the form of pure rote work. Originally it was chiefly this, the words of the author being repeated verbatim by the student when reciting. It may also take the other extreme, namely, reciting with the text open where little is required either of the teacher or of the pupils. When used in either of these two ways the textbook recitation has little in its favor. If, however, the substance rather than the exact words of the author is mastered by the pupils and reported during the recitation, and if the open book is used for reference and to teach how to study, this form of the history recitation becomes one which no teacher would care to neglect entirely.

The study recitation is much like a laboratory exercise. In it the pupils work with books open, write reports, draw pictures, make maps and charts, read references, and do other things characteristic of the laboratory method. The recent supervised-study movement has done much to bring this form of recitation to the foreground. When regular supervised-study periods are not provided, the teacher can profitably use some of the recitation time to teach the fundamentals of study and their application to history.

The review and drill recitation and the test recitation may be disposed of in one paragraph. While it may be desirable and

necessary to do a little reviewing, drilling, and testing in each recitation there are times when one can legitimately devote an entire period to any one of these types of work. Care should be taken, however, in the matter of testing, lest the teacher fall into the habit of doing that and nothing more. When a teacher merely reconstructs bit by bit the story the text gives, leaves the information in a piecemeal form, asks a superabundance of memory questions, and gives no additional information, he does not rise above the level of a mere tester of assigned work, something the parent could in all probability do as well. If a teacher has assigned a certain amount of work to the whole class, he may occasionally need an entire period to test it thoroughly. There will also be times when he will need to spend one or more periods in review and in drill. The only thing that seems to need emphasizing in connection with these activities is that each is essential to good teaching and deserves the best thought of the teacher in preparing to conduct recitations in which either of them plays the chief rôle.¹

The individual recitation is what the name suggests. It demands a large expenditure of the time and energy of the teacher. It can be used most effectively to test uniform requirements. For example, in teaching the Crusades, the Reformation, the French Revolution, the American Revolution, the Civil War, and similar topics, it can be understood in the beginning that each member of the class will be required to formulate in his own words a connected discussion of the subject in question and to recite it to the satisfaction of the instructor. On completing, for example, the study of the Civil War, the teacher could tell the story to the class or develop it as a class exercise. Individual recitation would then become the order of the day for a number of periods, the class as a whole being set to work on some advanced

¹ For two discussions of the forms of the history recitation see Walter Libby, "Forms of High-School Recitation," *Education*, XXVIII, 601 ff., and Frances Morehouse, "Forms of the History Recitation," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VII, 337.

problem. While this form of the history recitation can easily become a testing exercise and nothing more, it need not necessarily remain on this level.

The socialized recitation is one in which the outward responsibility for conducting and managing the recitation activities rests with the class, and not with the teacher as in the case with the majority of the forms described above. In a strictly socialized recitation conversations and discussions are transferred to the class circle, the teacher being a unit as each pupil is. Discussions, questions, and criticisms are between pupils, with the teacher occasionally drawn in, rather than always between the teacher and some member of the class. The direction of expression is also wholly in charge of the pupils, thus forcing them to project a sequence of topics around which their own contributions are to center.

A description of the procedure in teaching the tariff by means of the socialized recitation would run as follows: Let the class turn itself into a legislative body. For practical purposes it could represent the Senate and House of Representatives combined. Each member under this arrangement would be assigned a certain number of states to represent and have as many votes as the states he represents. After these preliminaries are out of the way and the proper officers have been chosen, a ways and means committee can be appointed. Before this committee can do any definite work the class should make a limited list of the items to appear in the tariff bill which is to result from this work. Forty or fifty items will be all a class can manage successfully. To aid in the selection of these items a copy of the tariff schedule in force at the date of the contemplated bill should be at hand. Each member of the class should be provided with a list of the proposed items as well as the duty on them in the law once in force. While the ways and means committee is working on a bill to present, the other members of the group can be thoroughly acquainting themselves with the industrial life and interests of the states

they represent. While doing this each one can tentatively make out a schedule on each item in the proposed list which he thinks the states in his group would have actually favored at the time of the proposed bill. In due time the ways and means committee will be ready to report; a copy of the report should be placed in the hands of each member of the class. In presenting this report as many of the members of the committee as care to do so should be permitted to speak, after which speeches will be in order from all those not members of the committee. A good plan is to have it understood in the beginning that each member of the group is to make a speech in which the interests of his group of states will be presented. At the proper time the vote can be taken. If at all possible the bill should be passed. This will require some caucusing, no doubt, and it may also require some changes in the original bill. In spite of these extra labors, however, the bill in some form should be passed, even if it is a tariff of "abominations," as some have been in the history of our country.

It should be said in concluding this section that the form each recitation or a series of recitations is to take should be a matter of considerable concern to the teacher, since it often determines in advance such problems as teacher-pupil activity, the number and kind of questions, the quantity and use to be made of supplementary material, the ways of securing unity, proportion, and coherence, and the operation of the factors in good recitation management. For example, if the teacher deliberately plans to consume most of the time himself, he will use a combination of the recitation and oral form with the emphasis on the latter; on the other hand, if he plans to have the pupils consume all or nearly all of the time, he will use either the individual or the socialized recitation. In other words, the thing to be done will determine the form of the recitation, which in turn will dictate the method of procedure to be used in accomplishing the end sought. A practical thing for the teacher to do is to specialize on two or three forms and then use the

others to accomplish special kinds of projects. To this latter service the individual, the study, the test recitations, and the combination of the recitation and the oral method with the emphasis on the oral are well adapted ; for regular day-by-day use the socialized form and a combination of the recitation and oral method with the emphasis on the recitation can be employed with worth-while results.

THE HISTORY QUESTION

There are three things connected with the question as a means of attaining efficiency in high-school history instruction to which the teacher should continuously give his attention. These are the quality, the number, and the kind of questions he is daily using. Certain essential qualities of good history questions should always be uppermost when a teacher is formulating them. If a history question stimulates reflection, is adapted to the pupils' experience, and calls forth a well-rounded thought clearly and logically expressed, it has some elements of superior quality. In order to make sure that his questions will contain these desirable characteristics, a history teacher should embody in his plan for the day six or eight thought-provoking questions, calling for discrimination and association, based on facts found in the lesson.

Just how many questions one should ask during a forty or forty-five minute history recitation is a matter which defies an arbitrary answer. As hinted above, the form of the recitation is one of the chief determining factors here. An inductive type will certainly demand many more questions on the part of the teacher than the socialized. Judging from the investigations that have been made of the questioning activity of history teachers, it seems safe to say that most of them either are asking too many questions or are using one form of the history recitation to excess. For example, one investigator, in gathering material for a study of the question, visited some twenty history recitations and actually counted the questions asked

during a forty minute period. It was found that the number of questions propounded by the teacher varied from 41 to 142, the actual figures for the twenty periods being 41, 47, 53, 60, 61, 61, 64, 66, 68, 76, 80, 88, 90, 90, 93, 94, 97, 125, 128, 142.¹ Another study of a similar nature which investigated ten recitations of each of two history teachers found the facts exhibited in Table I.

TABLE I. THE QUESTIONING ACTIVITY OF TWO HIGH-SCHOOL HISTORY TEACHERS²

FIRST TEACHER			SECOND TEACHER		
<i>Questions</i>		<i>Minutes</i>	<i>Questions</i>		<i>Minutes</i>
93	in	25	88	in	26
54	in	32	142	in	44
95	in	23	116	in	35
120	in	25	100	in	26
52	in	17	75	in	32
139	in	27	79	in	30
110	in	45	119	in	34
70	in	30	117	in	28
36	in	20	97	in	24
145	in	40	65	in	26
914	in	284	998	in	305
Average per minute, 3.22			Average per minute, 3.20		

Few teachers will dissent from the opinion that in the majority of the twenty history recitations represented in Table I too many questions were asked, unless one grants that almost all of them were of a type demanding many questions. Be this as it may, the practical thing for the history teacher to do in facing these startling findings is rigidly to guard his own questioning activity and see that the number of questions he asks has some direct relation to the form of the history recitation he is using.

¹ Romiett Stevens, *The Question as a Measure of Efficiency in Instruction*, p. 11.

² E. E. Lewis, "The Questioning Activity of High-School Teachers," *Midland Schools* (February, 1916), p. 173.

If attention is directed to the kind of questions asked by the history teachers represented in Table I, one learns why they asked so many. In eleven history recitations visited by two investigators¹ the following facts were revealed:

Number of the recitation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Total number of questions	41	66	90	94	125	142	85	82	82	68	87
Number of memory questions	29	60	75	74	87	103	85	70	50	60	72

The fact that one of these investigators found that the number of memory questions was considerably higher in recitations in history than in most other subjects led her to remark that no other subject in the curriculum adheres to the textbook so closely for content, organization, and method as history; and that no other subject confines itself so steadfastly to facts.²

TEACHER-PUPIL ACTIVITY

The proper distribution of the time of the history-recitation period between the teacher and the pupils is yet among the many unstandardized phases of high-school history teaching. The determining factor in this problem, as with the number of questions, is found in the form of the recitation. If the class period is devoted to a lecture by the teacher, he will necessarily consume most of the time; if the socialized recitation, as described above, is employed, the teacher will remain in the background, consuming little or no time. Since these are types at each end of the scale, it remains to be determined what the legitimate proportion in an ordinarily conducted history recitation should be.

A partial answer to the question at issue may be found in present practices. How much of the time of a history recitation are teachers actually using, and how much are they permitting

¹ Stevens, op. cit. p. 47; L. E. Taft, "The Recitation as a Factor in producing Social Efficiency," *Education*, XXXIV, 147. ² Stevens, op. cit. p. 48.

their pupils to consume? Few attempts have been made to answer these queries. Two of the studies to which reference has already been made contain some material along this line. Measuring by the number of spoken words determined by stenographic reports of eleven history recitations, the following percentages of teacher-pupil activity were established:¹

Number of recitation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Teacher-activity	80	58	59	75	62	58	67	49	54	62	58
Pupil-activity	20	42	41	25	38	42	33	51	46	38	42

The interesting fact about the history recitations represented in these studies is that in but one case was the pupil-activity greater than the teacher-activity—the average for the eleven recitations being 62 per cent for teacher and 38 per cent for pupil. In minutes these percentages equal 24.8 and 15.2. With thirty in a class, which is not uncommon, it will be seen that each pupil would get half a minute out of a total of forty. If the teacher could be sure that the pupils' minds were actually active during all the 24.8 minutes he is talking, there would be some justification for his using nearly two thirds of the entire time. Adequate tests have not yet been devised to determine this matter. In the meantime it would seem safe for the teacher to give the pupils as much of the recitation time as consistency, common sense, and the form of recitation demand.

SUGGESTIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR CONDUCTING A HISTORY RECITATION

The writer has found from experience in directing practice teaching in high-school history that it is necessary to furnish the pupil-teacher with rather specific directions concerning the planning, the conducting, and the managing of a recitation. The following is a copy of some suggestions and directions for

¹ Stevens, *op. cit.* p. 22; Taft, *op. cit.* p. 147.

conducting a recitation in high-school history that has been used in this connection with gratifying results:

I. Form of the recitation.

1. History recitations may assume various forms. Determine in advance the form you are to use and make your plans accordingly.
2. The form of the recitation will determine the amount of time you yourself will consume. Keep this in mind and do not rob the pupils of time legitimately theirs.

II. Review of the previous lesson.

1. Determine just what points in the previous lesson or lessons you wish to review. Indicate these under method of procedure in your lesson plan.
2. Have in mind just how much time you intend to give to the previous lesson or lessons, to the new lesson, and to the assignment of next day's lesson. Make a practice of adhering to this schedule rather rigidly.

III. The new lesson.

1. Determine how it is to be introduced. Keep in mind its relation to the previous lesson or lessons.
2. Type of question: Attempt to keep a reasonable proportion of thought and memory questions. Avoid too many direct questions. Guard yourself against the use of double or triple questions, or a cumbersome wording of ordinary questions. Better write out six or eight leading questions in advance. Let them appear under method of procedure in your lesson plan.
3. The amount of talking and explaining done by the teacher will usually be small in comparison with that done by the pupils.
4. Each lesson will ordinarily have a leading problem. Pupils should have the main problem clearly in mind in order that they may the more easily grasp the big points developed during the recitation period.
5. A summary at the close of each lesson as well as at the conclusion of a series of lessons is usually worth while. Keep these in mind.

IV. Assignment of the next day's work.

1. Specific directions will always be given for the study of the new lesson. Often some directions will need to be given for the review of the previous lesson or lessons.
2. Allow yourself ample time for this phase of the work. Be sure that the pupils understand what is demanded of them, and later see that they come up to this demand according to the best of their ability.
3. Collateral reading should be carefully assigned. Assignments of special topics may be either given in class or placed on slips and passed out to individual pupils.

V. General management.

1. Maps, diagrams, pictures, and other illustrative materials should be in constant use. The ones for the day's lesson must be arranged before the recitation begins.
2. Attention and interest must be kept up. A sign of both is voluntary discussions, questions, and objections. When these are lacking, the cause must be sought, and some remedy applied.
3. Dull, diffident, or unprepared members of the class must not be neglected. Special methods may need to be devised for these.
4. Seek to apply the principles of unity, proportion, and coherence. Aim to make your teaching clear, forceful, and adapted to the pupils. Surround yourself with all the conditions under your control necessary to a good recitation in history. Stick to your controlling aim. Keep the pupils well informed as to the work to be done, the standards to be reached, the methods to be employed, and the materials to be used.

DIRECTIONS FOR OBSERVING AND STANDARDS FOR JUDGING

.Prospective history teachers, in training, are often required to visit individually or collectively a number of well-taught history recitations. To send these would-be teachers to visit without definite directions concerning what to observe and note, and before giving them any standards by which to measure good history teaching, is in most cases a waste of valuable

time. Hence it follows that, if results proportionate to the time spent in observation work are to be attained, some very specific instructions, directions, and standards must be given the observers. The writer has used with seemingly good results three methods of obtaining concreteness and definiteness in directing the observation work of classes in the teaching of history.

In the first place, after spending considerable time with a class in discussing the various phases of a history recitation, such as principles governing, fundamental qualities, controlling aim, conditions necessary, etc., the work in observation is begun. Each member of the group observing is asked to make as full notes as possible on the recitation observed. On the basis of these notes the recitation as a whole is discussed at the next meeting of the class. It often happens that three successive observations are made in order to get a more comprehensive view of the work of the demonstration teacher. By such a method of procedure it is quite easy for students to formulate concrete and definite reports. They can talk about principles, qualities, teacher-pupil activity, and the history question as exemplified in the recitation or recitations observed, and back up what they say with explicit examples.

After teachers in training have learned to observe the recitation as a whole, specialization can profitably be employed. The class is now divided into groups. One group is asked to specialize on the question, another on management, another on principles and qualities, and so on, until all phases of the recitation are covered. Each group is asked to visit not less than four consecutive recitations on which to base conclusions relative to the phase or phases under observation. This method secures even more definite results than the one described in the preceding paragraph.

Now, after the class has had some training in the use of the two methods already described and if the teacher wishes to see how effectively this knowledge can be used, he will have the

class as a whole visit the same recitation and judge it by means of the following score card or some similar scheme.

A HISTORY-RECITATION SCORE CARD

ITEMS	SCORE	
I. Principles governing	—	6
1. Unity	7	
2. Proportion	5	
3. Coherence	6	
II. Fundamental qualities	—	8
1. Clearness	7	
2. Force	9	
3. Adaptation	8	
III. Conditions necessary	—	7
1. Freedom from distractions	10	
2. Preparation of teacher and pupils	8	
3. Equipment	3	
IV. Management	—	7
1. Assignment of the new lesson	7	
2. The review	5	
3. The new lesson	10	
4. The summary	8	
5. Technic of management	5	
V. Form, questions, teacher-pupil activity	—	6
1. Adaptation of form to work in hand	4	
2. Adaptation of number and kind of questions to form	7	
3. Teacher-pupil activity	7	
4. Quality of questions	6	
Grade on recitation as a whole	—	68

In using the score card each arabic-numbered item can be graded on the basis of 10. From this data the grade to be given to each of the five main items can be determined, and from these five grades the score of the recitation as a whole is

made up. For instance, the grade of 68 per cent on the recitation as a whole in the foregoing example was attained as follows: When judged as to unity the recitations seemed to be worth 7, using 10 as a basis; on proportion and coherence, 5 and 6 respectively. The sum of these grades divided by 3 gives the grade (6) on I (Principles governing). The remaining items were similarly treated. The sum of the grades on the five main items is found to be 34. This number divided by 5 and multiplied by 10 gives the grade 68. Such a scheme is very easily manipulated, as there is no dealing in large numbers.

ADDITIONAL READING MATTER

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CHAPTER II

TEACHING PUPILS TO STUDY HISTORY

A history teacher once assigned a class the next five pages for the advanced lesson. The recitation on those pages the following day went very badly. In attempting to locate the cause of this poor work, it was revealed that a number of the pupils had read the assignment as many as five times. With this seeming care in preparation, however, these students were unable to participate in the recitation to the teacher's satisfaction. After a number of experiences of this same character he began to ask himself: "What *is* the trouble? Do these boys and girls know how to study history? Do I know as much about their study habits as I should? Are there any general rules for study that I can give them? Why can't I supervise them individually while they study?" Attempts to answer questions like these have resulted in a considerable body of material of interest and value to the rank and file of history teachers. It is to a presentation of this material that this chapter is devoted.

HOW HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS STUDY HISTORY

Very soon after a teacher takes charge of a new class in history he should set up the machinery necessary to acquaint himself with the study habits of each individual in the class. Answers to the following or a similar list of questions would furnish valuable information in this connection.

1. How many times do you read your lesson?
2. Do you look up in the dictionary new words which you do not understand?

3. Do you locate new towns or countries on the maps?
4. Do you turn to the pronouncing vocabulary for the pronunciation of capital names?
5. Do you ask yourself questions on the lesson and try to answer them?
6. Do you close your book and recite to yourself the story of the lesson?
7. Do you ever make a list of the paragraph topics in the lesson and recite them to yourself?
8. Do you take notes on the lesson unless you are required to?
9. Do you use other books in addition to your text unless required to?
10. Do you read the footnotes?
11. When you are referred to some point previously mentioned do you turn back and hunt it up?
12. Do you underscore important words or sentences in your book?
13. Do you ever compare or contrast two men or two events unless asked to?
14. Do you try to remember important events by remembering dates?
15. Do you, as a rule, read the lesson once through before attempting to get the details?

After the history teacher has secured the information which the answers to the preceding fifteen questions would give him, it will be worth his while to look into the matter of methods of studying history as reported by high-school pupils in schools other than his own. One of the first studies along this line in which history was included was conducted by N. C. Johnson, in 1899. Among the things of interest to history teachers in this inquiry is a tabulation of the methods used by pupils in studying history. Standing first in this list is "repeated readings." Other methods in the order of their most frequent occurrence are: selecting important topics, reflecting upon the lesson, reciting to one's self, reciting to other pupils, imaging place and events, making a map, writing down the lesson, reading and reflecting on each sentence, remembering

one event by another that occurred at the same time or is otherwise more or less closely related to it.¹

A more recent investigation along this same line is the one made by G. E. Rickard when he was teaching high-school history in Oakland City, Indiana. In Table II are found the methods of studying history which Rickard discovered and the percentage of the students using each.

TABLE II. HOW HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS STUDY HISTORY²

METHODS OF STUDYING	GRADE		HIGH-SCHOOL SECTIONS			
	7th	8th	1	2	3	4
	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
1. Read once	91	86	86	72	87	60
2. Use discrimination . .	—	—	43	55	35	40
3. Use maps	71	14	21	—	—	—
4. Use additional references	20	55	65	11	23	24
5. Re-read once or more .	5	45	50	28	30	24
6. Prepare map	—	—	65	—	—	—
7. Get sequence of topics .	11	41	14	—	—	12
8. Find date	—	—	28	—	—	—
9. Underscore	—	—	7	—	—	—
10. Outline	3	—	7	28	12	4
11. Jot down notes	—	3	—	11	19	8
12. Review	—	—	—	5	—	—
13. Learn dates	—	—	—	28	—	—
14. Study margins	—	—	—	18	—	—
15. Write dates	—	—	—	16	—	4
16. Restudy by outline . .	—	—	—	24	3	4
17. Find unknown words .	74	24	—	33	—	—
18. Recall without book . .	37	17	—	28	—	—
19. Get general view	—	—	—	—	25	16
20. Topical recall	—	—	—	—	25	4
21. Connect dates with events	3	3	—	—	12	12
22. Recite to a friend	—	—	—	—	3	—
23. Tell to self	9	10	—	—	12	33
24. Underscore important words	—	—	—	—	16	4

¹ "Habits of Work and Methods of Study of High-School Pupils," *School Review*, VII, 270.

² Compiled from studies made by Rickard and reported in his *Some Aspects of the Supervision of Study*, p. 42, and *School Review*, XXII, 675.

In the course of his investigations Rickard¹ secured some interesting concrete point-by-point tabulations of what pupils actually do in preparing a history lesson. In answer to the request, "Describe point by point the different things you do in preparing your history lesson," a twelve-year-old pupil in Grade VII A wrote:

1. Read the lesson over.
2. Read about it in other books.
3. Look up words I do not understand.
4. Then I make outline of paragraphs and look up each point.

A second-year high-school student listed the different things which she did in preparing a history lesson as follows:

1. I read each separate paragraph and get the main points.
2. I discuss to myself freely the main points and their relation to other parts.
3. I read it all over again to be sure I have not missed a single point.
4. If I come to a word I don't understand, I look it up.
5. I locate in the atlas every city and country mentioned.

Another student replied:

1. I put myself in the place of one of the characters in the lesson.
2. I shut my eyes and think of it as a picture, one scene at a time.
3. Sometimes in battles, I read the battle over, then draw a plan of the battle.
4. I locate in the geography places mentioned.

After the history teacher has finished the survey of the study-habits of the members of his own classes and made some inquiry how pupils in other schools get their history lessons, he is ready for the next step in teaching *his* pupils how to study. In all probability at this stage in the solution of his problem he will find himself confronted with a threefold task: (1) correcting

¹ "High-School Students' Description of their Methods of Study," *School Review*, XXII, 676 f.

undesirable study-habits; (2) encouraging desirable ones; and (3) offering concrete suggestions along new lines of attack. However, before the teacher can intelligently solve the outstanding problems relative to this stage of his work he will need to look into the psychological aspects of the general subject of how to study and of teaching how to study.

PSYCHOLOGY AS AN AID TO TEACHING HOW TO STUDY HISTORY

Since studying is largely a mental process, the history teacher will have to draw on his knowledge of a few of the most fundamental principles of the subject of psychology in formulating a plan to follow in teaching his pupils how to study. He will, indeed, have to become a psychologist for the time being. For practical purposes and immediate use he will read with much care discussions of the psychological phases of study in general, such as the one by Judd in his *Psychology of High-School Subjects*,¹ the one by Kitson in his *How to use your Mind*,² and possibly Whipple's thirty-eight rules for study in his *How to study Effectively*. Not until a teacher has read and mastered the contents of such discussions as these will he be able to do effective work in teaching his pupils how to study history. But some one asks, "What are the practical things for a history teacher in such discussions?" The answer is simple. The help-seeking teacher of history will come out of a thoughtful reading of these and similar discussions with fixed convictions as to the paramount importance of the following factors in effective history study: a rapid preliminary survey, concentration, the difference between reading and studying a book, the value and use of standards in studying, the value of a regular plan of attack, selecting essentials, elaborating a theme, the value of frequent reviews, the advantages and disadvantages of long

¹ Chap. xviii, "Teaching Students how to Study."

² Chap. iv, "Formation of Study-Habits."

and short periods of study, the use and abuse of an outline, and effective book-marking. Considerable time can profitably be spent with a class in discussing these phases of the problem of study as they relate to the field of history. Out of this discussion there should come a set of rules, formulated by the teacher with the coöperation of the class, subsequently to serve as a guide in studying history lessons. To aid the teacher in this matter the following suggestions relative to directions and rules for studying history are offered :

DIRECTIONS AND RULES FOR STUDYING HISTORY

Some high-school principals provide general directions for studying. These are placed in the hands of teachers and pupils alike. When such is the case, the history teacher will need only to develop with his classes directions and rules which are especially applicable to the study of his subject. The following are the general directions which Mr. F. M. Hammitt of the Mason City, Iowa, high school furnished the pupils when he was principal of the school in 1915. It will be observed that they are both general and specific in character. The specific ones which tell how to get a lesson seem to have been prepared with the history lesson in mind. In fact, they might have been labeled "To Get a History Lesson."

HOW TO STUDY

I. Have a regular time to study. Let nothing interfere with this time when it is once determined. This will be hard at first, but will soon become a habit, hence easy.

II. Choose a place where you can study. This place must be one where you are comparatively free from interruptions. It need not be a place absolutely quiet, as usual noises soon cease to force themselves on your attention.

III. Use your will power to hold yourself to the task in hand. You can't study one minute and then gaze out of the window a minute or think about other pupils, and accomplish much.

TO GET A LESSON

I. Get the topic or topics clearly in mind. In other words, find out where you are going, then go there and nowhere else.

II. After you know what the subject is you are to study, get what the book gives as the main or principal thought. Then get the details. It is well to underline the principal sentence in a paragraph, but note that each paragraph has only one principal sentence. Too much underlining confuses.

III. After you have thus studied one main division of the lesson, close the book and attempt to recite it to yourself, making notes if necessary. Then compare your recitation with the author's presentation.

IV. Relate the details with the main topics.

V. Talk over the lesson with others only after you have studied it. Repetition fixes things in your mind, so the oftener you think your lessons over, the better it will be for you.

VI. Do not try to hold unrelated facts. Get a relationship for each fact. The more relationships you can get, the more securely will it be fastened in your mind. Your teachers will supplement these instructions.

The teacher's right to adapt these rules to his needs is recognized in the last sentence, "Your teachers will supplement these instructions." In the practical application of such a set of directions to his work in history, the teacher could make the expression "To Get a Lesson" read "To Get a History Lesson." Then he would be at liberty to use the principal's suggestions along with those he and his class work out; the students would gladly cooperate in putting into practice such a set of rules as would result from this method of procedure.

Another school which regularly furnishes its pupils with general study helps is The University of Chicago High School. To supply each student with a set of these helps has been the custom of this school for a number of years. Inasmuch as the custom has been continued from year to year it seems to be successful. The character of these helps may be seen from the revised copy for the school year 1919-1920, which follows:

STUDY HELPS

The habits of study formed in school are of greater importance than the subjects mastered. The following suggestions, if carefully followed, will help you make your mind an efficient tool. Your daily aim should be to learn your lesson in less time, or to learn it better in the same time.

1. Form a time and place habit by studying the lesson in the same subject, in the same place, at the same time each day. Don't study immediately after a hearty meal.

2. Have proper study conditions and equipment—a quiet room not too warm, good light at the left, a straight chair and table, the necessary books, tools, and materials.

3. Study independently. Do your own work and use your own judgment, asking for help only when you cannot proceed without it, thus developing ability to think for yourself, and the will power and self-reliance essential to success.

4. Arrange your tasks economically; study those requiring fresh attention, like reading, first; those in which concentration is easier, like written work, later.

5. Sit straight and go at the work vigorously, with confidence and determination, without lounging or waste of time. When actually tired, exercise a moment, open the window, change to a different type of work.

6. Be clear on the assignment and the form in which it is to be delivered. In class take notes when the assignment is made; mark things to be carefully learned. When in doubt consult the teacher.

7. In committing material to memory, learn it as a whole; go over it quickly first, then more carefully, and then again and again until you have it. In learning forms, rules, vocabularies, etc. it will help to repeat them aloud.

8. In studying material to be understood and digested but not memorized, first go over the whole quickly, then carefully section by section; then, if possible, review the whole quickly.

9. Use judgment as well as memory; analyze paragraphs, select important points, note how minor ones are related to them; use your pencil freely to mark important points so that you may learn systematically and review easily.

10. Study an advance lesson promptly and review before going to class; recall memorized matter by repeating it, aloud if necessary; think through a series of points to see that you have them in order in your mind.

11. Use all the material aids available—index, appendix, notes, vocabulary, maps, illustrations in your textbook, as well as other books and periodicals.

These two examples of general directions and rules for study are sufficient to give the history teacher an idea of what is at his command, as well as to serve as an aid in formulating similar rules for his own subject, which seems never to have been done with any degree of satisfaction to history teachers, notwithstanding the fact that considerable effort has been expended in this direction. For example, Mr. Rickard came out of his experiments and investigation relative to teaching pupils to study history with the following set of directions:

DIRECTIONS TO PUPILS FOR THE STUDY OF HISTORY

I. Only a few of the most important dates will be assigned, but these should be connected with their proper event and learned as thoroughly as a multiplication table.

II. Write out and pronounce all proper names. Try to connect each name with some place and some event.

III. Use map, dictionary, and additional references for every location and word you are not sure of.

IV. Try to find the cause or causes of each event.

V. In comparison and contrast set down likenesses and differences, point by point, in parallel columns.

VI. Ask yourself constantly what the most important events in your lesson are, and why.

VII. Tell the story of your lesson to yourself in detail and in order. Be sure to use any terms you have recently learned the meaning of.

VIII. After reading each paragraph ask yourself, "How is this paragraph related to the chapter heading?"

IX. Jot down a brief memorandum of the points of each lesson which you regard as especially important.

A more definite and practical set of study helps than the foregoing is the one originated by Miss Elizabeth Thorndyke, of the Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio. At the beginning of the year Miss Thorndyke presents each member of her history classes with a little card which contains nine directions which are to be followed in preparing history lessons. Below is a copy of this card:¹

STUDY PLAN FOR THE HISTORY LESSON

- I. First reading ; for pleasure and general idea.
- II. Second reading ; accompanied by the writing of a list of new names and memorizing of all new names, dates, and places.
- III. Practice rapid sketching of maps or diagrams in lesson. For blackboard reproduction.
- IV. Make a written outline of important topics and subtopics. For blackboard reproduction.
- V. Formulate three or four quiz questions.
- VI. Search for parallels and contrasts.
- VII. Select the problem of the lesson.
- VIII. Construct graph illustrating main issues or problems. For blackboard reproduction.
- IX. Practice aloud making a *floor talk*, or oral summary of the lesson.

Whatever adverse criticism one might make of the two preceding sets of directions for studying history, one must admit that there is more good than bad in them. It would probably be better to tell the overconscientious pupil to make a list of only those new names in the lesson which the teacher indicates from time to time and to memorize only such names, dates, and places as the teacher, in coöperation with the class, points out as worth remembering, than to put the direction as Miss Thorndyke has it. Furthermore, to tell pupils to use the map, dictionary, and additional references for every location and word they are not sure of, as Rickard does, would as a rule

¹ For details as to the use of the card see "A Lesson in History," *Ohio History Teacher's Journal* (November, 1916), p. 112.

cause certain students to waste much valuable time. While it is desirable that history students acquire the habit of looking up things they do not know, it by no means follows that they should form this habit through the constant looking up of unimportant details.

Can a set of general study helps in history be formulated which will avoid the pitfalls in the foregoing and at the same time preserve the good and supply the omissions? The following are offered as an attempt in this direction:

HOW TO STUDY A HISTORY LESSON BASED ON A TEXTBOOK

1. Make a rapid preliminary survey of the material in your text on which the assignment is based. On concluding this survey you should have the main division of the lesson clearly in mind.

2. Make a critical survey of the material in the text covering the first main division. This should result in a clear idea of the main topics in this division.

3. Get the details the text contains on each main topic in the first division. Relate these to each main topic and to the subject of the main division. Close your book and recite what you now know concerning the first main division.

4. Repeat 2 and 3 with each main division of the assignment.

5. When collateral reading is assigned on a main division of the lesson, apply the same method of procedure in mastering it as you did in 1, 2, and 3 above. You may need to outline this material.

6. Repeat 5 in mastering the collateral reading assigned on each main division.

7. Tell the story of the entire lesson to yourself in detail and in order. Make use of the information secured in your collateral reading, bringing it in where it belongs.

8. Review the previous lesson. Relate the present one to it. Put the two lessons together in the form of a narrative if their relation is sufficiently close.

One other thing should be said before concluding this section. It is this: Directions and rules for study are made to be used

and not merely to be discussed by the teacher and class for a few days and then to be placed on the shelf of disuse. The responsibility in this matter rests largely with the teacher. In so far as possible he should conduct his daily work and make his assignments so that pupils will be led to follow the study directions. In no better way can rules and directions be transformed into daily habits of procedure on the part of the pupils, the end for which the teacher is always striving.

SUPERVISED STUDY IN HIGH-SCHOOL HISTORY

The discussion in this chapter so far has contained nothing on what of late has come to be known as supervised study. The history teacher need not be surprised if he is called upon to conduct supervised study. To do such work effectively seems more difficult in history than in some other studies. For example, to supervise individual students while they are silently studying their history lesson at their seats is much more difficult than supervising students while they study algebra, Latin, grammar, or geometry. Unless the history student is making an illustration, a map, or an outline, or doing some other form of expression work, the teacher cannot always tell what progress he is making and where his difficulties are.

Since supervised study aims to reach the individual student in a way that traditional class study cannot do, it will be necessary for the history teacher to develop a special technic for the work before undertaking it. To date, there has been but little done to aid him in this matter. Mr. Rickard, who has been mentioned in another connection, made a small beginning in developing a technic for supervising the study of history. A reorganization at the beginning of a new semester prevented him from carrying his plan far enough to determine its efficacy. Briefly his technic, as it related to supervision, was as follows:

First, definite aims or ends to be reached by history teaching were set up. These were:

1. To develop the pupil's ability to answer questions based on:
 - a.* Acquisition of the proper concept of new and technical terms.
 - b.* Mastery of the subject matter.
 - c.* Interpretation of source material.
 - d.* Abstracting collateral reading and connecting it with the outline of the text.
2. To develop the pupil's ability to act by:
 - a.* Arranging logical outlines and abstracts of the subject matter of the text.
 - b.* Arranging tabulations of time sequences of events and persons, grouped according to some convenient unit, as decades or centuries.
 - c.* Drawing maps which shall more or less closely approximate some ideal which the instructor has previously analyzed into its elements.
 - d.* Collecting material on a given topic, organizing it logically, citing references, and preparing bibliographies.

In the second place Mr. Rickard determined upon a definite method of procedure both for the teacher and for the pupils. In outline this method was:

1. On the part of the instructor:
 - a.* A ten-minute examination at the beginning of each day's recitation on questions chosen at random from the previous day's supervised study. (Not essential to the plan; given for purposes of comparison.)
 - b.* A definite assignment (which should usually take the form of questions) involving one or more of the above aims. (Time, 5 minutes near the beginning of the period, the remaining time to be spent as follows.)
 - c.* Assisting the individual pupil by the aid of reference books or questions to get proper concepts of the new and technical terms in the assignment just made.
 - d.* Reading with the individual pupil the text, source, or collateral reading, and pointing out to him the answers to the questions in the assignment just made.
 - e.* Assisting the pupil definitely to arrange the outlines, tabulations, or maps of the assignment just made by pointing

out to him the elements in his task to be striven for, and criticizing constructively his work.

- f. Giving to each pupil an approximately equal amount of time.
2. On the part of the pupil :
 - a. Writing the ten-minute examination set by the instructor.
 - b. Making a memorandum of the assignment. (Time, 5 minutes. The following to occupy the remainder of the period.)
 - c. Study with the teacher as per above.
 - d. Independent work with pen, books, and paper on the assignment just made, when he is not being assisted by the teacher.¹

The first thing for a teacher to do in undertaking the direction of individual pupils while studying their history lesson is to outline the supervised-study technic which he expects to use. He will find no ready-made outline which will meet all of his needs. The one given above contains valuable suggestions. By making use of it and the following more elaborate one an ambitious teacher should be able to formulate a usable technic of supervised study in history.

THE TECHNIC OF SUPERVISED STUDY IN HISTORY

I. Preliminary work on the part of the teacher.

1. Planning the course in which supervised study is to be done in considerable detail before the work begins. This means that the teacher should know the six or eight main divisions of the field, the time to be given to each division, the maps to be made, the personages to be known and identified, and the dates and events to be remembered.
2. Dividing each of the main divisions into lesson units in so far as possible. This means much work, but it must be done if definiteness is to be a characteristic of the work.
3. In connection with each lesson unit, determining upon the types of written work to be done, references to be read, diagrams to be made, maps to be filled in, reports to be

¹ Rickard, *Some Aspects of the Supervision of Study*, pp. 3 ff.

given, comparisons to be worked out, problems to be solved, and illustrations to be used.

4. Formulating in coöperation with the class a set of directions and rules for effective history study. In doing this, much use of the general directions for study given to the student body should be made, providing such directions are supplied.
 5. In so far as it is in his power, seeing that the study room is well equipped with reading-tables, reference books, maps, charts, diagrams, pictures, and other equipment necessary for effective study in history. A history teacher must be as zealous concerning the necessary equipment of his laboratory as the physics, chemistry, and science teachers are concerning theirs.
- II. The teacher's work when supervised study is under way.
1. Making clear to each student the work to be done, the standard to be reached, and the material to be used in connection with each lesson unit.
 2. Keeping the directions for history study constantly before the class, making particular applications to the work in hand, and discussing with the class special features of methods of study particularly applicable to certain topics and lesson units.
 3. Inspecting the work of each student to determine :
 - a.* Progress he is making.
 - b.* Difficulties he is encountering.
 - c.* Method of study he is using.
 - d.* Material he is reading.
 - e.* Results he is accomplishing.
 - f.* Effort he is putting forth.
 - g.* Errors he is committing.
 4. Giving specific aid to each pupil in the form of :
 - a.* Checking mistakes and correcting erroneous methods.
 - b.* Suggesting additional devices, methods, and references.
 - c.* Stimulating initiative in the filling in of outline maps, and the making of diagrams and graphs.
 - d.* Guiding in the making of outlines, summaries, and synopses.

- e.* Pointing out mistakes in content, form, punctuation, etc., in written work.
 - f.* Encouraging the constant use of maps, charts, pictures, and similar equipment in the preparation of a lesson unit.
 - g.* Hearing individual recitations on phases of the work adapted to such a procedure.
- III. The work of the student when supervised study is under way.
1. Reading the text and reference books.
 2. Memorizing material specifically designated as worth remembering.
 3. Filling in outline maps, making diagrams and graphs, organizing his ideas, outlining the text and reference material, writing exercises in the form of summaries, stories, short themes, and synopses, and revising work demanding revision.
 4. Applying the directions and rules for studying history formulated for his class.

Other things not included in this outline will occur to the wide-awake teacher as the supervised-study work proceeds from day to day. No single outline can give all that any particular teacher and class will do. In fact, a stereotyped plan at this stage of the supervised-study-in-history movement might do more harm than good. Circumstances oftentimes control one's method of procedure in doing any piece of work. Be this as it may, teachers are often helped by knowing how others would do a particular piece of work. It is with this idea in mind that the two outlines of procedure in supervised history study are presented. The second one is proposed with the idea that the teacher will have a definite amount of time each day to devote to supervising the individual members of his classes while they are preparing their work. The exact amount of time that he will have for this work is a matter not usually within his control. This is an administrative problem which is predetermined by the general plan for supervised study used in the school. If the double-period plan, the divided-period plan, or the study-coach plan is in use, the scheme outlined above can be used with

certain modifications to fit local conditions; on the other hand, if either the general study-hall plan, the weekly supervised-study plan, the stated-conference plan, the delayed-group plan, or the printed-directions-for-study plan is used, the outline will be of little or no service. In case such makeshift plans for supervised study as these last mentioned ones are used, the history teacher will have to be satisfied with meager results, for which he will not be wholly responsible.

ADDITIONAL READING MATTER

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CHAPTER III

SPECIAL METHODS OF PROCEDURE: LECTURE AND TEXTBOOK

Underlying and in a large measure determining what the history teacher does in the recitation and in the supervised-study periods is his special method of procedure. In fact, one might say with a good deal of truth that the method of procedure which the teacher follows from day to day is one of the paramount elements upon which his success or failure depends. Not that there is but *one method* to use on all occasions, but a variety, the best way to do a particular piece of work being left to the judgment of the teacher. To assist him in deciding just what method to use in teaching the various phases of the history course, a somewhat elaborate consideration of the five special methods of procedure used most extensively in teaching high-school history is included in this and the following chapter, attention being directed first to a discussion of the lecture and-textbook methods, which in turn is followed by an examination of the topical, source, and problem methods.

THE LECTURE METHOD

It is interesting to note that the two methods of teaching history in most common use today are the ones used most generally in the infancy of instruction in history in this country. Reference is made here to the lecture and textbook methods. It is true now, as it was in the early forties of the nineteenth century, that the lecture method is utilized more than any other single one in historical instruction in colleges and the textbook method in secondary schools. However, before the modern high

school came into existence history was taught in academies doing work of a secondary grade, and the lecture method was occasionally employed. In his study of the teaching of history in New York, W. F. Russell cites the following defense of the lecture method as it was used in 1839 in the Oneida Institute:

The last year I pursued a different course. I prepared lectures upon the several subjects belonging to mental science, and delivered them to the students of my classroom. The time allotted to this subject was, one day, consumed by the lecture; on the next day a recitation was had upon the subject and the matter of the lecture. In this way we proceeded, till with a good degree of thoroughness and success, we disposed of the topics commonly attended to in this department of study. In the same way instruction was given in . . . political economy and the science of government.

As an instructor, I suppose my business is mainly to impart an impulse, and to afford guidance. Adherence to the text-book seems to me to be prejudicial to the object I am bound to promote in both respects. An instructor is supposed to be more or less acquainted with what he undertakes to teach; to have put himself in possession of what he offers to impart. Will he not be likely to feel a livelier interest in his work and to impress himself more deeply and permanently on his pupils, if he is permitted and encouraged to express his own thoughts in his own way, than if he is required or expected to repeat the sayings of another? Besides, if he is much given to observation and reflection, he may often find occasion to differ from any of our various text-books. If he should agree with them in the main principles and leading doctrines which they maintain, he may prefer other methods and illustrations. . . . The text-book can hardly fail to be in the way of an instructor who is at all given to thinking. . . . He will now find it necessary to spend time in removing rubbish, and now in filling up a chasm; and amid criticisms and corrections and supplements the student all raw and unpracticed will lose himself.¹

In spite of this splendid defense of the use of the lecture method in the secondary school, there is a number of seemingly

¹ "Early Methods in teaching History in Secondary Schools," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VI, 15.

unanswerable objections to its use as *the* method of teaching high-school history rather than *a* method. Chief among these objections are:

1. It fails to develop initiative in the student.
2. It substitutes the interpretation of the individual teacher for that of the textbook writer who in most cases knows much more about the subject.
3. It gives the teacher much more time than he should have in a given number of recitation periods.
4. It robs the students of the prerogative of expressing themselves about things which they have read. In other words, it robs them of recitation time legitimately theirs.
5. It violates one of the most fundamental principles of secondary instruction; namely, that education is a developing process. The lecture, or, as someone has called it, the funnel method of instruction, places the emphasis on pouring in rather than drawing out.
6. It makes the subject rather than the student the center of gravity. Through its constant use, history comes to be taught for the sake of history rather than for the sake of the pupil.

In spite of these fundamental objections to the use of the lecture method in high-school history instruction, there are modes of utilizing it which if not carried to an excess are destined to produce good results. The writer has observed four distinct ways of using the method, not all of which, however, can be defended. In a class in United States history in one of the largest and best-known high schools of the Middle West, he saw a teacher employing the method in the form of a series of exercises in dictation. In this particular instance a class of some twenty red-blooded and wide-awake boys were spending the recitation time in copying word by word a dictated lecture on slavery that the teacher had written. It is needless to say that such a time-killing use of the lecture method has nothing whatever in its favor.

There are, however, occasional utilizations of the method to serve specific purposes which can be defended. Suppose the teacher wishes to give the pupils training in note-taking on lectures and reports. One of the best ways to do this is for him carefully to prepare a well-organized lecture on some topic connected with the daily history work and to deliver it to the class and require each member to take notes on it. Another legitimate use which can be made of the lecture is to give the pupils a perspective view of the entire course or of a particular movement, such as the Reformation, the French Revolution, or of an interval of the history of the United States, for example, the period since the Civil War. Since ready-made perspective views of these and similar units of instruction are not always accessible to the students, the practical thing for the teacher to do is to present them in the form of a lecture or a story.

An adaptation of the traditional college lecture method to high-school students is in some quarters defended. One such adaptation provides for dividing the recitation period into two approximately equal parts. In the second part of the period the instructor tells the story of the advance lesson and gives an assignment of reading to cover it. This story does not aim to give all the details; it is rather a comprehensive view of the entire lesson unit which the teacher expects to discuss with the class in the first part of the recitation the following day. Another way of stating what the teacher does in this part of the period is to say that he elaborates in considerable detail the assignment of the next day's work. The purpose of this elaboration is to give the pupils an overview of the unit of instruction on which they are asked to prepare and recite the following day. The formal reciting is to be done during the first part of the period, and should include a thorough discussion of the material covered the previous day in the lecture. Drilling and testing also come in this part of the period where and when they are needed.¹

¹ Morehouse, "Some Criticisms of the Usual Form of the History Recitations," *School and Home Education*, XXXIV, 144.

The fourth and last use of the lecture method in instruction in high-school history to be considered here is the case in which the teacher talks during the entire class period, the pupils taking notes and subsequently reading in books about the material presented in the lecture. During his lecture the teacher uses pictures, charts, maps, and source extracts; in fact, everything at his command to make concrete the particular subject he is presenting. Tests are given from time to time to determine the progress the pupils are making. It will be observed that in this use of the method one has oral instruction reverting to its ancestral type, the lecture method pure and unadulterated. A constant use of the method in this form has but little in its favor.

In spite of the existing fact that the lecture method in teaching high-school history is employed in one or even all of the foregoing forms, most teachers agree that it should not be *the* method. A better way to view the situation is to consider the lecture as a device rather than as a method. By this is meant that it is a way to do a certain piece of work which cannot be done so well in any other way. If the teacher gets into the habit of looking upon the lecture method in this light, it becomes an effective tool for occasional use and for a specific purpose.

THE TEXTBOOK METHOD

The teacher who uses the textbook method in teaching history adheres rather rigidly to the text in the selection and the sequence of topics, in the organization of the field, and in the emphasis on topics. If utilized in its original form it means following the textbook chapter by chapter, topic by topic, and page by page. Assignments are made in terms of chapters and pages in the exact order presented by the author. The teacher is a hearer of lessons, and the individual who can most nearly reproduce the exact words of the text is a star pupil. While this memoriter-like use of the method is quite out of date now,

it nevertheless was looked upon with considerable favor in the early days of history teaching in this country. For example, C. A. Goodrich, in his *History of the United States*, published in 1822, gave the following suggestions to the teacher:

1. The general division should be first very thoroughly committed to memory.
2. That portion of the work which is in large type embraces the leading subjects of history, and should be committed to memory by the pupil. That part which is in smaller type should be carefully perused.
3. It is recommended to the teachers not to make a severe examination of the pupil until a second or third time going through the book. This should be more particularly observed in regard to young and backward pupils.¹

This rote work, as recommended by such a popular textbook writer as Goodrich (150,000 copies of whose text were said to have been sold before 1834 and 500,000 before 1870²), was also favored by the teachers themselves. For example, in describing the method used in teaching history in 1840 in the Plattsburg Academy, the reporter said:

We require to be committed to memory exactly in the language of the textbook. We think that by that course we not only secure as good or better understanding of the principles required to be learned as is obtained by leaving pupils to express the idea in their own language, but we also secure a habit of precision and accuracy of language, which the other system tends rather to destroy.³

To this formal rote work or memoriter system of instruction there appeared early in the teaching of history in this country certain objectors. There were two classes of these reformers, the one believing in a modified form of rote work, the other tabooing such work altogether. The view of those believing in rote work in a modified form was well expressed in a report made in 1837 by the principal of the Troy Female

¹ Quoted by Russell in *The Early Teaching of History*, p. 20.

² *Ibid.*

³ *Ibid.* p. 22.

Academy. On this particular subject the report commented in the following interesting and concrete manner:

There are certain subjects of study, which must, of course, be learned memoriter. . . . But in such subjects as history, . . . etc., the method of requiring a few sentences to be repeated by rote, is wholly absurd. . . . The teacher's first business is to make his pupils understand the subject, etc. . . . When the author's own clue to the subject is once fairly obtained, fluency of speech will follow, and the pupil of taste will rarely fail of committing to memory the finest passages of the finest writers, and we consider that taste and style are both improved in the exercise. Such a pupil may be said by the ignorant to recite memoriter; but the better informed perceive by the eye, intonation, and the emphasis, that the words used stand in the mind of the speaker as signs of ideas, which he has by study, made his own.¹

The view of those believing in no rote work in history teaching was well summarized in a report from the Rochester Collegiate Institute in 1849 in reply to a questionnaire on the subject. A part of this report read as follows:

But in the teaching of history, . . . etc., what demand ought to be made upon the memory of the pupil? Shall the pupil be required to commit the whole lesson to memory? By practice students can be brought to recite pages memoriter at a time; but will they long retain the knowledge thus acquired? All experience, except in a few very uncommon cases, replied in the negative.

A far better method than this is, so to study the lesson that the pupil may be able to give the facts, thoughts, speculations, in his own language, and in the language which is far removed from that of the author, provided it is only correct and precise. This involves what is called an analysis of the textbook. But analysis is ever a profitable method of study. By practice it becomes easier than mere learning memoriter, and will abide longer in the memory. True, the demand on the teacher is greater, for he must himself know the author, in order to be able to hear an analysis of the lesson and know its correctness or the contrary.²

¹ Russell, *The Early Teaching of History*, p. 21.

² *Ibid.* p. 22.

The views relative to the use of the textbook in the teaching of history presented above had their champions throughout the nineteenth century. Gradually, however, the pure-rote-work supporters became fewer and fewer, and in time were dubbed old-fashioned, formal, and dry. Even the compromisers had to surrender to the no-rote-work supporters. As early as 1878 the following statement appeared in the preface of a much-used history of the United States :

The days of assigning lessons by the page and of listening to *memoriter* recitations (textbook in hand, to insure a verbatim repetition of the author's language) are fast passing away. The methods of the time demand that teachers shall actually teach, and that recitations shall be tests of the pupil's real grasp of the subject under consideration.¹

This quotation should not convey the idea that assigning history lessons page by page was passing so rapidly in 1878 as soon to disappear altogether. There remained in this country long after this date teachers who assigned lessons page by page and listened with textbook in hand to near-*memoriter* recitations. The writer himself has observed history recitations in which the exact words of the author were repeated by the students in reciting. In view of these well-known facts, and in view of the fact that most history teachers in junior and senior high schools will base their work mainly on a textbook in the hands of the pupils, it seems worth while to examine the textbook method in some detail in order to see how it can be used most effectively. Let us begin our examination by first considering some things in favor of the much-abused textbook in history.

There are at least four legitimate claims to be made for the traditional textbook in history. Briefly summarized they are (1) a textbook in history gives the teacher an outline of the work, a core, a backbone; (2) the material in the text

¹ Berard, *History of the United States*, revised by C. E. Bush (Philadelphia, 1878), p. 3.

furnishes the basis for a unified discussion ; (3) with a text in the hands of each member of the class the teacher is assured of a certain amount of material organized around specific topics ; (4) regular, definite, and systematic assignments can be made with a text as the basis.

Of course there are many history teachers who do not need a ready-made outline such as the text provides. While granting this fact, however, it must also be kept in mind that there is, unfortunately, a large number of people attempting to teach history who are unprepared to make a meritorious outline. So, for the good of the cause of history teaching in junior and senior high schools, it is a great advantage for the inadequately equipped teacher to have the textbook to guide him. Indeed, the teacher who is prepared to make an outline absolutely independent of the textbook should not be encouraged to do so as long as the pupils buy one book and use it as a text. In order that he may get the unity desired in the recitation the teacher's outline for daily use should be actually identified by the pupils in the text they use. When every member of the class has read, in following a guidance outline previously given by the teacher, a definite amount of exactly the same material, the teacher has a basis for unified work which cannot be secured when each member reads a different discussion of the topic under consideration. Thus it will be seen that the text, good or bad, furnishes a basis for applying one of the fundamental principles governing a good recitation in history, namely, unity.

To assure commendable work on the part of the pupils, daily assignments must be regularly, definitely, and systematically made and must center around well-organized topics. A good text in the hands of the pupils is a great aid in securing regularity, definiteness, and system in assignment-making. The old-time page-by-page assignment did these very things. High-school students like to know exactly what is expected of them. When they are directed to read and outline a fixed number of pages in their text, there seems little cause for misunderstanding.

While this is not the best form for an assignment to take, it does, if used, assure the teacher of one of the elements of a good assignment, definiteness; and the fact that the material in these pages is perchance organized by the author around one big topic makes it possible for the pupils to outline it.

The foregoing discussion of the advantages of a textbook in high-school history teaching becomes more practical when viewed in connection with the other side of the problem—the disadvantages, or, better, the defects in the history text which must be overcome by the teacher in using the textbook method. Chief among these defects are (1) no one text seems able to give an adequate treatment of all of the most important topics; (2) no text can set up a sufficient number of historical problems and give suggestions for their thoughtful and progressive solution; (3) a textbook is of necessity what it purports to be, a *text*, dealing primarily in generalizations and statements to be elaborated and made concrete; (4) the frequent use of such abstract terms as society, sovereignty, civilization, spiritual, secular, national, democracy, and secularization seems unavoidable to some writers of texts; (5) a logical rather than a teaching organization is followed in most texts. In other words, the subject is of more importance to the author than the pupils who are to use his book.

Some elaboration seems necessary to clarify certain of these seemingly unpreventable defects in history textbooks. As to the first one, it should be added that few or no texts ever agree on the topics of most importance in any field of high-school history. Furthermore, tradition, coupled with a rather fixed price beyond which publishers are unwilling to go because of the dictates of a public accustomed to buying texts in history at a more or less standardized price, confines the author to a definite number of pages. Hence there is left but one of two things for him to do. He must either condense his discussion of each topic treated and include a great many topics, or reduce the number of topics and elaborate the discussion of

each. The author usually takes the first of these alternatives and leaves to the teacher the problem of amplifying his generalizations and making them concrete with illustrative materials.

Important as it is for the teacher to know the advantages of a textbook as well as its imperfections, the fact remains that the proper use of a text in history, in securing all the advantages claimed for it and in overcoming the shortcomings charged against it, is with most junior and senior high-school history teachers the fundamental problem to be solved. This is true because textbook lessons in history are almost everywhere the rule in this country. We are a textbook-using people, and there are no indications that we shall change our system in the near future, hence the best way to use the textbook in teaching in high schools rightly assumes a place of great importance in the thinking and planning of progressive history teachers.

Professor Johnson, in his admirable chapter on "The Use of Textbooks" in his *Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools*,¹ summarizes three modes of procedure in making the textbook in history the chief instrument in training for independent study, a very important goal for all instruction in the subject. Briefly stated they are: (1) Pupils are sent to the textbook without preliminary suggestions and directions and asked to read a certain number of pages. On coming to the recitation they are questioned sharply on what they have read. They are expected to know all the points made by the author in the matter read, for they are never sure just what ones the teacher will demand in the form of answers to his questions. (2) Besides being asked to read a prescribed number of pages pupils are required to analyze what they read and bring to the class the results of their work in the form of a written outline. At the beginning of the recitation one pupil places his outline on the board. Other pupils criticize it and make suggestions as to changes; the teacher also adds a

¹ Chap. xii.

favorable or an adverse criticism now and then—all resulting in an outline built on the coöperative plan. All pupils now copy the coöperatively constructed outline in their notebooks and it is made the basis of subsequent work with the textbook material on which it is based. (3) During some preliminary practice lessons the pupils are taught with books open how to study and how to learn a lesson. In these practice lessons they are asked to notice the paragraph headings, to read the paragraph to find the different things mentioned, to name in three or four words each of these things and enter them in their notebooks, to relate the paragraph heading to the subject of the chapter, and so on, until they have analyzed the paragraph, named its separate parts, pointed out relations, and classified the material—all ending in an outline of the paragraph. Each paragraph in the lesson is treated similarly, and when all are outlined each pupil is expected to sum up the entire lesson with the outline before him, then, laying it aside, to sum up again the whole lesson. After eight or ten such lessons the class is supposed to be able to do the work alone, and the recitation will resolve itself into having uninterrupted reports on the work assigned. The whole lesson may be recited two, three, or four times by different members of the class, after which relations are traced, comparisons are made, questions are asked, differences and resemblances are recognized, inferences are drawn, and applications are made; the ideal of the whole procedure being to make the pupils so adept in the work that they can in a single reading learn what the book contains on a given subject.

It seems quite unnecessary to point out the relative merits of the foregoing modes of procedure in using the textbook in history teaching. Generally speaking, they are arranged in the order of merit, which order one might designate by the terms "good," "better," "best." The important point in this connection is that there are other modes of procedure which Professor Johnson himself points out and some which he does not mention. Attention here will be given to what might be

distinctly designated as a fourth method, the general outline of which follows, with directions for its use.

Before beginning the work with a class, let us say, in United States history, the teacher decides upon the general organization of the field that he is going to use for teaching purposes. Now, with this general organization as a guide, he outlines the entire field, making the text in the hands of the pupils the basis for his outline. This last statement means that the pupils will be able to identify the points in the outline in the text they are using. A good outline will, of course, contain items not found in the text at all, which is one of the strong features of the plan under discussion.

The outline in question can be one of the two types mentioned below or it may combine both types. For the teacher's own use it can be of the informational type and for the use of the pupils of the guidance type. Or, if the teacher prefers that the pupils have a duplicate of his own outline, he can use either of these types, the preference being in favor of the guidance outline in the hands of the pupil. An example of each of these types follows:

AN INFORMATIONAL OUTLINE OF COLONIAL INDUSTRIES IN ABOUT 1763

I. Agriculture.

1. Chief problems presented were:

a. Qualities of native plants had to be determined by experience.

b. European seed had to be adapted to new soils and a new climate.

2. Experimental work lasted a century and a half.

3. Farm implements were rude and scarce.

4. Farming processes were wasteful.

II. Lumbering and the manufacture of other forest products.

1. Forests utilized as a source of exports easily procured.

2. Chief products were shingles and timbers for masts, spars, and buildings.
3. Much lumber and many shingles exported to West Indies, Portugal, and Spain.
4. Value of exports of lumber in 1770 about \$775,000.
5. Naval stores such as tar, pitch, rosin, turpentine, masts, and bowsprits made in quantities and shipped to England (\$175,000 annually around 1770).
6. Forest products such as potash and oak bark sent to England to value of about \$290,000 annually around 1770.

III. Fishing.

1. Leading fisheries were cod, mackerel, and whale.
2. Amounted to about \$225,000 a year in New England in most of 18th century.

IV. Fur trade.

1. Carried on in all the colonies.
2. Export of furs and peltries from all the colonies in about 1770 around \$670,000.

V. Household industries.

1. Flourished in all the colonies north of Maryland and in the back country of Southern colonies.
2. Many farms, plantations, and villages were economically independent.
3. Chief industries were soap-making and candle-making, spinning, weaving, hat-making, shoemaking, dressing leather, blacksmithing, and carpentry.

VI. Manufacturing outside of the home.

1. Restricted and forbidden by England.
2. Hindered further by lack of capital and scarcity of labor.
3. Chief articles for home consumption were :
 - a. From iron: iron implements, household utensils, tools, and hardware.
 - b. From other materials : leather goods, wagons, brass, and copperware, tinware, bricks, tiles, pottery, cordage, twine, sailcloth, liquors, salt, and hats.

A GUIDANCE OUTLINE OF COLONIAL INDUSTRIES IN
ABOUT 1763

- I. Agriculture.
 1. Chief problems presented.
 2. Experimental work.
 3. Farm implements.
 4. Farming processes.
- II. The manufacture of forest products.
 1. Lumbering.
 - a. Source of supply.
 - b. Chief products.
 - c. Market for.
 - d. Value of exports.
 2. Naval stores.
 - a. Chief products.
 - b. Market for.
 - c. Value of exports.
 3. Other forest products.
 - a. List of.
 - b. Market for.
 - c. Value of exports.
- III. Fishing.
 1. Leading fisheries.
 2. Annual output.
- IV. Fur trade.
 1. Extent of.
 2. Value of exports.
- V. Household industries.
 1. Where they flourished.
 2. Effect on homes and plantations.
 3. Chief industries.
- VI. Manufacturing outside of the home.
 1. Restriction on by England.
 2. Other hindrances.
 3. Chief articles.
 - a. From iron.
 - b. From other materials.

Now, with either of these outlines before him, preferably the latter, the pupil goes to his text and masters what he finds there on the various topics. After getting what his text has, he turns to other references for additional information, the teacher in making the assignment having previously given the book or books with the exact pages containing this additional material. On coming to the recitation each member of the class must be able to contribute something on the majority of the general topics in the guidance outline, as well as to furnish information not contained in the text. In order to get the material before him in a form that is more or less his own, each student should turn the guidance outline the teacher has given him into an informational one of his own making. A good way for him to manage this is to put the guidance outline always on the left page of his permanent notebook and use the opposite page for his own notes, which can be in the form of an informational outline if he so desires. Such a device makes it possible to add information given in the class which the student did not find in his reading, and thus to utilize, in a connected and organized form, the results of his own reading and of the class discussions.

A practical application of this method of using the textbook in history may be described as follows: Spend a few days, or weeks, if necessary, in going through the text in the hands of the pupils in developing and establishing the general divisions previously decided upon by the teacher. After this preliminary work has been well done, the first division of the field can be viewed to discover in a general way what the text contains on it. A guidance outline of this unit can now be placed in the hands of each student, attention being called to the fact that it is based on the text. Lessons are now assigned in terms of the outline, including text and reference materials. Sometimes a single lesson will cover ten pages in the text and sometimes three or perhaps none at all. On finishing his preparation in terms of the guidance outline before him, the student comes to

the recitation ready to discuss in considerable detail the majority of the points in it. When reference material is accessible but to a few members of the class at a time, reports on specially assigned topics can be relied upon to supply the information called for in the outline not found in the text. The recitation is carried on in terms of the guidance outline by the simple announcement of topics or by the asking of questions based upon it, preferably the former, the questioning being left until each pupil has had his say on the topic under discussion. Reviews are also carried on in terms of the outline. An informational outline of his own making might be memorized with profit by the pupil. By the use of a guidance outline in the manner described above the teacher can solve the three big problems pertaining to the use of a text in high-school history, namely, the problem of elimination, the problem of addition, and the problem of emphasis.

Whatever one might say concerning the merits and demerits of any one of the foregoing modes of procedure in using the textbook in teaching history in junior and senior high schools, the fact should be kept in mind that there is probably no one method which should be used in each of the six years represented in these schools. For the best results with students who pursue history work for two or more years in the junior and an equal amount of time in the senior high school some variations should be made in the method of using the textbook. Where any serious consideration is given to this matter teachers of history and heads of history departments in these schools will finally come to see that for the sake of the students as well as the subject of history some scheme must be worked out which will assure the application of the principle of progress within the subject. By this is meant that if one method of procedure in using the textbook has been employed in the junior high-school history classes, either another method or a more advanced application of the same method should be used in the senior high school. In fact, there should be progress from year

to year if maximum results are to be attained. Using the preceding four modes of procedure as the basis for a scheme which purports to apply the principle of progress, one might construct a general plan of work similar to the one below. Of course, if a teacher knows and uses other methods of procedure and can work them into a scheme which will insure progress, well and good. The important thing in this connection is not *the* scheme, but *a* scheme—something to bring order out of existing disorder, or rather no order.

GRADATION IN MODES OF PROCEDURE IN THE USE OF THE TEXTBOOK IN HIGH-SCHOOL HISTORY TEACHING

A. Junior High School.

I. *First year* (Grade VII). A method not described above.

Use the text as a reading book largely. Let the chief aims be training in reading historical literature and arousing interest in it. Place little emphasis on information as such, but much emphasis on how to secure knowledge from books. Recitations should be very informal, ample opportunity being given the children to express their opinion of what they read. Read books other than the text if possible. Let the chief characteristic of the method be that it is no one method, but rather the doing of anything with the text that will encourage the children to do a wide range of reading and to express their views freely about what they read. Socialize the work in every possible way. Have no formal examinations. Considerable written work of an informal character can be done in connection with the regular work in composition.

II. *Second year* (Grade VIII). Begin by going straight through the text to establish the general organization for teaching purposes predetermined by the teacher. In studying each main division of the field thus established use the first method described above¹ to obtain a preliminary or

¹ P. 58.

perspective view. A free and not a rigid use is meant here. Simply let the children go through a certain amount of the text from day to day and discuss informally during the recitation period what they read. Reading outside of the text may also be done. In going over the division a second time a form of the fourth method given above could be used. A systematic guidance outline of the main divisions should be given the children from day to day by the teacher, the textbook to be the basis of this outline. Lessons are prepared, reading outside the text is done, recitations are conducted, and reviews are made in terms of this outline.

III. *Third year* (Grade IX). Begin the work by giving the students some systematic training in how to study and how to learn a lesson. With books open let them do all that is suggested under (3) on page 59. After a certain amount of this coöperative work, each student should do some independent outlining. This will give an opportunity to apply the training previously received in coöperative outlining. Some time early in the second half of the year, the fourth method described above should be introduced.¹ At the end of this year the pupils should be doing in an elementary way practically everything suggested in the description of this method.

B. Senior High School.

I. *First year* (Grade X). Begin by going straight through the text, establishing the large divisions of the field previously determined by the teacher. After this work has been well done, proceed with the first main division as suggested for Grade VIII. When this division is finished adopt the method which calls for coöperative outlining and continue to use it for the remainder of the first semester. Begin the second semester by requiring pupils to analyze what they read and to bring to the class a written outline of their readings. After a few weeks of work of this type change to the fourth method described in some detail on pages 60 ff. At the end of this

¹ See pp. 60 ff.

year, pupils should be rather efficient in outlining and mastering the content of historical material.

II. *Second year* (Grade XI). Begin in the same way as in Grades VIII and X. Continue the individual and the coöperative outlining long enough to see that the pupils understand what these two types of work demand. In due time change to the method used in the second semester of Grade X. Administer this method in as advanced a form as the subsequent training of the pupils and material equipment of the history department will admit.

III. *Third year* (Grade XII). Duplicate the methods used in Grade XI. Attain progression by demanding and securing a higher type of work.

If those in charge of history work in junior and senior high schools should adopt the foregoing scheme or a similar one—in fact, any progressive plan—a great deal of duplicated effort would be saved. At the same time the pupils who pursue the study of history in these schools would be assured a progression in securing historical information, through the reading of texts and other books, that never can be attained in the haphazard ways in which they are usually taken through their courses in history at the present time.

Before this consideration of the use of the textbook in teaching history is concluded, something should be said relative to a phase of the work not included in the discussion thus far, namely, word study. Each subject in the curriculum has a peculiar vocabulary of its own. In few subjects are the words of more practical value in later life than those found in the social studies, including history. Take, for example, such words as politics, constitution, arbitration, initiative, referendum, short-ballot, economics, democracy, contraband, law, federal, judicial, militarism, executive, legislation, tariff, demagogue, Cæsarism, league, social, municipal, chivalry, industrial, institution, diplomacy, monopoly, and revolution. Most of these words must be a part of every person's vocabulary if he is to read the daily

papers and weekly and monthly magazines understandingly or converse intelligently on the common topics of the day.

The pupil should have definite training in spelling, pronouncing, defining, and using words like the foregoing which appear in his daily lessons. A list of such words should be kept in every course, and some time be given to them as the work moves along. All sorts of contests can be planned. The teacher should realize that after the student has met a word and defined it on the basis of its ordinary use in his text, the only thing needed to make it habitual is *drill, drill, drill*. Not enough teachers are convinced of the importance of this word study. It is certainly a self-evident fact that a pupil will not express himself with ease and force on any historical topic unless he has a copious supply of meaningful words at his command. It is the teacher's business to see that he not only acquires this vocabulary, but that he also has much practice in using it.

ADDITIONAL READING MATTER

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CHAPTER IV

SPECIAL METHODS OF PROCEDURE: TOPICAL, SOURCE, AND PROBLEM

Three special methods of procedure remain to be discussed. Two of them are used quite extensively in present-day history instruction, and one is important more for what it once attempted to do than what it is now doing. The first two are the topical and the problem methods, the last is the source method. Since the topical method is used so extensively attention will be directed to it first.

THE TOPICAL METHOD

Historically speaking, the topical method in teaching history made its appearance in the secondary schools of this country about 1885. The first literature on its use in schools below the college seems to have been Professor Albert Bushnell Hart's article on "How to teach History in Secondary Schools," appearing in *Academy* (Syracuse) in 1887.¹ In this article Professor Hart made a survey of the teaching of history in the secondary school at this date. He found the textbook method almost universally used. There were, however, a few teachers using the topical method, probably a fourth of those reporting. Believing as he did at the time in the efficacy of the topical method, Professor Hart took occasion to argue in its favor. Chief among the advantages he claimed for it were that it (1) teaches the pupil to examine and use books; (2) throws upon him an educating responsibility of choice; (3) leads one to select the important from the

¹ Reprinted in Hart, *Studies in American Education*, chap. v.

unimportant; (4) obliges the pupil to compare and collate authorities; and (5) gives the pleasing sense of discovery.¹

The practical working-out of the method as outlined by Professor Hart in his article contemplated the assigning of a topic to each member of the class, his idea being that the topical system should supersede the textbook recitation altogether. The topics were to be selected by either of two methods. One was to divide the whole field to be covered in a particular course into successive topics, and then have all pupils prepare on them, the recitation in this case being held on the subject and not on material in any one book. Where no attempt was made to have one topic succeed another in chronological sequence the following system was recommended:

Let the topics be given out in groups: a set of geographical subjects; a set of biographical subjects; a set of narratives; a set of military subjects; and so on; out of each group, set for each pupil his own individual topic. When the group is given out, a circular of directions may be issued or put on the board, meeting the questions most likely to be asked and the difficulties most likely to arise and prescribing a form in which the answers are to be returned. Pupils should then be put on their own resources; as their topics are all different, they cannot use each other's work; as they are all of the same kind, a few books will suffice for their sources, and the teacher can more easily control the work.²

This quotation from Professor Hart's article written about 1887 is an excellent example of what the leading advocates of the method at that time considered a legitimate way to use it. Professor Hart and his followers were so intent on having the method universally adopted in the secondary school that they succeeded in getting the committee on history, civil government, and political economy, a subcommittee working under the general direction of the famous Committee of Ten, to adopt a recommendation which on the face of it required the use of the topical method. For example, this

¹ *Studies in American Education*, p. 111.

² *Ibid.* p. 113.

committee (reporting in 1892) recommended that two, three, or four parallel textbooks be used at a time, and that one whole year be devoted to an intensive study of a brief period in some field of high-school history, such as American history from 1760 to 1790. The chief thing of interest in connection with these two proposals of the committee is the subtle scheme they contained for the substitution of the topical for the textbook method. For how could one use two, three, or four parallel texts without employing some form of the topical method? And furthermore, how could one, after declaring the lecture method unsuitable for the high-school level of history instruction, devote a year of intensive study to one brief period of history in the secondary school without using the topical method?

On the topical method as such the committee had considerable to say, resolution 22 reading "that the method of study by topics be strongly recommended, as tending to stimulate pupils and to encourage independence of judgment."¹ To accomplish these ends the topical method was to be used in two ways, the first being as a system of division of labor, all the topics combined covering the whole ground of the course. One topic was assigned to each student, and recitations were held upon topics calling for the special preparation of one student on each topic. The second use of the method contemplated a study of sources, the idea being to assign each member of the class a separate topic for independent investigation based on original materials. This last use finally developed into the source method proper and subsequently secured quite a following. The first use has come down to us as the best type of topical method in high-school history teaching.²

A continuation of the history of the topical method step by step down to the present would add little to the practical phases of this discussion. It should be said, however, that

¹ *Report of the Committee of Ten*, p. 195.

² *Ibid.* "Methods of Historical Teaching," pp. 185 ff.

the impetus given the movement toward topical teaching in history by the foregoing committee resulted in its wider and wider adoption from year to year, until it finally came into almost universal use, the fact being that it is now one of the three most prevalently used methods. In a study¹ made in 1915 it was found that 116 out of 135 history teachers were using this method more than any other. The advantages claimed for it by these and other of its advocates at this date were:

1. Events are more easily learned and remembered, because they can be grouped and studied in their logical and chronological relations. By grouping all the facts about one topic and considering them in their proper relation to each other, it is possible to get a connected story of an event or movement.

2. The teaching of one topic in a certain period of history facilitates the teaching of all other topics. For example, suppose one decides to use the following general topics in any given period of high-school history, say, the history of the United States from 1789 to 1829: (*a*) external history including foreign relations; (*b*) constitutional growth; (*c*) literature; (*d*) social development; (*e*) commerce and industry; (*f*) general progress. After any one of these general topics has been studied thoroughly, much time can be saved in the consideration of the others, because of their interrelations. Knowing one topic in some detail furnishes the connecting links necessary to facilitate the learning of others. In other words, such a use of the topical method is an application of the general truth contained in the statement that the plowshare of historical knowledge is kept bright, not so much by frequent rubbing as by constant use in turning over fresh soil, the fresh soil in this case being the material studied in connection with each of the remaining topics included in a certain period of history, after one had been thoroughly considered.

¹ Published in a summary form in *School Review*, XXV, Nos. 2, 3, and 4 (February, March, and April, 1917).

3. When pupils are left to work up a topic more or less independently, they are taught to examine and use books; led to select the important from the unimportant; and thrown upon their own responsibility for what they select.

4. The topical method subordinates memory to reason and imagination, and gives students opportunity to know things by comparison. Historical personages, events, dates, and places are no longer remembered individually, but in their relation to some big movement; hence knowing rather than mere memory becomes the important goal.

In order that all of these four important advantages may be secured for the student, various forms and combinations of the topical method are employed. Chief among them are:

1. Select a number of topics within one period of history, let us say, the Age of Pericles, or the Roman Empire. Assign each member of the class a topic and have him report from time to time. This is the college seminar method and has no place in the high school. It was tried out in the early nineties under the influence of the Committee of Ten, which recommended that a year in high school be devoted to an intensive study of one little period in history—the American Revolution, or the French Revolution, or the Reformation. Wherever this was attempted it was by the topical method, topics being assigned to individual students.

2. Plan the whole course around a few big topics on which the class will work as a unit. This is especially applicable in European and ancient history. In European history topics are selected which are more or less common to all countries, the topic rather than the country being made the unit of the work. Democratic movements, social, educational, and religious reforms, industrial conditions and combinations, and the life of the common people are some big topics which could be used. Or in the study of the history of the United States one subject or topic might be pursued throughout its history. For example, the subject of agriculture could be studied

from its crude beginning in colonial times to its present-day complexities, after which another subject or movement could be treated similarly. This use of the method is not as well adapted to the study of American as it is to European history, for when a subject like agriculture is pursued without interruption throughout its history in this country, the ramifications become so complex that the student gets lost in them. In other words, the road in the historical forest made by his study of this one subject closes up behind him as fast as he moves forward, and finally he becomes so bewildered that there is no longer any substantial progress made toward the goal.

3. Select a certain period of history and teach it topically, the class working as a unit on each topic. To apply this way of using the method to the period of American history from 1789 to 1829 one would proceed as follows: first, summarize the periods as a whole, with emphasis on the political. This summary should be in the form of a short story which each student learns; after this story is thoroughly known, take up the following topics: (*a*) social progress and development including population, homes and home life, conditions of labor, social and moral betterment, religious activities, and educational life; (*b*) industrial progress; (*c*) commercial development and foreign relations; (*d*) political history, using it as a basis for a summary and a comprehensive view of the period as a whole.

This latter seems to be a better use of the method when applied to United States history than the second one described above. It certainly avoids the chief stumblingblocks of the second. Its merits also lie in the fact that it can be successfully used with one or many texts, the best results, of course, coming when the teacher is not hampered by a scarcity of suitable material.

To attempt to formulate a progressive use of the topical method does not seem worth while in this connection, for efficient history teaching demands that little use be made of

the method except in its simplest form in the junior high school. Its chief use on this level of history instruction should be to accomplish certain things. It may be employed advantageously in the last half year devoted to American history in this school to make topical review of certain phases of our history. Topics like the following might properly form the basis of such a review:

1. Steps toward unifying the colonies and establishing the national government in 1789.
2. The commercial and territorial policy of England toward the colonies ending in the Revolution.
3. The development of transportation facilities (emphasize the period prior to 1860).
4. Our territorial expansion.
5. Slavery and the slavery system.
6. Revolutionary inventions and processes.
7. The chief political parties and their doctrines.
8. Important treaties with foreign powers and international relations.
9. Finance, banking, and panics.
10. Genesis of all the colonies and special consideration of Virginia, Massachusetts, New York, and Pennsylvania.
11. Our system of revenue.
12. Civil-service reform and the spoils system.
13. The present and past of the suffrage problem.
14. Causes, results, and a few of the most important events of our various wars.
15. Internal improvements (emphasize the period prior to 1860).
16. Chief facts in the history of agriculture.
17. Trusts and industrial combinations.
18. Labor and labor unions.
19. The factory system in the United States.
20. The presidents, time, chief events, and party.

It will be observed that a few of these twenty topics could be used for the purpose of review even before the entire field of American history had been covered by the textbook method.

For example, numbers 1 and 2 could be made subjects for topical teaching after the period from 1763 to 1789 had been completed. This use of the method mainly for review purposes seems best adapted to the junior high school. In the first two years of the senior high school it can be advantageously employed in the form described under 3 on page 74; namely, select a certain period of history and teach it topically, the class working as a unit on each topic. Or, if some topics continue through more than one period, a larger chronological division may be used. By the time the student reaches the last year of the senior high school he should be prepared for the topical method in almost any form. However, until history teachers in the senior high school are sure that their students are thoroughly drilled in the use of the textbook method in the junior high school, they had better in all probability make large use of the textbook method themselves if acceptable results are to be obtained.

THE LABORATORY, OR SOURCE-STUDY, METHOD

Attention has already been called to the fact that the committee on history which reported to the Committee of Ten recommended that some use be made of the source method in teaching history in the secondary school. While this is the first formal recognition of the method by a respectable body of history teachers, its use had been individually advocated even before this committee made its report. In 1885 Mary Sheldon's *Studies in General History* (Students' Edition) was published. This book contemplated the adoption of the source method and purported to give sufficient material for the student's use. The most conspicuous attempt to use this book and the source method which it presupposed was in the state of Nebraska during and following the school year of 1896-1897. The two leading advocates of the method in this state were Professors Fling and Caldwell, of the University of Nebraska. Throughout the year the method was introduced these two gentlemen

worked unceasingly for its success. They wrote for the teachers' use what was subsequently published under the title of *Studies in European and American History, An Introduction to the Source-Study Method in History*. In these studies detailed suggestions and helps on the use of the method were given the teachers.

The steps in the application of the source-study method as outlined by Professor Fling were three: First, the student was to answer six or seven questions or, in other words, solve six or seven problems based on material given in his text. Each question was to be answered fully and the answer neatly written in a notebook and brought to class in that form. These exercises were to be read exactly as written, in answer to the question in the text when put by the teacher during the recitation period. Class discussions were to be carried on in terms of the written answers to the set of questions found in the text. After all questions on a topic had been answered and discussed, the pupil was ready for the second step, namely, analyzing the results of his study thus far and stating them in outline form. This outline was brought to class, placed on the board, and criticized during the recitation. The last step consisted in composing a short narrative based upon the outline. This narrative was read and criticized during the recitation. Much emphasis was placed on notebooks, the material entered in them being arranged in this order: answers, class notes, outlines, narratives.

Under the able leadership of Professors Fling and Caldwell much enthusiasm for the method was created. One principal in writing about the success of the system in his school said:

I used this method last year in my classes, and am using it again this year. This can be the only method of *studying* history; it is not the passive reading of a narrative of history, but is the downright study of the problems presented in the evolution of a nation. In this method the pupil is not called upon to fill his mind with a number of facts, but he is called upon to work

out the problems that any historian must solve. He is put into the workshop or laboratory of the historian. The narrative method can do little more than train the memory. . . . The source method does as much in training the memory as the old method, but, more than this, the other faculties are brought into use. The student is compelled to study, to search, to weigh, to compare. All this must surely be of more value than the old way of filling the student's mind with a mass of facts and dates to be forgotten almost immediately.

After using this method I am convinced it is the only way to study and teach history. It is true that the work is hard, . . . but the results are better. . . . As we go on I find my pupils work out the problems with less and less difficulty. I think by the time they have completed the course they will be prepared to interpret, to some extent, the events that are being daily enacted around them. The teacher must work, as well as the pupils. . . .¹

Another teacher in making a report on the success of the work said :

I have been asked to report on the success of the work in high schools. From letters received from enthusiastic teachers in the state, I judge that they think it the only true method. My actual observation is confined to my own work, of which I may not be the best judge, but I will say that I could not conscientiously employ any other method.

I think I have been met with every objection that can be urged to it, and my faith in it is stronger than ever as the only scientific method. It is taking history out of the insignificant place that it has had, and is making it a subject of highest importance on account of its educational value.²

Miss Fanny Baker, of the Nebraska City High School, summarized the advantages of the laboratory, or source-study, method as follows :

1. Independent, clear, and logical thinking is developed. Of course, it is the business of the "studies" to do this, and really

¹ Fling and Caldwell, *Studies in European and American History*, pp. 253 f.

² *Ibid.* p. 290.

there is no escape from thinking. But they are not sufficient in themselves. There must be the work in outlines and in narratives also. This is of inestimable value. There comes as a result of this :

2. Growth of the spirit of research. It is such a pleasure to quote from Homer, Herodotus, or Thucydides! I like to have my pupils read all the outside material possible that will help them. There is some danger of confusing them, however, unless plenty of time is taken.

3. More original work and better work in English composition is done.

4. There is increased enthusiasm and interest in study. I think the kind of notebooks used helps here. It encourages pupils to see work grow under their hands.

5. Marked improvement is apparent in all work done by the history pupils. This method sharpens and brightens wits wonderfully! Then the definiteness required here tends to prevent *slur-ring* over work in other branches.¹

One might suppose from the enthusiasm for the source method displayed in the foregoing quotations that it would have swept all other methods out of existence in a short time. Fortunately for the cause of high-school history teaching and the high-school students as well such a thing did not happen. However, some good did result from this enthusiasm. One such result was the publishing in a form easily accessible to high-school students of much source material. The source books, readings, translations, reprints, and the like in every field of history ordinarily taught in the high school originated in the one-time enthusiasm for the source method. This material has come to occupy an important place in all up-to-date and efficient high-school history teaching and has changed the problem of the present-day teacher from one of how to use the source method to one of utilizing the supply of source extracts so easily accessible.² Because of this fact the

¹ Fling and Caldwell, *Studies in European and American History*, p. 303.

² Some examples of this material are Davis, *Readings in Ancient History*, Allyn and Bacon, 1912; Webster, *Readings in Ancient History*,

remainder of our discussion of the source method will center on the ends to be sought in using source extracts and readings and how to utilize the available material in attaining these ends.

When experienced history teachers are asked to state the ends that they hope to attain in using source extracts and readings they reply: To make the subject real and vital, to get the spirit of the times, to acquaint the pupils with different kinds of historical matter, to cultivate the historical sense or attitude, to aid in visualizing scenes, to illustrate the method of writing history, to stimulate interest in the history work, to get first-hand additional information on a point, to correct mistaken ideas, to illuminate the textbook, to make impressions stronger, to broaden the pupils' viewpoint, to give atmosphere, and to give slight training in research work.¹ While other types of historical material contribute to the attainment of these important outcomes of good history teaching, source extracts and readings, if properly used, certainly make large contributions. Because of this fact the problem of how to use the source material now available to secure as many of the foregoing ends as possible becomes a very practical one, especially for the inexperienced teacher. Some ways of solving this important problem may be summarized as follows:

1. Use in classroom for illustrative purposes. The teacher may read an extract or have some pupil read it. The reading should be accompanied by a short account of the author, how he secured his information, and where and how he wrote—by

D. C. Heath & Co., 1913; Webster, *Readings in Medieval and Modern History*, D. C. Heath & Co., 1917; Muzzey, *Readings in American History*, Ginn and Company, 1915; McLaughlin, *Readings in the History of the American Nation*, D. Appleton and Company, 1914; Thallon, *Readings in Greek History*, Ginn and Company, 1914; Robinson, *Readings in European History*, Ginn and Company, 1904, 1906; Tuell and Hatch, *Readings in English History*, Ginn and Company, 1913; Cheyney, *Readings in English History*, Ginn and Company, 1908.

¹ Gold, "Methods and Content of Courses in History in the High Schools of the United States," *School Review*, XXV, 278.

actual observation, from oral tradition, or from written accounts now lost. When used in this way the source extract must be rather short and have a direct bearing on the point to be illustrated. The purpose of the teacher in using the source in this manner is to make the facts very vivid, hence easy to remember. Only the most important facts should be so illustrated.

2. Assign extracts of considerable length to students for rapid reading. Here the emphasis should be placed on the information attained. A brief, clear, written outline of the contents might be demanded. This is collateral reading and should be treated as such.

3. Have pupils make a detailed study of a source extract of a limited length. This gives training in the critical study of source material. Definite questions might be set as problems. A good scheme is to have the questions in mimeographed form, leaving sufficient room, for the student to insert his answer. When the questions have been answered, an outline should be made by the class, showing the answers in their proper relation to each other and at the same time presenting the topic as a whole.

4. Have pupils make a detailed study of a number of sources dealing with the same event and later write an account based on the information gained therefrom.¹ The advocates of this use of the sources claim for it the following indirect benefits: (1) the pupil is taught that knowledge grows and certainty is attained through question and answer, and that the questioning must go on until no more questions can be asked or answered; (2) the application of this theory develops scientific skepticism and plays havoc with credulity; the pupil demands proof and begins to understand what the word means; (3) he learns how difficult it is to arrive at

¹ The following source books are adapted to this type of work: McLaughlin and Others, *Source Problems in United States History*; Duncalf and Krey, *Parallel Source Problems in Medieval History*; and Fling, *Source Problems on the French Revolution*,—all published by Harper & Brothers.

certainty and he becomes conscious and cautious in his own affirmations; (4) a high standard is set in the organization of knowledge and in the careful formulation of it, that the statement may correspond to the evidence; (5) finally, the practical training in historical proof supplies the pupil with the means of distinguishing between good and bad, scientific and popular secondary works.¹

5. Constitutional, political, and liberty documents, such as Magna Charta, the Ordinance of 1787, the Declaration of Independence, the Emancipation Proclamation, and the like, should be seen and read, but not studied except in special cases and for a particular purpose. Pupils should be permitted and have the opportunity to browse in this material without any thought of analyzing or taking notes on it or being held for details. The aim should be primarily to have them cultivate a speaking acquaintance with the documents rather than attain an intimate knowledge of their contents.

The safe and sane attitude toward the use of the sources for the high-school history teacher to take is that they are adjuncts to good textbook work and, as such, have an important place in junior and senior high-school history teaching.

THE PROBLEM METHOD

The word "problem" has been much overworked in recent educational literature. While the word has been in use long enough in the natural and exact sciences to attain a definite meaning and some respect, it is too much of a newcomer into the fields of geography and history to command like regard and to express the same idea to any considerable group of people. As interpreted by some individuals the expression "the problem method in the study of history" is as old as the source-study method. Indeed, the advocates of the source-study method used the two expressions interchangeably, and

¹ Fling, *Source Problems on the French Revolution*, Preface, pp. xii f.

no doubt to the present day assert that they are the originators of the problem method in history. When they make this assertion, however, they are not attaching the same meaning to the expression that current discussions of the subject do. While the words "question" and "problem" seem to convey the same meaning to the present-day advocates of the problem method, it is nevertheless true that the word "problem" as used in current discussion of the method has no very clearly defined meaning. While it may convey the same idea as the word "question," it seems to convey other ideas as well. The truth of the matter as it now stands is that, because of the variety of meanings attached to this much-used word, there is great need for a clear-cut statement of just what the problem-solving method in history study really is, and also for some clear-cut suggestions relating both to its advantages and to the manner in which it can be used. The next few pages will attempt to do these things.

First, as to what the problem method in studying and teaching history really is. Briefly stated, it is a mode of procedure from day to day which rests essentially on questions, causes, and results as they relate to historical phenomena. It consists in leading the student to see the problems which confronted people in the past and to solve them as they were solved by people in the past. The method, therefore, is an informal rather than a formal one. Assignments are made in terms of problems to solve, and lessons are prepared to solve a problem rather than to meet a requirement. For example, in teaching the history of the United States just after 1789, the teacher would first lead the class to see what problems confronted the people at this date. Some of these could be stated as follows: the problem of providing governmental machinery; the problem of providing money; and the problem of establishing satisfactory relations with foreign powers. All these problems were actually met and solved by the people in their work of getting the new government

under way. Therefore, in teaching the topics represented by these problems the teacher would make his assignments in such a way that the pupils would solve a number of problems just as they were solved in the early years of the nation's history.

As to the advantages of the problem method of teaching history over the more traditional methods, its advocates make the following assertions:

1. It leads pupils to form judgments and to look behind facts for the human motive for the act. This gives good training in discovering the motives that prompt acts which pupils observe from day to day, thus making them keen observers of human nature.

2. It arouses self-activity in a student to an extent that no other method in history does. This self-activity is forced to express itself in an intelligent manner, if wisdom is shown in the selection of problems.

3. It teaches the student to get thought from the printed page. Since he goes to a page looking for a definite statement relative to the solution of some problem, he must learn to find the exact statement which he needs in solving his problem.

4. The method challenges the intellect of the student rather than his memory.

5. Teaching history by the problem method conforms to the following fundamental truth: "The indispensable prerequisite to effective work is that the matter in hand shall be recognized and attacked as a problem." When history lessons are turned into problems, students attack them with a vigor unknown in page-by-page assignments. They go to their book to find the solution of a problem rather than a task to be performed.

6. Life is a process of solving problems, and if history is to assist in the solution of life's problems, it must be taught in such a way as to give training in solving them. Since people in the past met and solved problems just as people today are meeting and solving them, it is the best sort of preparation

for solving life's problems to go through the process of discovering how people in the past solved theirs.

The only comment necessary in connection with these so-called advantages of the problem method in studying and teaching history is that history well taught by any one of the methods previously discussed would secure the advantages claimed for the problem method. In other words, the problem method is not the panacea for the present-day ills of history teaching in junior and senior high schools. A long-continued day-by-day use of the method would be likely to end in disaster to the teacher, to the student, and to the subject, history. An occasional use of it to solve peculiar and outstanding problems should be encouraged. Of course there should be some problem solving in practically all lessons, but to use the method for an entire year as outlined below would be entirely too much of a strain on the three chief factors involved in the work; namely, the pupil, the teacher, and the subject.

It is one thing to talk glibly about the problem-solving method in history teaching and quite another thing to plan a course of study and a concrete method of procedure which will apply it. A conspicuous example of an attempt to outline a course of study based on the problem-solving method in history is found in a recent bulletin of the Department of Public Instruction of the state of New Jersey.¹ One needs, however, but to glance through the course in history for Grades VII and VIII as outlined in this pamphlet to be convinced that the trick is not turned when one simply begins each main topic with the words "how," "why," or "what." For example, instead of writing "The discovery of America" as most outlines do, this problem-solving outline has "How America came to be discovered." If the problem-solving method in history means nothing more than placing

¹ *The Teaching of Geography, History, and Civics*, 1917. A more recent example is the course of study in history for the public schools of Duluth, Minnesota, published during the summer of 1919.

how, why, or what before the ordinary statement of a general topic, it has little to contribute to the cause of good history teaching. This effort, however, on the part of one up-to-date department of public instruction to get the method into a usable form should be commended, for it is through such efforts that the method will eventually become of great service to teachers of history.

Space will not admit here of the working out of a series of problems in the various fields of high-school history. A concrete and detailed outline of one problem adapted to the junior and one to the senior high school will have to suffice. Since American history is universally taught in both of these schools, it seems more practical to give examples of the problem-solving method in this field.

AN EXAMPLE OF THE PROBLEM-SOLVING METHOD IN THE FIELD OF AMERICAN HISTORY¹

A. Junior High School.

I. *Introductory.* There are four phases in the process of teaching a problem in the field of history. They are (1) stating and defining the problem; (2) suggestions as to its solution and their evaluation; (3) collecting, tabulating, and organizing material; (4) drawing conclusions based on the material; in other words, arriving at a solution of the problem.

II. *Stating and defining the problem.* Suppose the problem is that of financing the new government inaugurated in 1789, then a statement for teaching purposes could read "To provide a system of revenue for the newly organized United States government." This statement of the problem is intended to approximate actuality. Whether or not Hamilton ever stated his problem in these words, it is certain that they express what must

¹ The writer is under obligation to Mr. J. M. McConnell and Professor S. C. Parker for the general scheme underlying this example. See Parker, *Exercises to accompany "Methods of Teaching in High Schools,"* pp. E93 ff.

have been uppermost in his mind on assuming the duties of Secretary of the Treasury under the newly organized government. The teaching idea back of this statement of the problem is to get it in such a form that in solving it the pupils will in so far as possible relieve the experiences of those who really provided for a system of revenue in the early years of our nation's history.

III. *Suggestions as to the solutions of the problem and their evaluation.* These suggestions should come from the students before any reading is done. They should be tabulated as given and later evaluated. A wide-awake class will suggest some or all of the following :

1. Tax imports and exports.
2. Direct taxation; ask each state for a certain quota.
3. Place a tax on incomes.
4. Issue bonds for immediate need.
5. Tax whisky, tobacco, and the like.
6. Tax deeds, mortgages, and similar legal documents.
7. Sell the land owned by the government.
8. Issue paper money.
9. Increase postage rates.
10. Sell lottery tickets.¹

In evaluating these proposed solutions the class will soon discover the impossibility of taxing exports in 1789. The advantages and disadvantages of the others will be brought out in the course of the discussion. The supposition here is that the students will not previously have read Hamilton's financial proposals. It should be stated, however, that herein lies one of the difficulties of an ideal application of the problem-solving method. How is one to keep interested pupils from reading in advance of the actual lesson?

¹ To get the best results from an exercise like this the class must know the history of the eight or ten years just prior to 1789. In theory this history should be known by the class as well as it was known by the people living in 1789. Such a knowledge would make the proposed solutions and their evaluation approximate those proposed and evaluated at the time.

- IV. *Collecting, tabulating, and organizing material.* Reading and investigation are now in order. The text in the hands of the children will form the basis for these activities. Other reading matter should also be provided. There is no danger of reading too much here. The class exercises will consist in tabulating the various items in Hamilton's scheme, explaining each in some detail, and presenting the arguments for and against the various measures. All this adds definiteness to the work and assures some of the advantages claimed for the method by its exponents.
- V. *Drawing conclusions based on the foregoing material.* These conclusions should first be worked out one by one by the class as a whole. Later they ought to be written up in summary form by each member of the group and placed in the permanent notebook.

Since this example of the problem-solving method in American history is adapted to Grade VII or Grade VIII, it could not be used with senior high-school students in American history, because most of them would know at the outset what is included under IV and V above. This situation would hold true of the entire field of American history, since the subject is so universally and in most cases so well taught in all junior high schools. Hence, if the teacher in the senior high school wishes to employ the method, he must seek another form. The following example is intended to offer some suggestions relative to a form which one might use. It is meant to secure the much-to-be-desired progress within the subject spoken of previously and considered in some detail later.

B. Senior High School.

- I. *Introductory.* Use a modification of the four phases of the process of teaching the problem found in the example for the junior high school. As modified they should be (1) stating and defining the problem ; (2) suggestions on the part of the pupils as to the best ways of approach

to a solution of the problem and their evaluation;
 (3) gathering the data by the method determined upon as a result of the discussion in (2); (4) organizing the data gathered in (3) and drawing conclusions therefrom.

II. *Stating and defining the problem.* For practical purposes the problem should be one which can be solved without the use of elaborate sources. The truth of the matter is that, since so few high schools have a supply of original material sufficient to work out any historical problem, the problem should be one that can be solved by the use of secondary material mainly. The following one seems to meet this requirement: To show that the causes of the Revolutionary War were economic and religious as well as political, and that the question of the relative importance of these causes is a matter upon which historians disagree.

In defining this problem it will be necessary to call attention to what is meant by an economic cause, a political cause, and a religious cause. An example of each of these should be given in this connection. It will also be necessary to show what is meant by "relative importance" before it will be clear upon what the historians are disagreeing. When all these points are clear to the class, work on the second phase of the process may begin.

III. *Suggestions relative to ways of approach to the solution of the problem, and their evaluation.* The following or similar suggestions will be given by the class:

1. Look through the text for economic, political, and religious causes and tabulate these in separate columns.
2. Look in general reference books dealing with the Revolutionary War for causes not listed in the text. Classify these as in 1.
3. Compare the treatment of the causes of the Revolutionary War in as many parallel texts as possible.
4. Read in books devoted solely to the Revolutionary War to find the opinion of specialists in the field.

5. Organize and classify all the material collected by following out the foregoing suggestions. Draw conclusions based on this material.

Of course, if source material is accessible it should be employed. The amount of time to be spent upon the solution of the problem will determine the quantity of material that can be used. Such a problem, however, could not be solved without a few parallel textbooks. There must be an opportunity to get the views of different historians. In the evaluation of the suggestions for solving the problem the ones determined upon will, of course, presuppose accessible material for carrying them out. Number 1 will be included in all selections; number 5 will also be found; whether or not the others appear will depend upon the material at hand. Even if a suggestion cannot be carried out, it is worth making and discussing, for the broadening effect it has on the conception of the historical method held by the class.

IV. *Gathering data by the method or methods determined upon as a result of the discussion under III above.*

First, the class will run through the discussion in the textbook, listing the causes of the Revolution mentioned therein. Almost any good secondary text will mention and discuss the following subjects. In listing them the class should be asked to show the connection of each to the war proper.

1. Navigation acts.
2. Writs of assistance.
3. Demarcation line of 1763.
4. Sugar Act of 1764.
5. The Stamp Act.
6. Ecclesiastical interference.
7. "No taxation without representation."
8. The social and political revolution within the colonies between 1765 and 1775.
9. The Townshend acts.
10. Boston Tea Party.

After each of these causes has been listed and discussed to determine whether it is primarily religious, economic, or political, some parallel texts may be examined for similar material, note being made of the emphasis each places on the various kind of causes. If there is time and material available, extended investigation of the following topics can be profitably made: navigation acts, colonial shipping, enumerated articles, smuggling, the Molasses Act, the Sugar Act, the trade between the colonies and Great Britain between 1764 and 1775, the tea tax, and the laws restricting manufacturing. Thus it will be seen that with but a minimum amount of search in secondary authorities alone quite a formidable list of causes can be made. After a certain amount of this work has been well done the class is ready to take the next step in the solution of the problem.

V. *Organizing the data gathered in IV and drawing conclusions therefrom.* The organization may take the form of listing the causes enumerated in IV above in four columns headed as follows :

1 MAINLY POLITICAL	2 MAINLY ECONOMIC	3 BOTH ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL	4 RELIGIOUS
1. _____ 2. _____	1. _____ 2. _____	1. _____ 2. _____	1. _____ 2. _____

Much discussion will arise over the classification of certain causes listed under 4 above. It will, however, be possible to classify each cause under one of the foregoing four classifications. Differences of opinion will not matter; they will be an aid in arriving at the solution of the second half of the problem. When the classification is finished, the pupils will be able to see that each main group of causes was important and that a decision made once for all upon the relative importance of each group would be fraught with historical dangers, thus a cause for the disagreement found among historians.

A word or so, in concluding this discussion of the problem method, might be said of its use in a more restricted form than either of the foregoing. For example, the class might be given this problem: "To prove that George Bancroft wrote President Johnson's first annual message." To solve this problem would, of course, involve sources of a peculiar nature, which in all probability few secondary schools would have. Then, on the other hand, a problem the solution of which would require what is known as parallel-source extracts might be given a class. The solving of a problem based on this type of material is highly desirable if the necessary equipment is at hand. Thus it will be observed that one can make the problem-solving method in history just as complex as one desires. The two examples given above purposely kept the method in a form that most history teachers can actually use. Those most enthusiastic for the method may wish to apply it in the solution of more complex problems which can be done with profit if suitable material is accessible.

ADDITIONAL READING MATTER

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CHAPTER V

PROGRESS WITHIN THE SUBJECT

It is a well-known fact that school administrators take liberties with history that they would not think of taking with other subjects. For example, no one ever heard of a high-school senior being permitted to take third-year Latin, mathematics, or German, without having had the first years of work in these subjects, as is frequently the case in history. The reason for this becomes evident when one reflects upon the fact that the principle of progress within the subject has been so firmly established in some of the high-school studies that no one ever thinks of violating it when administering them. The maturity exemplified in the organization and the teaching of Latin, algebra, and physics is not to be found in history and some of the other relatively new subjects in the high-school curriculum.

THE GENERAL NATURE OF THE PROBLEM AND SOME ATTENDING DIFFICULTIES

It should be said at the outset that progression within the subject of history cannot be wholly attained as it is in mathematics, Latin, and physics, where it is secured largely through the organization of the subject matter. In these subjects things must be learned in one-two-three order. The fact that that which follows is so closely related to all that goes before makes it necessary to know the old material before any substantial progress can be made in acquiring the new. While this logical sequence is in favor of these subjects when considered from the standpoint of their teachableness, yet, as

Judd has so well pointed out in his *Psychology of High-School Subjects*,¹ some of the traditional studies are capable of even greater progression. There is need in them for the same sort or a very similar method of procedure that is needed in the social and natural sciences; for, as they are now taught, the principle of progress within the subject is too often subordinated to mere subject matter. Nevertheless, in spite of this fact, these subjects are much superior to history when considered as to their logical organization. Historical facts, conditions, and institutions are, more or less, on a dead level when thought of as to their teachableness. The same fact can be taught in the first and twelfth grades with a certain degree of success. This is simply another way of saying that progression within the subject of history cannot be secured entirely through the selection and the organization of the facts to be taught. The problem of gradation in history is, therefore, largely one of method of procedure. This fact has been so clearly demonstrated by Professor Johnson in his *Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools*² that it needs no further elaboration here.

Now, if progression within the subject of history is to be secured largely through method of procedure, is it possible to devise a method which will insure this progression? The writer's answer to this question is in the affirmative. Others have answered it similarly. Judd proposes the following solution of the matter:

Suppose the history course could be organized in such a way that the demand made upon the student in the earlier years of the history course was, first of all, for ability to comprehend a coherent narrative of successive events. Suppose that at this stage we do not demand any very large explanation of the events studied. Suppose that at the second stage of his study we ask the student not only to understand the history that he is studying, but also to understand the physical facts which influence history, making

¹ Pp. 459 f.

² Chap. ii.

at this stage of the course a correlation between history and geography. This would demand a power of comparison and associative thinking. Suppose that in the third stage we asked for a mastery of evidences upon which history is based; that is, a critical evaluation of the original sources. Suppose, finally, at the last stage of historical discussion, we asked the student to make a critical comparison of the different authorities who have attempted to interpret a given period.¹

History teachers are in general agreement with these suggestions relative to the solution of the problem of progression within their subject. It seems, however, that they omit an important item, namely, that of definitely assigning each stage to a specific grade in the high school. The four stages would suggest that they were to apply to the corresponding high-school years. If such be the intention, it might be suggested that high-school freshmen should be required to comply with more than the first stage demands. It might also be suggested that it would be better for the student as he proceeds through his high-school history course to become progressively efficient in each of the four proposed stages as he moves forward term by term. These reflections on Judd's proposed solution of the problem of progress within the subject of history will serve to call attention to its complexity and probably suggest some of the angles of approach to its practical solution.

It might be well, at this stage of the discussion, to examine some of the chief difficulties connected with a satisfactory working out of our problem. To the writer's thinking, the following are the chief obstacles in the way of a complete and systematic gradation of history and the teaching of history in the high school: (1) beyond one year, the subject is often elective; (2) the required history is usually American, given in the fourth year; (3) school administrators have a notion that history can be used as a filler; (4) the subject matter of history does not form the basis of a systematic progression

¹ Judd, *Psychology of High-School Subjects*, pp. 456 f.

as it does in some other subjects; (5) the intangibility of the results to be obtained from the study of history perpetuates an indefiniteness that seems to elude all efforts at gradation. With this array of handicaps to face, the task of suggesting a workable scheme whereby progress within the subject of high-school history can be secured seems an almost impossible one. However, the task is not so formidable as it at first seems, for if school administrators can be convinced that there is such a thing as progression within the subject of history, they will be willing to remedy some of the present adverse conditions.

In addition to the foregoing obstacles to the application of the principle of progress within the subject of history, there are certain attending difficulties which the teachers themselves will have to overcome. For example, the American Revolution is now commonly taught in both the junior and the senior high school. Suppose the same individual teaches this subject on both levels of instruction. Will he have the courage to go before the senior high-school class and present the same fact in the same way that he presented it to the class in the junior high school?

Right here lies the crux of the problem of gradation in history. Exactly how should the history taught in the third or fourth years of the traditional high school differ from that taught in the seventh and eighth grades; and how should the senior college work differ from that of the last year of the high school? The truth of the matter is that too often the second cycle makes little or no advance over the first, and the third not sufficient over the second.

The measures necessary to solve all these perplexing difficulties are out of the reach of an individual teacher. Possibly in time our history courses will be organized with a view to taking care of this phase of the situation. That it is a problem has been recognized in many quarters. The History Teachers Association of the Middle States and Maryland

gave considerable attention to it both in the 1906 and in the 1915 meetings. In the latter gathering it took the form of a consideration of the differentiation of history in the high school from history in the elementary school, and of history in the college from history in the high school, illustrated by reference to the causes of the American Revolution. The papers presented on this occasion worked out in some detail the phases of the subject to be taught in each cycle. It is unnecessary to go into these proposals here. It should be said, however, that if a similar treatment of all the subjects in American history which appear in both the junior and the senior high-school cycle were at hand and as familiar to history teachers as, let us say, the report of the Committee of Seven, considerable progress would have been made in remedying some notable defects in present-day history teaching.¹

The solving of such a problem as the differentiation of history in the high school from history in the elementary school, and of history in the college from history in the high school, demands coöperative effort, hence cannot be worked out by the individual teacher. Since this is true, one might ask with propriety, What, then, can an individual teacher do to secure this much-to-be-desired progress within the subject of history? The answer afforded by this discussion to such a question is this: Any teacher can plan general and special methods of procedure sufficiently definite and so correctly graded as to secure progress within the subject when they are applied. Examples of what is meant here appear below in the statements of a general method of procedure in teaching American history in the junior and senior high school as well as similar statements for ancient and European history.

¹ Hedge, "Differentiation of the Elementary School History from that of the High School"; Dougherty, "Material and Treatment for a Senior Class in the High School"; Spencer, "Material and Treatment for a College Class," all found in the 1915 *Proceedings of the History Teachers Association of the Middle States and Maryland*. See also "Differentiation in Treatment of the American Revolution in Elementary School, High School, and College," by A. W. Smith, in the 1906 *Proceedings* of the same association.

ATTAINING PROGRESS THROUGH GENERAL AND SPECIAL METHODS OF PROCEDURE

In applying a method of procedure in junior high-school American history which purports to be definite enough to make possible the application of the principle of progress within this subject when it is studied again in the senior high school, the first thing necessary is to get the main divisions of the field before the class. This can be done inductively with the textbook in the hands of the children. If the textbook has a general organization, this can be examined and discussed and a tentative one proposed. In the course of a week or so the final organization can be determined along with specific names and date boundaries for each main division.

The second step is to formulate in story form the main trend of the history contained in each large division. In most cases it will be better for the teacher to tell this story to the class. It can be told in sections from day to day, accompanied by a retelling by the members of the class as their part of the advance lesson. When each pupil is able to tell the story from beginning to end, the next step in the general method of procedure may be taken.

If the background of American history has been studied in the sixth or seventh grade, there will be need of but slight emphasis on the period of discovery and exploration. In fact, the story already learned could be so elaborated as to make any more work on this period unnecessary. However, since physical features and the Indians cannot be included in the story, some attention will need to be given to these two factors. Considerable time will be spent on the period from 1607 to 1763. A good organization for it is to deal with the English colonies in three groups down to about 1700, including a cross-section view of life and institutions in each group at the latter date. The progress of settlement from 1700 to 1754 may be treated as one topic. After this has been

concluded, French colonization may be taken from the beginning to 1754, after which a brief consideration of the French and Indian Wars will be in order. The study of the period will close with an intensive cross-section view of colonial life and institutions in 1763. A great deal of time may be profitably spent on this cross-section view. Comparison may be made with present-day conditions, and the work on the whole be made very practical and interesting. The period between 1763 and 1789 may be treated much like the preceding one. The political thread running through it will be considerably elaborated as compared with what has been included in the overview already made. The major part of the time spent on this period will be devoted to a survey of the social, economic, and political conditions of the country just prior to 1787, culminating in a study of the formation and ratification of the Constitution.

Either of two methods of procedure may be followed after the year 1789. When the teacher has made sure that the pupils understand the main current of the history from this date to, let us say, 1829, certain phases of life running through the period may be studied in some detail. For example, the social progress and development, including a study of intellectual life, religious activities, social and moral betterment, home life of the people, and conditions of labor might be emphasized. This same procedure could be applied equally well to the periods from 1829 to 1865, from 1865 to 1898, and from 1898 to the present time.

Such a method of procedure as proposed in the preceding paragraph would not serve equally well for all students of history. For those who expect to complete the junior high-school course such a method might be profitably followed; but for those who may not be able to complete the course there is probably a better way. For these latter and for those who are in the industrial and commercial courses a good plan would be first to go over the main features of all the periods since

1789 and then to trace the history of a few important topics from their origin to their present condition. For example, the history of agriculture, manufacturing, labor systems, and the like could be traced from their simple beginnings in colonial times to their present-day complexities. Such a method would give the teacher all the freedom necessary to adapt the course to local conditions as well as to the interests and capacities of the children. In the working up of these topics the counter-chronological method of approach could no doubt be used as effectively as the chronological, and if the pupils have had a course in European history, there is no reason why the counter-chronological story should end on this side of the Atlantic.

At the conclusion of the study of each period a more elaborate story of it should be recounted by the children, and at the end of the course the whole story of the history of the United States should be formulated with all the elaborateness that the class is able to make. The maps made during the year may be used in connection with the telling of this final story, the content of which will be determined by the sort of facts the teacher has emphasized as the course progressed from day to day.

In the application of a method of procedure in the senior high-school American history which aims to be an advance over the foregoing, the first thing necessary in the junior high school is to get the general organization of the field to be studied before the class. If this has been well done in the lower school, little time will be needed for it here, since it will be in the nature of a review. The same general divisions of the field for teaching purposes that were used in the junior high school are to be employed here. This means that the names and date boundaries of these divisions must be exactly the same in both schools. There is no more reason for senior high-school pupils learning new names for these divisions than for their learning new names for the continents and the fundamental operations in arithmetic.

After this preliminary work has been well done and each member of the class can give in a connected form an overview of the entire field in the form of a story, it is time for the second step in the method herein outlined. This step should begin where the first left off, namely, with the present. Since one of the big aims of the course in American history is to give those pursuing it an understanding of the present, a survey of what is to be understood is essential. Such a survey will include the main features of our present social structure in order to discover what some of the things are that people need to know about and the historical knowledge necessary to understand them in their present form. While the results of this survey of our present social structure will not be exactly the same in any two localities, the following list taken from Bobbitt's *What the Schools Teach and Might Teach* certainly includes about all that any class will discover: sociological aspects of war, territorial expansion, race problems, tariff and free trade, transportation, money systems, our insular possessions, growth of population, trusts, banks and banking, immigration, capital and labor, education, inventions, suffrage, centralization of government, strikes and lockouts, panics and business depressions, commerce, taxation, manufacturing, labor unions, foreign commerce, agriculture, postal service, army, government control of corporations, municipal government, navy, factory labor, wages, courts of law, charities, crime, fire protection, roads and road transportation, newspapers and magazines, national defense, conservation of natural resources, liquor problems, parks and playgrounds, housing conditions, mining, health and sanitation, pensions, unemployment, child labor, women in industry, cost of living, pure-food control, savings banks, water supply of cities, prisons, recreations and amusements, coöperative buying and selling, insurance, and hospitals.

After the teacher and the class have made a list of topics for study similar to this one of Professor Bobbitt's, the ones

most conspicuous in the life of their own community can be selected for intensive study. While the counter-chronological approach to each topic might be employed, it is probably more practical to use the chronological method. Granting that this latter method is used, the next thing in order is to make a working outline of the particular topic chosen for first consideration. The text in the hands of the students should be the chief reliance in making this working outline, and when it is finished a more complete one made by the teacher can be substituted for it. On the completion of all this preliminary work serious study of the topic under consideration can be undertaken. As many topics as the time devoted to the course will permit can be treated in this same manner.

Another general method of procedure which could be applied equally well in the teaching of American history in the senior high school is this: After the general survey of the entire field to be covered and the special survey of the main features of our present-day social structure have been completed, some past structures of American society might be studied in detail in order to show how the problems of living were worked out in the different stages of our national life. Providing the material can be secured, the following periods in our history seem most worth analyzing: the period of Revolution and the Establishment of the American Nation, 1763-1789; the period of Expansion and Conflict, 1829-1865; and the decade of the period of Reconstruction and Consolidation following 1880. If at all possible a detailed cross-section view should be taken of the country at some time within each of these four periods. If this is not practicable, a general survey of the life of the people during each of these periods may be made, for which no material other than that found in the text is absolutely necessary. Of course the completeness of the survey in each case will depend upon the amount and quality of the material at hand.

In the survey of the period beginning with 1763, the colonies should be considered in a threefold group and in a twofold group; the former consisting of the New England colonies, the middle colonies, and the southern colonies; and the latter of the seacoast group and the back-country group. All phases of the life of the people in each of these groups should be considered. Comparisons and contrasts should be frequent, not only of one section with another but of each phase of colonial life with the same or with a similar phase of present-day life.

In an analysis of the life in the country during the period between 1829 and 1865, the South, the West, and the East may be used as units. Such an analysis would yield in the East a transition from family-made to factory-made goods, the increased importance of a market for goods, the interrelations between this market and tariffs, moneys, transportation and communication, the greater specialization in diverse industries, social and humanitarian reforms, the movement of the population from rural to urban communities, and the beginnings of important educational reforms. In the South such things as specialization in one industry only, the self-sufficiency of each plantation worked by slave labor, the general control by the planter aristocracy, lack of adequate educational facilities, the narrow and meager existence of the upland people, and the evil effects of the factory system will come to the surface. The self-sufficiency of frontier life, the democratic spirit, manhood suffrage, the movement in favor of public education, the need for adequate transportation and communication facilities, the varied industries of rural villages, and the demand for free land will be noticed in an analysis of the West. When all these analyses have been worked out, comparisons and contrasts can be made with colonial times and present-day conditions as well.

Generally speaking, an analysis of the life and activities of the country during the eighties would reveal a general

shifting from rural to urban life and the effects of these changes upon labor; a mining-camp frontier life in the West; the industrial revolution spreading to include other goods besides textiles; the coming of labor organizations; the beginnings of large industrial combinations; the passing of the frontier; the coming of extreme poverty and wealth; the beginnings of government regulation; the great interest in railroad building; the scientific spirit in agriculture; important educational reforms; and the like. When this period is finished, some time should be spent in comparing and contrasting the social structure of the country at the time each survey was made. The remainder of the time devoted to the course can be profitably spent on enlarging the general overview of American history which each student is supposed to have when he enters the course. If this part of the work and the four surveys herein mentioned are done well, the students will leave the course with a rather definite understanding of our complex present-day life and its historical antecedents.

In concluding this phase of the discussion, it should be said that where a teacher in the senior high school is certain that the pupils in his class were not taught according to the method proposed above for the junior high school, the practical thing for him to do is to use the junior high-school procedure for his senior high-school class. There is no use in trying to apply a method which assumes that a certain thing has been well done unless that thing has really been accomplished. The fact in the case is that when pupils in the junior high school have been taught by the chapter-by-chapter and page-by-page textbook method, the method herein proposed for them would be quite an advance when used in the senior high school, and its use would be in conformity with the principle of progress within the subject. The chief points to make in this whole matter are (1) teachers on each level of instruction should have a rather definite general method of procedure; (2) each should know the method used by the others; and (3) when

American history is taught in the senior high school, it should be on the senior and not on the junior high-school level.

Before we pass to another phase of the matter of progress within the subject of history, a general method of procedure for two other fields of history ordinarily taught in the senior high school will be given. First, let us direct our attention to the field of ancient history.

In ancient history the first thing to do is to work out with the class, text in hand, the general organization of the field to be used in teaching the subject. Since Greek and Roman history usually come in different semesters, the organization of the Roman field could be left until the beginning of the second semester's work. After each general division has been determined upon, named, and located by pages within the text, and some general notion of the big movements in each division has been grasped by the class, attention may be centered upon the first of these general divisions. In working out an outline to use in teaching it, use the text in about the same manner in which it was employed in establishing the general organization. The outline thus worked out, as well as all work previously done, should be placed in the permanent notebook. On completing the first teaching division of the subject, the next one should be taken up and treated similarly. However, before leaving any particular division, the class should devote some time to viewing it as a whole in the light of all that has been learned about it. Such a view will include listing and learning, if they have not been previously learned, the dates-events to be remembered, and the personages to be known which fall within the division. It will also include a review of the main features of the map that has been made during the study of the division.

This general method of procedure in teaching ancient history takes for granted that the teacher has a general and special organization of the field already worked out before the course begins. It also assumes that he knows just what dates

and events are to be known, what personages are to be identified, and what maps are to be made in each division on beginning the course, or at least before serious work on it commences. The method is applicable whether one is teaching ancient history down to about 800 A.D. or European history from the earliest time to 1648 or 1700. It has previously been briefly mentioned in the discussion of the textbook method.

In the teaching of medieval and modern history or European history since about 1648 or 1700 the same general plan can be followed as in ancient history. First, the general organization of the field for teaching purposes will be established with the textbook open before the class. After this is done it will be possible to formulate in story form the main currents of European history since 800 A.D. or 1648, as the case may be. In practice the teacher had better tell this story to the class, demanding a retelling by each member in so far as this is possible. The story could be written with profit by each student and placed in his permanent notebook for future use.

When this preliminary work has been thoroughly done, the first period will be taken up and treated as the first period in ancient history was treated, with the additional requirement that each student know a much longer story of it than the original one. Each succeeding period will be similarly treated, emphasis being laid on the dates and events to be known, the personages to be identified, and the maps to be made in each period. Time enough should be left for a long story of the entire field to be told at the end of the course.

If the teacher has sufficient library facilities, there is another method of procedure in teaching the two fields under discussion here which could be effectively employed, especially if the desire is to focus the attention of the class on the historical movements necessary for an intelligent understanding of present-day European life and activities. Using the method contemplated here, the teacher would begin the course just as when using the preceding one, that is, by getting the general

organization of the field to be taught before the class, using the text as a basis; the short story of the entire field would also be told by the teacher and learned by the students. In the case of the traditional medieval and modern history, it would be better to touch lightly at the beginning of the course on the periods to be covered the second semester, reserving this semester for an intensive application of the method herein contemplated. The procedure outlined above for the entire field of medieval and modern history should be used the first semester.

Now, after this necessary preliminary work has been completed, the second step in the application of the method under consideration can be taken. This includes an examination of the main features of the social structure of the leading European countries in and after 1914. England, Russia, France, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and the Balkan States are the countries which should receive chief attention in this survey, which should cover topics like the following in so far as they apply to the countries surveyed: chief industries, government, colonies and dependencies, religion, education, poverty and wealth, transportation facilities, the land and its resources, the people, rural and urban life, autocracy, democracy, and socialism. When this work is completed, either of two methods of procedure might be followed. One would be to take up a historical consideration of each of the leading European countries separately, beginning with either France or England and emphasizing the historical development of the topics included in the preliminary survey. After each nation has been viewed in this manner, some time should be spent in a comparative study, with a view to discovering the underlying causes of the World War.¹

¹ H. E. Tuell, "The Study of Nations," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VIII, 264 ff., for an excellent outline for studying each of the nations mentioned above. For an elaborate discussion of the same subject see Tuell, *The Study of Nations—An Experiment in Social Education*, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919. This work contains additional outlines for studying China, Japan, the Philippine Islands, Turkey, and the Balkan States.

Another way of proceeding after making the preliminary survey of the leading European nations is to focus the attention on historical movements relating to the whole of Europe rather than to center it on individual nations. In the application of the scheme such topics as the rise of nationality, the struggle for constitutional government, industrial changes, the socialistic movement, economic theory and reform, the doctrine of evolution and the enthusiasm for natural science, educational reforms, and religious conditions would be treated historically as they apply to the whole of Europe. In other words, in teaching the course the attention would be focused on large movements and transformations as they apply to the whole of Europe rather than on individual nations as in the case mentioned above. For example, in the study of the socialistic movement, the general organization projected at the beginning of the course would serve as the background, and the progress and conditions of the movement would be considered in each country during the various periods included in the general organization of the entire field. It should be said in passing that both of these last-mentioned methods are applications of the topical method described in a previous chapter, the topics in the one case being the various nations surveyed and in the other the big movements applying to Europe as a whole.

So far in this discussion but one angle of the problem of progress within the subject of history has been considered, namely, securing progress through a general method of procedure for the different levels of instruction. The problem one must now face is how to secure progress from year to year in the junior or senior high school. The answer to the question is this: Progress within the subject of history in either of these schools must be secured by what might be termed special requirements and specific objectives as well as set ways of covering the various phases of the work in each year history is taught. The following outline will illustrate what is meant here:

AN OUTLINE OF PROGRESSIVE REQUIREMENTS FOR SENIOR
HIGH-SCHOOL HISTORY CLASSES

- I. First year of the senior high school (10th year).
 1. Recitation by topic.
 - a. Pupils present the facts in a one-minute or two-minute oral recitation.
 - b. Pupils answer interpretative and review questions put by the teacher.
 2. Assignments.
 - a. Full outline of the work given by teacher at first with definite instructions relative to its preparation.
 - b. Later, student may make his own outline after considerable attention has been given to such work during the progress of the course.
 3. Supplementary reading to include :
 - a. An account paralleling that of the text.
 - b. A short special treatment of some topic in the lesson.
 - c. Short biographies.
 - d. Limited number of source readings.
 4. Report on supplementary reading in the form of :
 - a. Oral recitation of from two to three minutes in length on special topics.
 - b. Outline, synopsis, or summary handed in.
 - c. Contributions during the class period based on parallel readings.
 5. Permanent notebook exercises, such as :
 - a. One-paragraph themes on topics related to the daily work.
 - b. Short biographical sketches of representative historical personages.
 - c. Outlines given by the teacher or made by the pupil.
 - d. Concrete exercises based on source material.
 - e. Pictures and edited clippings.
 - f. Copied illustrations and drawings.
 - g. Tabulations and comparisons.
 - h. Outline maps filled in.
 - i. Graphic representations made by the pupil.

6. Oral recitations of from twenty to twenty-five minutes on important periods of history after they have been studied in class.
 7. One-minute or two-minute oral reports on current topics.
- II. Second year of the senior high school (11th year).
1. Topical recitation involving on the part of the pupil:
 - a. A rather elaborate and continuous treatment of a topic.
 - b. An application of his knowledge through answers to the teacher's questions involving causes, effects, and interpretations.
 2. Assignments.
 - a. Usually in the form of a guidance outline based on text.
 - b. Definite outside reading to elaborate the guidance outline.
 3. Supplementary reading to include:
 - a. An account paralleling that of the text.
 - b. A fuller parallel account.
 - c. A special treatment of a topic connected with the recitation of the day.
 - d. Source extracts.
 - e. Current literature.
 4. Reports on supplementary reading in the form of:
 - a. Contributions during class discussion.
 - b. Oral recitations of from five to fifteen minutes in length on some one topic.
 - c. Outline handed in.
 5. Permanent notebook exercises, such as:
 - a. One-page or two-page themes on topics closely related to the daily work.
 - b. Synopses of brief selections of source material.
 - c. Answers to search questions on secondary or source material.
 - d. Characterizations and summaries of periods or movements.
 - e. Outline maps filled in.
 - f. Tabulations and comparisons.
 - g. Synopses or outlines or reports made in class by other pupils.
 - h. Notes on lectures given by the teacher.
 - i. Reports on contemporary events.

6. Oral recitations extending over the whole of the recitation on important periods previously studied in class.
 7. Oral report on current topics, based on the reading of a number of stories of the same event.
- III. Third year of the senior high school (12th year).
1. Topical recitation with emphasis on longitudinal treatment.
 2. Assignments.
 - a. Usually in the form of a guidance outline of each topic studied.
 - b. Definite references to read on each phase of the topic.
 3. Supplementary reading to include:
 - a. An account paralleling that of the text.
 - b. A fuller parallel account.
 - c. A special treatment of a topic or period.
 - d. Source material.
 - e. Biographies.
 - f. Current literature.
 4. Report on supplementary reading in the form of:
 - a. Contributions during the class discussion.
 - b. Oral reports on topics specially assigned.
 - c. Cards handed in showing kind and amount of reading done.
 5. Temporary notebook exercises to include:
 - a. Outline of work given by the teacher.
 - b. Voluntary notes on reading done.
 - c. Sketch maps for use in daily recitation.
 - d. Summaries made in class.
 - e. Notes on lectures given by the teacher and reports made by other members of the class.
 - f. A few outline maps filled in.
 - g. Bibliographical material.
 - h. Charts, graphs, and similar materials.
 6. Oral recitation extending over one or more recitations on important periods previously studied in class.
 7. An elaborate term paper, prepared according to the following plan:
 - a. Select subject not later than the second week of the semester, the selection to be voluntary from a list proposed by the teacher.

- b.* Class sets dates for the reading to be finished, the general outline, the first copy, and the final copy to be handed in.
 - c.* Spend some time each week in discussing the progress made, difficulties encountered, and the technic of footnote references. Develop inductively a set of rules for the latter.
 - d.* Each pupil hands in once a week his notes on the reading done for his paper. These notes to be kept by the teacher and returned when enough reading has been completed.
 - e.* The week following the return of the notes an outline based on them is to be made by each pupil. This is approved by the teacher and returned.
 - f.* The first copy of the paper comes in on the date previously set by the class.
 - g.* If necessary, the first copy is returned and a final one comes in on the date previously set.
 - h.* Papers as a rule are not to be read in class, since much of the material will have been used during the progress of the course.
8. During the second semester a paper should be written on some current political, economic, social, or civic topic. This work should be done rather independently.
 9. Previous training in reading and reporting on current topics should be utilized. The current problem work should be carried on almost exclusively in this manner.

A mere glance through this outline reveals the fact that progress is secured through increased ability to do certain things relative to the work rather than by mere knowledge as is the case in some subjects. He would be a pupil of rather unusual ability who could enter the third year of history and do the work according to the method outlined above who had not had the training secured from the first two years' work as proposed. For example, in the writing of the term paper the student applies all his previous training in historical reading and note-taking as well as the technic of footnote references

which he has gradually mastered. It would also be quite difficult for the newcomer into the third-year class to recite consecutively and logically for two class periods without notes unless he had had the training which the first two years of the history work aim to give. Neither could a newcomer do the type of outside reading demanded in the third-year course without the ability developed by the two years of training in such work. And, finally, it would be an extraordinary student who could prepare independently the type of paper required during the last semester of the history work, as well as do the type of daily work demanded in this course.

It is quite possible that in the hands of some teachers the method of procedure outlined above would become stereotyped and formal, thus making the work lifeless and of little value. It is also quite possible that the progressive standards of attainment demanded in each year might be so vague and indefinite in the mind of a teacher that a pupil could move along through the course without progressing in his ability to do the things which the outline demands. To overcome these potential difficulties the teacher will need only to vary the recitation procedure as the occasion requires and let the class set the standard according to the exactions made by the outline. It is the writer's conviction that the outline itself presents sufficient opportunities for variation to prevent the plan from becoming formal and lifeless.

There are two other ways by which progress within the subject of history could be secured. Neither of them, however, could be worked out and applied by a teacher working alone, hence they are merely mentioned here because the discussion has in mind presenting something definite and concrete for the individual teacher. These two ways are (1) by a close organization of topics presented in two or more of the cycles so that a higher type of ability would be demanded on each level; (2) by an organization and selection of the topics in each cycle so that there will be little or no

repetition, thus making it possible for the child in the seventh grade to study one set of topics relative to the Revolutionary War, the high-school senior another set, and the college student another, all so organized that the second cycle could not be done successfully without a knowledge of the first, and the last without a knowledge of the first two. While we are waiting for coöperative effort to secure progress through these last two methods, the individual teacher will have to secure this much-to-be-desired result through his method of procedure day by day and term by term.

ADDITIONAL READING MATTER

- HEDGE, DOUGHERTY, and SPENCER. "The Differentiation of History in the Elementary School, and of History in College from History in the High School, Illustrated by Reference to the Causes of the American Revolution," *Proceedings of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland*, No. 13 (1915), pp. 54 ff.
- JOHNSON, HENRY. "The Problem of Grading History," in *The Teaching of History in the Elementary and Secondary Schools*, chap. ii. The Macmillan Company, 1915.
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- SMITH, E. E. "Gradation of High-School Work in History," *Ohio History Teachers' Journal*, Bulletin No. 3 (November, 1916), pp. 103 ff.
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CHAPTER VI

WRITTEN WORK IN HIGH-SCHOOL HISTORY

Written work in one form or other occupies a very prominent place in present-day high-school teaching. In the foreign languages, written exercises are the rule rather than the exception; in the natural and physical sciences, experiments are carefully written up and filed away for safekeeping in the permanent notebook; in English, short written themes are sometimes required daily and longer ones weekly; and in history, outlines, synopses, summaries, and other forms of written exercises are required in all phases of the work. This prevalent use of formal written work in present-day high-school teaching makes the subject of prime importance to teachers, and inasmuch as the history teachers have a function to perform in the matter somewhat different from that of the teachers in other departments, it becomes necessary for them to give the subject especial consideration.

While the English teacher in the required written work is most concerned with the problem of teaching how to write, the history teacher is interested in the proper application of what the student already knows about the fundamentals of written English. This does not mean, however, that the history teacher will neglect the matter of training in note-taking, a type of work much used in history teaching and of sufficient importance to deserve special attention.

TRAINING IN HISTORY NOTE-TAKING

It may be necessary at the outset for the history teacher to emphasize the need and value of training in note-taking in the ordinary walk of life. He can do this by calling the attention of his pupils to the practical value and actual use of this

training in present-day business and professional activities. The trained physician works out from his reference books the treatment of cases which are peculiar and tabulates the results in a form which he can use in his tentative and final diagnoses; the minister each week works up sermons and addresses, in the process of which much use is made of notes; business men are each year developing more and more complete and elaborate systems of recording, classifying, and unifying the various items of their business; the farmer systematizes his methods of feeding and breeding hogs and cattle, crop rotations, and the like, all of which are the outcome of careful and methodical reading and recording the results of this reading along with his own experience; the housekeeper also applies training in note-taking by arranging in an orderly manner the results of her reading in books, magazines, and journals and using the knowledge thus acquired in running her household. In truth the great majority of persons in civilized pursuits have need of and actually use training in note-taking. Even high-school history students sometimes discover their need of and the value of such training. A graduate of an eastern high school, subsequently becoming a traveling salesman, wrote his history teacher to the effect that of all his high-school training he considered that which he attained in his history course of most value to him, for it was the actual and systematic training in note-taking received in the history classes that he was daily using in planning his routes, organizing his territory, and classifying his customers. Of course, this is an extreme case, but it illustrates the point under consideration here.

Before the history teacher can guide any effective work in note-taking in his subject, he will need to clarify his own thinking as to the purposes and uses of the notes which he is to have his pupils take. Note-taking as a form of busy work in history teaching is intolerable. Historical notes must be for some specific intent and subsequently used. Some justifiable

purposes are: (1) to give actual practice in the application of knowledge acquired in the English classes; (2) to teach pupils how to perform the types of written work which are peculiar to history; and (3) to give the pupils the opportunity to use historical terms and expressions which should become habitual. The uses to be made of the notes taken from day to day may be spoken of as specific and general. The former includes such uses as for the next recitation, the writing of a long or short theme, the making of an oral report, and reviewing for examinations. The general uses are to preserve a record for possible future use, to fix the subject in mind by the effort required to make the notes, and to preserve a record of the reading done outside of the text. If the teacher can convince his pupils as the work moves along from day to day that the notes they are taking are and will be of real and actual value to them, note-taking will assume an effectiveness unknown in a class where the pupils feel that they are doing the written work to satisfy the whimsical desires of a pedantic teacher.

The history teacher may or may not need to give attention to the technic of note-taking, such as form, punctuation, the meaning of guidance and information outlines, synopsis, summary, and digest, and the use of abbreviations. In an ideal situation the pupils would learn this technic in English and apply it in history. When such nearly ideal conditions do not exist, the history teacher will need to give some attention both to the technic of note-taking and to its application. In making his plans to teach this work, he will be materially aided by such books as Seward's *Note-Taking*, Kitson's *How to use your Mind*, and Slater's *Freshman Rhetoric*. The first-named of these books, as the title suggests, is devoted entirely to the subject; each of the last two has a chapter devoted to note-taking.

After going through the foregoing or similar material in order to fix in his own mind certain points relative to the

technic of note-taking, the teacher will be ready to give actual assistance to his pupils along this line. Some of the practical things that he can do for them are (1) give them actual training in the making of outlines, summaries, and briefs, in the taking of direct quotations, and in paraphrasing; (2) afford opportunities for a great amount of actual practice in doing the various types of written work used in carrying out the daily routine; (3) furnish occasions for practice in taking notes on lectures given by himself and reports made by the pupils; (4) develop and decide upon a footnote-reference technic to be used in writing long themes and term reports. Not all of these, however, should be attempted in any one semester. They are listed in the order best to follow in carrying them out.

In giving actual training in the making of outlines, summaries, and briefs and in the taking of direct quotations the text should be used as the basis. Since the making of an outline is relatively an easy matter, instruction and practice in it should precede all other work of this nature. A little time devoted to the problem every day will soon result in considerable efficiency. At first the work will take the form of a cooperative effort, the teacher and pupils working together with books open. After the pupils begin to see what a guidance outline really is they can be assigned certain portions of the text to outline from day to day. Two or three of these outlines may be placed on the board and used as a basis for discussing the matter in class. As soon as some ability in the making of a guidance outline is attained attention should be centered upon the information outline. The same method of procedure may be followed in this work as was followed in teaching how to make a guidance outline.

The foregoing is likewise a good method of teaching what is meant by summaries and briefs, and in teaching how to determine what is worth quoting. The text will often contain concrete examples of summaries. When it does they can be

studied and their chief characteristics noted. Since a brief is an information outline considerably expanded, it might be approached through this channel. Some of the information outlines previously made might well be expanded into briefs. Paraphrasing and taking direct quotations are closely related. One might think of the first as saying in one's own words the gist of what has been said by another; while the second, of course, is taking the exact words, punctuation and all, which a writer uses. Training in both of these should first be given with books open; later applications should be made first with textbook material, and still later in connection with collateral reading.

Actually writing a number of examples of the various types of written work is necessary on the part of the pupil in order to make sure that he can apply his training in note-taking. Inasmuch as this phase of the work is so closely related to that of training in note-taking, it may be dismissed without further comment. Taking notes on lectures given by the teacher and on special reports made in the class by individual students, however, is a different matter and should receive considerable attention in class exercises before actual practice in it is begun. One good way to begin is for the teacher to prepare a few well-organized lectures on topics directly related to the daily work. At first it may be best to place on the blackboard a guidance outline of the lecture; later the pupils will be expected to discover the main and subordinate points as the lecture proceeds. After a few exercises of this nature, individual pupils may be asked to make reports to the class on topics closely related to the work of the day. In beginning this work it may be best to have before the class a brief outline of what the pupil is going to say to serve as a guide in note-taking. The notes taken on these reports should be incorporated into the general outline of the lesson for the day, which the pupil in the most cases will have before him.

While some attention should be given to footnote-reference technic as the history work proceeds from semester to semester, what is meant by developing and deciding upon a footnote-reference technic to use in writing long themes and term reports should not be attempted until late in the student's career in the high-school history department. This work should be done in connection with the writing of a term paper, the details of which are considered in a subsequent chapter.

TYPES OF FORMAL WRITTEN WORK

The types of formal written work to be considered here are outlines, briefs, short themes on historical topics, imaginary diaries, imaginary letters and editorials, notes on lectures and reports, digests or abstracts of collateral reading, direct quotations, comparative statements, bibliographies, summaries, and brief statements relating to the life and work of historical personages. As the student passes through the work outlined in the entire field of high-school history, he should be given an opportunity to do some formal written work along each of these lines. This work should be marked by the teacher, and the results should be incorporated into the scheme for determining final grades.

If at all possible, concrete examples of the various types of formal written work should be shown to the class. By keeping a few of the best representatives of each type written from year to year the teacher will soon have an abundance of this kind of illustrative material at his command. To make sure that the beginning teacher will have at least some of this concrete material, a few examples are included here. These include an imaginary diary, two short themes, an imaginary editorial, and some imaginary letters. The reader will observe that some of the examples contain mistakes both in history and in English. The experienced teacher, however, will understand the appearance of the errors when he knows that the examples represent the first efforts of the writers.

DIARY OF THE PRINCESS MARY

Windsor
Castle
England Year
of 1475.

I, the Princess Mary, sister to the reigning king, Henry VIII, and daughter of the house of Tudor, have resolved to keep a diary, mainly to set down in black and white the evil doings of my burly brother, "The King."

During this month he and his "butcher" Wolsey have taken it into their heads to make the King head of the church as well as of the state. For, thus only will our sovereign be able to divorce honest, homely Catherine, and marry foolish little Anne Boleyn. I called Wolsey a "butcher" for I utterly despise the fellow and his father was a butcher. But I, for my own sake, must treat him royally. For I am near exhausted trying to keep Henry's mind from the "Fool-King" Louis of France, whom he (Henry) is planning to match me with for a few miserly pounds of gold. I swear by my country and my father I will never marry that "old man," so if Henry becomes too forcible, I must get the help of Wolsey who stands in high favor.

The scandal of it! Henry has denounced the Pope and placed himself at the head of the church. Poor Catherine has sworn she is, and has always been, Henry's faithful wife. But he scorns her and is to be quietly divorced from her and as quietly married to Anne. O, me! He has also begun preparations with France, but I do not fear, for they will never be accomplished.

I am writing this in France. Even with all my courage, "that villain" married me to Louis.

But Henry VIII of England is dead and duly buried, also poor Wolsey who died in disgrace and despair having served his King too well instead of his maker. Louis, of France is also upon his last bed and Francis II is already planning to marry me, but I'll not be kept in misery any longer than to see Louis buried in French soil.

Paris France
In the Year
1509.

Edward VI, Henry's son, reigns in England, and has made the country protestant. Nothing is talked of but burning stakes, scaffolds and religion. Thousands of Catholics are being put to death every day and everybody's life is in danger but for all this, let me see my beloved "Windsor" once again.

Windsor
Castle
Eng. In the
Year 1554.

Home once again, and how good that looks to one who has longed by night and day for it. Many things have happened since my last writing. I am a happy dowager for the King of France has passed away and with him Edward of England. This year has marked a great discovery. All honor goes to Spain, as one "Columbus" has discovered a new land westward. England under Edward VI has sent one, John Cabot and his son, to affirm these tales. He is expected to report tomorrow of his discoveries.

Upon the death of Edward, his sister, Mary, became Queen and with her came back the old religion. The persecution of the Protestants has begun in the terrible manner like to Edward's in persecuting the Catholics.

Surrey
England In
the Year 1558.

Now again we have a new ruler. Mary, the bloody, as her subjects have named her, has passed away, died of a broken heart. And Elizabeth, my niece, daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn, has been crowned Queen. Elizabeth is twenty-five years of age and swears she will never marry. As Mary undid the religious works of Henry and Edward so has Elizabeth undone the work of Mary. So that again Catholics are being put to death and suffering in the "Tower."

Today the subjects of England are in a great tumult. For hundreds are setting sail for Holland exiling themselves on account of their religion. They are known as Puritans and Separatists, people who adopt Protestantism as a whole but not each separate part. May they be satisfied and contented in their adopted homes.

Windsor
Castle in the
Year 1587.

The life of "Mary, Queen of the Scots" was ended today. Elizabeth has succeeded in this, as in other

things. And so the poor Scottish Queen will trouble her no more. May Elizabeth not be judged as she has judged.

England
July 18, 1588.

The death of Mary has led to the closing of Spanish friendship. Tomorrow England's fleet of eighty vessels meets the awful Spanish Armada in British waters. May God grant that England comes out victorious.

England
July 27, 1588.

Eight nights ago the Armada was discovered by the watchman on the English cliffs. And as it swept up the Channel seven miles in width from tip to tip of horn. The British ships only eighty in number advanced to meet it. And for seven long days and nights England has fought like mad. The seventh night five ships were sent amongst the Spanish boats and they were put to flight. England is mistress of the seas. God save the Queen!

The foregoing is an exact copy of what a third-year high-school girl wrote in connection with her work in English history. Of course the chronology is not quite straight throughout, but why object to such a minor defect in the first copy? How could a teacher hit upon a better way of determining whether a student was or was not keeping his chronology straight? The girl certainly got into the spirit of the history of the times and succeeded in saying what she had in mind in correct, concrete, and picturesque English.

The following is an example of a short theme written by a second-year high-school girl in connection with her work in Roman history.

FOOD AND UTENSILS—ROMAN

Private Life of
the Romans—
Johnston

The Romans ate an awful lot of fruit because it grew so plentiful in Rome. The reason it grew so plentiful there is because Rome is situated in a warm climate where there is plenty of rain and therefore there is good soil. They also had garden produce such as asparagus, beans, beets, cabbages and etc. The potato and tomato most highly prized by us was

unknown to the Romans. For meat the Romans ate beef, pork and goatflesh and also other domestic fowls and fish. Oysters were then just as common as they are today. Wheat was the staple grain grown for food. In the earliest times the grain was not ground but merely pounded in a mortar. The meal was then mixed with water and made into a sort of porridge, something like oatmeal. The grinding in the later times was done in a mill worked by a horse. After the grain was ground into flour, it was made into bread and sold at the bakeries. Next in importance of the wheat came the olive. These were eaten when ripe and were preserved in various ways. They also made oil from them. There were plenty of grapes in Rome and they were used mostly for making wine. This wine was made and stored away sometimes for centuries. The Romans ate three times a day as we do now. The Romans did not have near so many utensils as we have. They had large mixing bowls and drinking cups. Their spoons were very queer. They had long handles on them. They did not have any forks, but they had something with two prongs on it they used sometimes to pick up things with.¹

This theme was profusely illustrated, making the work on the whole very concrete. The history teacher can find little or no fault with history in it. Not so much, however, can be said for the English. Here is a splendid example of good history and poor English. In such a case it would surely be asking too much of the history teacher to iron out all the English defects. If such a demand were made, it would mean abandonment of the history in favor of English, which does not seem fair when it is more likely that this girl would get in the course of her high-school education twice as much exposure to English as to history.

¹ Written by a member of one of the high schools in New York City. A student in the same school also wrote the preceding example.

The following is another example of a short historical theme. In it one finds rather bad history and good English. On a careful grading this theme would probably be graded lower on history than the foregoing one, even though there is no comparison between the two in the matter of English.

THE CROWNING OF CHARLEMAGNE

All was silent. The great bell of the church of St. Peter in Rome, on Christmas day in 800 A.D., tolled the hour of worship, and in pairs, solitary, and in parties, the people swarmed into the great cathedral. One by one in their bright colored garments and with picturesque faces they asked blessing of the Pope, who sat at the front of the church on a huge, beautiful velvet chair, mounted on a tall platform. To each he bowed and they, in their turns, took places and prayed.

Suddenly a loud, high call sounded outside, and a large man with splendid physique and handsome face, with a long flowing beard of copper color, entered the church and knelt. He was simply dressed in bronze colored gown, fashioned with designs of dragons fighting, and wore on his head a soft white cap from which a long streamer extended down his back nearly to the floor. As he knelt there on the soft red cushion, with the sun, which streamed through the magnificent stained glass window, shining on his burnished copper hair, making it seem like an immense crown of gold, and with the soft lights from the various colored torches and candles of the church bringing out the simplicity yet striking appearance of his gown, one knew that he was a nobleman, strong and brave. He knelt for several minutes and then, looking neither to left nor right, proceeded down the aisle, two men following him carrying his sword and rich velvet robe.

As he came to the Pope, he raised his eyes to Heaven and crossed himself. Then falling on his knees and kissing the Pope's gorgeous robe he asked for blessing. At once the Pope recognized him. It was Charlemagne, the Great Emperor of the world. As he bent his head in prayer, the Pope drew forth a magnificently made crown of gold, set with diamonds and gold carving and studded with many other precious stones. Placing it on

Charlemagne's head, he stood up, and, in a loud clear voice, cried "Long live Charles Augustus, Emperor of the Romans."

The people in the church echoed and re-echoed the words and hundreds of voices were heard outside of the church singing and shouting. So Charlemagne was crowned on Christmas day, and the Roman empire of the West, which had fallen more than three hundred years before, was now restored.¹

The two following examples, an editorial and some letters, were written by members of a senior class in American history.² They show that it is possible to get a combination of correct history and satisfactory English.

1835

BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS

AN ABOLITIONIST EDITORIAL BY WILLIAM LLOYD
GARRISON

Just fifty-nine years ago our fathers announced to the world their Declaration of Independence, based on the self-evident truths of human equality and rights. This document appealed to arms for its defense, and by arms it was admirably defended. Today a condition exists which surpasses by far any which our fathers resisted. Their grievances were trifles compared with the wrongs and sufferings of negro slaves. Almost three score years ago men fought and died for Liberty. Today their own sons grind human flesh beneath their heels for money. A new enterprise, the abolition of slavery, is one without which that of our fathers is incomplete.

Our nation is bound to repent at once, to let the oppressed go free, to admit them to all the rights and privileges of others for many reasons.

If there are any inalienable rights, liberty is undoubtedly one of them. To hold that men can be excluded from the beneficent principles of free government because they are inferior to other men is a doctrine which strikes at the basis of free government in America. No man has the right to enslave his brother, no matter what his color may be, and no length of bondage can invalidate man's claims to himself. Slavery outrages the fundamental law of civilization.

¹ Cole, "Visualizing History," *Education*, XXXIV, 503 f.

² Taught by H. C. Hill, The University of Chicago High School.

It also makes nought the teachings of religion. Who is it that is authorized by the Almighty God to shut the negro from the Golden Rule, from the building up of his own character through the grace of God? If the negro is a hopeless pagan, incapable of civilization and of virtue, his presence is an unspeakable curse to the community. If he is a man who could respond to the divine truths, who made the white man his keeper?

Africa might be held responsible for the low morals of the slave, but it cannot be contradicted that slavery denies both Christianity and civilization when it breaks up families. How many mothers have seen their babies torn from their arms and sold to hard-eyed masters! And husbands and wives have no certainty that their marriage vows may not at any time be severed by the auction block. Sold apart, they are considered divorced, and so may marry again. Thus the marriage relation among negroes is very degraded, having a demoralizing effect on a large part of our country. To say that negroes "are themselves both perverse and comparatively indifferent about this matter,—the negroes forming those connections knowing the chances of their premature dissolution" is to admit the damaging charge that slave life paralyzes the natural family instincts even of the savage.

Another misfortune has been wrought by leaving the work to be done by the Africans. It has made labor disreputable all over the South. There is a large class of white people called "poor whites," not rich enough to live decently without work, yet disdain work because it places them on a level with negroes. They live a wretched, thriftless, hopeless existence. The rich whites, imperious masters, look down on them; the negroes with wealthy owners despise them; they are ignorant to a degree almost incredible in a "free" country like ours; and they are a class which never could exist in a community where honest labor is respected as it ought to be.

The negro himself is treated horribly in nine cases out of ten. His lot is especially hard on large plantations, where hired overseers, paid according to the number of bales of cotton they can produce, beat the blacks unmercifully, working under the theory that the negro will work under the lash or for fear of it. The backs of men and women and little children, ridged and scarred with the lash, illustrate the brutality of these "drivers." Negroes

have been beaten to death so often that it has been necessary to make a law forbidding killing them at the whipping post. Imagine a "civilization" that requires such measures! *And yet even this restraint is gotten around by making owners not responsible if their slaves die from "moderate correction!"*

The main argument in favor of slavery is that slaves do not want freedom. This is not true because all along the line dividing slave from free states, year after year the number of fugitives has been increasing. Under all apparent content is a terrible discontent which, in a race of more bloodthirsty nature than these peaceable Africans, would be deadly in its outbreak. And there is already too much blood of the white race in the faces of these bond-servants to make good chattels of them.

One example of how a slave resisted the Fugitive Slave Law, (forcing any citizen to seize and return a fugitive) may be cited to show the new spirit of the negroes. Margaret Garner, a mulatto slave girl, had two children, both very white and fair. For the obvious reasons I have named, Margaret did not want to stay in slavery, and so she ran away with her children. They hid in the house of a free negro, but were soon tracked to their hiding place by Margaret's master and a force of men he had brought with him. The door was barred, but the officers battered it down and got in. When they entered, there stood Margaret Garner between the bodies of her two children, holding a knife in her hand. She had cut their throats with her own hand, and said she would rather have them dead than taken back to slavery. Margaret loved her babies, and wept when she told how pretty they were. But she never was sorry she had killed them, for she knew what she had saved them from.

The Fugitive Slave Law must be subjected to a higher law, the Law of God, giving human beings the right to life and liberty. No longer shall one man, made a brute by the power given him, subject hundreds of his brothers to a serfdom that outrages all the God-given rights of human liberty that our fathers fought to defend. Free these down-trodden fellow-men! Carry on the work of our fathers who died for liberty!

DOWN THE MISSISSIPPI ON A FLAT BOAT

FROM THE LETTERS OF JAMES RALDON

June 3, 1788

My dear Parents :

We are now preparing for our Mississippi trip, and have just finished building our boat. I am enclosing you a picture of the crude affair which nevertheless fits our purpose nicely. My dear Mother, how you would laugh were you to see your son who in the east had the habit of dressing quite handsomely, clad in a flannel shirt of red, a blue jerkin, fitted loosely and brown trousers of the coarsest texture. Indeed this is the fashion in which we dress. My cap is of untanned skin and instead of boots I, like all my companions, wear moccasins. My hunting knife and tobacco pouch hang from a leather belt which I wear around my waist, and quite naturally a revolver is always in my pocket.

Our boat is rather sturdy and well accomodates our party and materials. I am quite curious to begin the journey as the men who have made previous trips are very enthusiastic.

I will close now and I send to you, my dear parents, much love from

Your obedient son,

James Raldon

June 6, 1788

Dearest Mother :

I received your last letter just before we left on our trip. The weather has been delightful. As yet we have stopped no place. Our day is spent quite pleasantly, however, as "Prima Donna George," as the honorable Mr. Forest is nicknamed, has entertained us quite nobly with his many ditties, and old Bob Krundle is handy at the "fiddle." We sit on the deck and make merry. Our meals are fair; good and plenty for ordinary boatmen. The men say I don't act a particle like an easterner and indeed they are greatly interested in my college life and society in Philadelphia. Tom Johnson deems me quite wonderful because I have shaken hands with General Washington, and actually dined with Sam Adams. But my staunchest and most intimate friend is Charles

Gately, a fellow nearly forty, who claims I have "grit" for a boy of twenty, to come here when I don't have to.

Well, dear Mother, we are going to land in a few minutes and so I shall have to terminate my letter. I will write you again as soon as possible. Give my love to Father and take much for yourself from,

Your respectful son,

James Raldon

June 29, 1788

My dear Parents :

I am so sorry that I am unable to receive letters from you but as we are always moving it is impossible. Since I last saw you I have had many interesting experiences. At Cahokia we had a fine sale, but few other places have greatly desired our wares. After leaving Cahokia, however, we met another boat of our type pinned on a planter. Stopping we asked if we could be of assistance and indeed they were delighted to accept our aid as they had been in distress for many hours. We landed and then helped to set the boat loose. After toiling for probably three hours we succeeded in our task and indeed our friends were appreciative.

That was our first experience of the kind but the other men said that such occurrences were common and that we would probably encounter one before our trip was ended. One night sometime later, we stopped, landed, and camped in the forest. We had heard that the district was inhabited by about sixty-five thousand Indians, and so one man kept watch with a rifle, and was ordered to awaken the entire camp at any suspicion of Indians. The watch was changed at twelve o'clock in the night, the first part of the evening passing peacefully. But about two o'clock in the morning we were awakened. "Strange sounds in the trees" we were warned. All armed, we waited silently. Again the peculiar noise was audible. Next we distinguished the sound of stealthy footsteps; outwardly I was calm, but every nerve was tense and although I did not actually fear the Indians I was agitated and nervous. The great question, which of course we were unable to answer, was how many Indians were there. A moment or two of silence elapsed. Then with a rush our camp

was attacked by panthers. Later we learned they were not really panthers but what are known and termed as "wild-cats." With little difficulty and in an exceedingly short time the beasts were slain, and therefore our experiences so far with Indians have been quite mild.

When I reach New Orleans I will write how you will be able to write or meet me if you wish. Until then may providence guard you.

Much love from your ever obedient and respectful son,
James Raldon

AN IMAGINARY LETTER FROM HENRY CLAY TO
JOHN C. CALHOUN

Ghent, the Netherlands
February 1, 1815

John C. Calhoun, M.C.
Washington, D.C., U.S.A.

Dear Sir :

By the time this epistle reaches you the treaty, which our commission, after much delay, succeeded in wresting from the British commissioners, will perhaps have been ratified or rejected by the Senate. I trust the former will be the case.

Although the treaty does not provide for the abolition of these outrages by which we were driven to war, yet the respect for our nation, which the memory of our victorious commands will enhance will doubtless prevent their repetition. The Orders in Council have been repealed and I am confident that with Napoleon's downfall, which must come shortly, interference with our trade and impressment of our seamen will cease.

As desirable as was war and honor three years ago, much more to be desired today is peace, if it can be obtained without dishonor. Recent reports from the various states, telling of the distress due to our blockaded ports and interrupted commerce, have so alarmed the commission that even I, whom Randolph called a "war hawk," am willing to accept a treaty which guarantees peace alone. I sincerely hope that you have not or will not use your influence to defeat its ratification or to embarrass its drafters.

Mr. Adams has returned to Russia to resume his post. The remainder of the commission, Messrs. Bayard, Gallatin, Russell, and myself are awaiting word of the Senate's action before returning home.

Your fellow-countryman,

H. Clay¹

The foregoing are enough examples to give the history teacher a concrete notion of a number of types of written work. There is a kind, however, which it will not be feasible to illustrate with an example because of its varied nature. This is blackboard work in a multitude of forms. The reader will recall that Miss Thorndyke in her assignment always made provision for blackboard work to which some time in most class periods was devoted. Attention has also been called to the use of the blackboard in teaching pupils to make outlines. Another kind of blackboard work is the short-paragraph recitation written on the board, without the use of notes, on topics announced by the teacher which may or may not have been previously assigned. This type of work gives more pupils an opportunity to recite as well as affords valuable training in written expression. Furthermore, when the board work is criticized by the class, the principle of unity is maintained just as it is in oral reciting.

The practical thing for a teacher to do in preparing for this sort of work is to make a definite list of diagrams and similar material suitable for blackboard reproduction in each field of history he teaches. References where these diagrams can be found should accompany this list. For example, if the teacher desired to have the plan of a Greek home reproduced on the blackboard, material for it can be found in Breasted's *Ancient Times*, p. 456, and in West's *Ancient World*, p. 231. There has been published recently a rather extensive list of diagrams in each field of high-school history suitable

¹ Williams, "Standards for Judging Instruction in History," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VI, 239.

for blackboard reproduction. It is too long to reproduce here. Those interested in this matter will find the list with exact references in the *History Teacher's Magazine*, VIII, 253 ff.

THE PROBLEM OF ENGLISH

As soon as the history teacher decides that the formal written work shall have an important place in the general scheme of making up final grades, the problem of English forces itself to the front. The two questions that he must answer at the outset are: Must the history teacher be responsible for the English in the written work in history? and Shall the pupil who does good formal written work from the standpoint of history but poor from the standpoint of English receive a low grade in history? If the history teacher answers each of these two questions in the negative, some arrangement would need to be made with the English department so that he would grade the history in a given paper and the English teacher the English. If such an adjustment could be made, as the teacher of history he would emphasize content rather than form. For him, the thing said would be of chief concern and not the way it was said. It would be possible for a pupil under such a scheme to make a relatively high grade in history even though his grade in English were low. He might pass in his history but fail in his English.

Another solution of this same problem has been suggested.¹ This, however, involves a complete reorganization of the high-school English course, as follows: Instead of having the pupil spend four years in classes in English, as he now does, reduce this time to about two years, giving him a course in form, much practice in paragraph and sentence structure, some history of literature, and a few literary masterpieces to develop appreciation. The time saved by adopting this scheme would be given to the teaching of history, sciences, commercial and industrial subjects. The teachers of these branches would in

¹ Judd, *Psychology of High-School Subjects*, p. 210.

reality become English teachers, simply applying what had been taught in the English department. Such an economy would be in harmony with the idea that the pupil and not the subject taught is the center of gravity in all courses in the high school.

While history teachers are waiting for the actual realization of the reforms required to inaugurate the plan outlined above, they will have either to overlook the mistakes in English made by the pupils in writing history papers, or, with the consent of the principal, and the coöperation of the English department, form a combination course made up of history and English. Such a course if inaugurated could be taught by one or two teachers. The two-teacher plan as worked out in the Mary C. Wheeler School, Providence, Rhode Island, is briefly described as follows by one of the originators:

The time set apart for Ancient History and English in a given year has been reduced from seven to five periods a week; two of these five recitations are conducted by the teacher of English, three by the teacher of history; all of the reading done in connection with the English work is made tributary to the course in history; the use of correct English in speech and writing is as much a requirement for the history class as is a knowledge of certain historical facts. In both classes a definite effort is made to develop the ability to read rapidly, discriminatingly, and thoughtfully. The year's work as a whole must satisfy the demands of both departments for the required work of the given year. . . .

In all the work in history a constant effort is made to put in practice the principles of English in which the pupil has been trained, by insisting that oral and written recitations be made in good form, that complete sentences be used, and that ideas be accurately expressed. The pupils are encouraged to make a conscious effort to enlarge their vocabularies by studying the meaning and derivation of new words and by making a point of using them. The study of paragraph structure, begun in the previous year, is carried on both in reading and in writing. Outlines are made, sometimes in class, sometimes as outside work. Written

work is corrected by the English teacher or by the history teacher, or by both. In any case, it is corrected for both English form and historical accuracy.¹

On the face of it this scheme seems worth trying out. In all probability the pupils will receive as much real education in one year through such a combination as in two years under the present segregated plan. There are, however, connected with the project certain administrative obstacles, such as finding something for the history teacher to do while the English teacher is teaching the class, and vice versa. One way to overcome such an obstacle is to make one teacher responsible for all the instruction whether in history or English. This plan has been successfully tried out in the J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois. Third-year English is merged with American history, and a combined course of composition, English literature, and English history is given in the fourth year. One teacher is responsible for all the work in each of these courses. Some idea of what is done in the course in the third year may be gained from a general account of a week's work.

A week's work in this course [third-year English-American history] is as follows : assignments in the history text ; collateral reading in secondary books of history of a minimum of twenty-five pages ; literature assignments which use the history as a background, equivalent to about fifty pages ; and written work, which consists of writing up oral reports given in the daily class work. Each pupil reports orally to the class on subjects not treated in the text-book. Some forty or fifty of these reports are given each month by the class, and this makes a minimum demand on the pupil of two reports a month. Two reports a day on the average are given in class. The reports are always sure to be listened to because of the new material they contain ; and, furthermore, interest is almost coerced because each pupil is required to take notes on these reports and expand the notes into paragraphs or outlines for the

¹ Hobson, "Co-operation between Ancient History and English," *School Review*, XXV, 481, 483.

notebook. The teacher scans the notebook with the same care which he gives the other written work of the department. Besides the writing up of the notes from the pupil reports in class, three 700-1000-word themes on collateral subjects are required each semester.¹

The two plans described above, assuring as they do the proper attention to both English and to history in all written work done in connection with history instruction, are worthy of imitation and adoption by other schools. Should neither of them be feasible, there is still another plan which the history teacher might use requiring only the coöperation of the English teacher for its success. In brief it is this: In English classes specializing on short themes, let the history teacher supply a certain proportion of the subjects; also in a class specializing in debating, let the history teacher furnish some of the subjects for the debates. Such coöperation would assure the English teacher a supply of real and vital subjects for her pupils on which to write and to debate. It would also reënforce the history work and make the pupils feel that some practical use of their historical knowledge could be made. The following are some topics in Greek history which might be used for short themes: "A Day in a Spartan School," "A Day as an Athenian Boy," "A Day as an Athenian Matron," "My March with Alexander the Great," "When I Won the Race at Olympia," and "What I Saw at Delphi."² Under such a plan as this, the history teacher would also need to carry on other types of written work independently of the English department, since theme-writing is but one of the many types of written work to be done in connection with history instruction.

¹ Church, "An Experiment in Third-Year English," *School Review*, XXV, 492.

² Monro, "Theme Subjects from Greek History," *History Teacher's Magazine*, V, 252.

ADDITIONAL READING MATTER

- CHURCH, H. V. "An Experiment in Third-Year English," *School Review*, XXV (1917), 488 ff.
- COLE, MARION C. "Visualizing History," *Education*, XXXIV (1914), 501 ff.
- HOBSON, ELSIE G. "Co-operation between Ancient History and English," *School Review*, XXV (1917), 480 ff.
- MONRO, KATE M. "Theme Subjects from Greek History," *History Teacher's Magazine*, V (1914), 252 f.
- WILLIAMS, O. H. "Standards for judging Instruction in History," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VI (1915), 235 ff.
- WUESTHOFF, W. W. "Blackboard Work in History Teaching," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VIII (1917), 253 ff.

CHAPTER VII

THE TERM PAPER AND THE PERMANENT NOTEBOOK

Closely related to the written work discussed in the preceding chapter are the term paper and the permanent notebook, the former being the culminating product of all written work and the latter a sort of repository for all work of a permanent nature. Because of its closer relation to the subject matter in Chapter VI, the term paper will be considered first.

THE TERM PAPER

As discussed in this chapter the term paper is quite an elaborate piece of work done according to scientific procedure in the application of the historical method. Since it is to be a sort of summing up of the historical training that a pupil has received, it should not be attempted before the last half of the eleventh year. Preferably the paper should be written in connection with the work in American history usually begun in the twelfth year, and, since it is to be a scientific and a somewhat elaborate undertaking, it will be necessary for the teacher to give the students rather specific instructions for preparing it. If possible a copy similar to the following should be placed in the hands of each member of the class.

DIRECTIONS FOR THE PREPARATION OF A TERM PAPER

I. Reading and note-taking.

1. Having decided upon your topic in consultation with the instructor, begin actual work on it by reading some general accounts such as you will find in an encyclopedia, a

- historical dictionary, or an elaborate treatment of the field in which your topic lies. Make an information outline of each general account you read.
2. Make a list of the references you find in doing your general reading. Encyclopedia articles often have valuable lists following the discussions. Other general accounts may include reference material in footnotes or in the general bibliography at the end of the chapter or book.
 3. Begin your serious reading on any one of the references you now have on your subject. Continue until your list has been exhausted.
 4. As you read your references secured in your preliminary survey you will find others. List all of these for future use. Continue this until you have finished your reading.
 5. In reading an individual reference, first glance through the entire discussion. Next, fix in your mind the big points discussed. Decide upon a name for each of these. Let these names form the basis of your note-taking on the reference. If you decide, upon glancing through the reference, that it contains nothing on your topic which you do not already have, give it no further attention.
 6. Take your notes on sheets of paper of a convenient size. Write on but one side. Place but one note on each page. Write the subject of the note at the top and the reference at the bottom, using the last name of the author, title in abbreviated form, volume, and page.
 7. Before leaving a reference on which you have taken notes secure your complete bibliographical data, including author's full name, full title of the work, date and place of publication, volumes in the series and the volume you have used, and edition. Write this information on a separate card. You may later want to use it in your permanent bibliography. If your bibliography is to be annotated, write your annotation on the card at the time you make it out.
 8. In taking your notes you may paraphrase, quote directly, summarize, or outline. The first and second of these forms will prove of most value when you come to write your paper. Occasionally thoughts will come to

you on the subject when reading a reference; if they do, do not neglect to jot them down. If in paraphrasing you write out in the best English at your command just what you think you will later say in your paper, you can often incorporate it bodily.

9. All notes should, of course, be legible. Great care should be taken in this respect, especially with direct quotations, where spelling, punctuation, and capitalization must be exactly as they are in the matter quoted. To make sure of this on finishing your copy always check it against the original.

II. Organizing and writing.

1. On finishing your reading or when the time is nearing for the outline of your paper to be submitted to the instructor, go through your notes and classify them. They will be likely to fall into three or four large groups. If it now appears that you are short of material in any one group, center the remainder of your reading upon it.
2. Make a guidance outline containing as many subtopics as your notes will justify. Arrange your notes in each main division in the same order as your subtopics.
3. With your outline of the first chief division before you, as well as your notes on it properly arranged, write the draft of this part of your paper. Repeat this procedure for each main section.
4. Form for completed paper.
 - a. On the first page write nothing but the title and your name.
 - b. On the second page give a brief foreword or preface. In this state what you have tried to accomplish in your paper, your point of view, special difficulties you have encountered, and any other matters of like character.
 - c. On the page following the preface repeat the title; skip a line and begin the body of the paper.
 - d. Place the bibliography last. Include in it only references actually used in the preparation of your paper and arrange them in alphabetic order.

III. Some footnote reference technic.

1. *What should appear in footnotes.* All material unnecessary to the general continuity of the narrative should appear in footnotes, if used in your paper. This material includes explanations of a certain type, illustrations in the form of concrete descriptions, additional facts, and statements of different views on a matter in dispute.
2. *When to use the abbreviation for page and pages.* Use "p." for "page" and "pp." for "pages" if the book is a one-volume publication. If there is more than one volume, it is unnecessary to use either. EXAMPLES: Dodd, *Expansion and Conflict*, p. 62; Roosevelt; *Winning of the West*, I, 317.
3. *How to punctuate the titles of books.* The order of details is: author's family name, followed by a comma; title of the book, underscored; number and date of edition in parenthesis, if desired, followed by a comma; reference to volume and page, followed by a period. EXAMPLE: Kalm, *Travels into North America* (2d ed., 1772), II, 69.
4. *How to punctuate the titles of articles.* The order of details is: family name of the author of the article, followed by a comma; title of the article, quoted, and followed by a comma; name of the publication in which the article appears, underscored and followed by a comma; reference to volume followed by date in parenthesis; comma; page followed by a period. EXAMPLE: Curtis, "The Place of Sacrifice," *Biblical World*, XXI (1902), 208.
5. *The meaning and use of "f." and "ff." and "pp." in connection with them.* "Pp. 8 f." means page 8 and the following page (in other words, pages 8 and 9); "pp. 10 ff." refers to page 10 and the following pages (in other words, pages 10, 11, 12, and as many more as contain any of the material to which the reference applies). EXAMPLES: Abbott, *Women in Industry*, pp. 38 f.; Drake, *Pioneer Life in Kentucky*, pp. 60 ff. If you desire to show that you have used all the material on certain pages, do not use "f." or "ff.," but do it thus: pp. 82-84, which means pages 82 to 84 inclusive.

6. *When not to repeat the author's name and the title of the work in the footnote.* If the author's name is mentioned in the body of your paper, it is not necessary to repeat it in the footnote; or if both author and title are included in the body of your paper, neither should appear in the reference. **EXAMPLES:** If you have such an expression in the body of your paper as "Channing, in his *History of the United States*, claims that," the footnote would be "Vol. III, 62." Or if you should use the assertion "Smith, in her *Colonial Days and Ways*, declares," the footnote would be either "p. 62," "pp. 62 f.," "pp. 62 ff.," or "pp. 62-65," depending upon the length of the quotation.
7. *The meaning and use of the abbreviations "ibid.," "ib.," "id."* "Ibid." and "ib." are abbreviations of the Latin *ibidem*, meaning "in the same place," "at the place," or "in the book already mentioned." They are used in order to avoid the repetition of a reference. "Id." is an abbreviation of the Latin word *idem*, meaning "the same," "the same as above, or before." Of the three "ibid." is most frequently employed. It is used when each succeeding title is the same as the next preceding one. **EXAMPLE:**
- ¹ *Am. State Papers*, "Finance," II, 432.
² Ibid. p. 435.
³ Ibid. p. 427.
8. *The meaning and use of the abbreviations "op. cit." and "loc. cit."* "Op. cit." is an abbreviation of the Latin phrase *opere citato*, meaning "in the work cited"; and "loc. cit." is an abbreviation of the Latin phrase *loco citato*, meaning "in the place (previously) cited." "Op. cit." is most commonly used. When a title is mentioned on one page and you desire to mention it again two or three or more pages in advance, use "op. cit." instead of repeating the title. **EXAMPLE:** If the reference "Coxe, *A View of the United States*, pp. 49 f." was used on page 9 of your paper and you wish to cite the same book on page 15, you would use "Coxe, op. cit. p. 52" and thus avoid a useless repetition.

IV. The complete bibliography.

1. Confine your bibliography to the titles actually used in working up your paper.
2. Arrange alphabetically by authors.
3. Annotate the references that give unusual or unique treatments of the topic.
4. The order of details for each title is: author's full name or initials, followed by a period; the title of the work, underscored and followed by a period; number of volumes if more than one, followed by a period; place of publication followed by a comma; and date of publication followed by a period. This same order holds for an article, the name of the publication taking the place of the book and the article being quoted.

EXAMPLES:

- a. Olmstead, F. L. *A Journey in the Back Country*. New York, 1860.
- b. Vogel, William. "Home Life in Early Indiana," *Indiana Magazine of History*, Vol. X, Nos. 2 and 3. Bloomington, Ind., 1914.

This rather long list of directions should not be given to the students in its entirety at the outset. The last two sections should not be given out until their contents have been developed inductively in the class. The last section, however, should be placed in the hands of the student before he does much on his paper, so that he will know just what bibliographical data to collect. Since section three will not actually be needed until the pupil is ready to begin the writing of his paper, some attention should be given to it about once a week until all the items have been discussed. If this plan is followed, the rules will not seem formal and their application will give no serious difficulties.

The steps in the preparation of the term paper have been outlined elsewhere and need not be repeated here.¹ Something, however, should be said about selecting suitable subjects for

¹ Pp. 112 f.

the paper. It is obvious, of course, that it is folly to assign subjects on which there is no available material. Granting that the material is at hand, topics should be definite, clearly stated, admit of concrete treatment, have a rather definite beginning and ending, and not extend over too long a period of time. The following list of topics actually used by a class in American history meets most of these requirements.

1. The Defense of the Alamo.
2. The Religion of the Slaves.
3. The Invention of the Telegraph.
4. Jackson's Kitchen Cabinet.
5. The Oregon Trail.
6. The McCormick Reaper.
7. The Sante Fe Trail.
8. Early American Prisons.
9. The Discovery of Gold in California.
10. Food and Table Manners a Century Ago.
11. Early Systems of Labor in the United States.
12. Old-Time Schools.
13. The Peggy Eaton Affair.
14. The Origin of Star-Spangled Banner.
15. The Birth of a Nation (Founding of Liberia).
16. The Battle of Bladensburg and the Burning of Washington.
17. Intemperance in America One Hundred Years Ago.
18. Early Stagecoaches.
19. Wildcat Banking.
20. The Panic of 1837.
21. Customs and Manners a Century Ago.
22. Early Steamboats on the Atlantic.
23. The Steamboat.
24. Labor Conditions a Century Ago.
25. Negro Amusements on a Southern Plantation.

Some excellent papers should result from these or similar subjects. Even though many of the papers are meritorious, few of them as a rule should be read in class, because the paper itself is an individual and not a class product. It is well,

of course, to use the material in some of the papers in the form of special reports as the course progresses, whenever this is possible. This takes for granted, however, that the accounts are of vital interest and importance to the work of the day on which they are given.

THE NOTEBOOK IN HISTORY TEACHING

The notebook in history teaching has had an interesting career. Generally speaking, history teachers imitated the science teachers in adopting it as a regular feature of their work. The scientific spirit that was injected into history during the last two decades of the nineteenth century resulted in the source method when taken down into the high school. The source method could not be employed successfully on this level without considerable use of the permanent notebook. Seeing the utilization of the notebook in connection with teaching history by the source method, the advocates of the topical method soon discovered that it would be a valuable adjunct to their teaching, so they, too, quite universally adopted it. In fact, it finally came to pass that only those old-fashioned teachers who still taught by the page-by-page and chapter-by-chapter textbook method found no use for the notebook in their teaching. Hence, as the situation now stands, it is probably true that a substantial majority of high-school history teachers require their students to keep some kind of a notebook in connection with their history work.

Even though the notebook is quite generally employed in high-school history teaching, there are certain disadvantages or evils connected with its use which should be brought to the attention even of its most ardent supporters. Chief among these are (1) frequently time which might be better spent is wasted in copying material for the notebook; (2) too much dependence is placed on the notebook; in other words, pupils are likely to feel that if they have a thing in their notebook there is no need of actually learning it; (3) properly to grade

and check up notebook work takes too much of the teacher's time and energy; (4) pupils are likely to learn the mechanics of notebook-making rather than the substance of history; (5) the work often degenerates into mere copying; (6) if too detailed, notebook work tends to deaden the work in history; (7) there is danger of notebook work becoming formal and degenerating into mere drudgery; (8) too often the notebook when finished contains very little or nothing of permanent value; (9) the notebook is too often prepared for the teacher's benefit rather than the pupil's. In justice to the use of the notebook in studying history it should be said that none of these disadvantages or evils is inherent in it, but that they all result from the abuse and the misuse of a tool which has numerous potential values.

On looking at the other side of the question one discovers that there are certain advantages claimed for the history notebook which largely offset the disadvantages. Some of these benefits as given by high-school teachers themselves are (1) it aids in crystallizing, classifying, and organizing material; (2) it is especially valuable for review; (3) it develops such habits as order, promptness, neatness, accuracy, and definiteness in history work; (4) it helps in differentiating the important from the unimportant points, thus developing the power to evaluate material; (5) pupils themselves say that the history notebook is one of the most helpful devices used by the teacher to cause them to appreciate and understand history; (6) it gives an additional avenue for expressing ideas, namely, the motor, and is, therefore, a great aid to the motor-minded individuals, causing them to take more interest in the subject.¹ From these statements of experienced teachers it will be seen that a notebook, if wisely used, can be made a valuable adjunct to high-school history teaching. The advantages seem to outweigh the disadvantages; in other words,

¹ Gold, "Methods and Content of Courses in History in the High Schools of the United States," *School Review*, XXV, 274.

there seem to be no drawbacks or evils that cannot be overcome by skillful use. Granting the truth of this statement, there remains but one conclusion, namely, that the keeping of a permanent notebook by each student in connection with his history work is a worth-while thing to do and should become a practice in all high-school history teaching. It should never become an end in itself, however, but should always be kept subordinated to the acquisition of historical knowledge and to the securing of mental training along historical lines.

Inexperienced teachers are sometimes uncertain as to the types of material that should appear in the notebook. Before any great amount of assistance can be given them in this matter, some understanding will have to be reached as to the exact meaning of the term "notebook." As used in this discussion the permanent history notebook implies a depository for that part of the student's daily historical activities which are expressed in the form of written exercises, maps, sketches, diagrams, etc., which may or may not come before his teacher's eye and which he, himself, retains for reference or review at least until the end of the course. With this as a working definition, the following exercises might well be included in a worth-while history notebook: maps and chronological outlines or charts; notes on lectures given by the teacher and reports given by other members of the class; biographical sketches; special tabulations and comparisons; short and long themes; reference lists; test and examination papers; briefs; guidance and information outlines; notes taken in class other than those on lectures and reports; summaries of periods; text analyses; special dictations by the teacher; graphs, diagrams, and plans; lists of important dates-events; lists of historical personages; notes on collateral reading; statistical tables, cartoons, pictures, and drawings; and edited newspaper and magazine clippings of a historical character. With this list before him the beginning teacher need not hesitate about what to have placed in the permanent notebook in history.

There is, however, another fact which he must keep in mind in selecting from this list those he expects to emphasize in each class. This is no other than the threefold purpose underlying all permanent notebook work in history, which is, stated briefly, for acquisition, for expression, and for reference. Now, if the teacher desires to emphasize acquisition in a particular course, he will select the notebook exercises with this form of activity in mind; or if he desires to emphasize each of the three about equally, he will select his material accordingly. For example, if the teacher's aim is to have his pupils acquire facts and framework, he will emphasize charts, chronological tables, lists of important dates, graphs, maps, plans, digests, notes on lectures, reports, and collateral reading; if his desire is to accentuate expression, chief attention will be given to summaries of periods or topics, themes, term reports, and biographical sketches; and, finally, if his purpose is to have a notebook mainly for reference, he will stress records of collateral reading done, book lists, assignments, elaborate bibliographies, and the like. It will be observed that the second of these three is a higher and more difficult performance than either of the other two. The exercises for expression should therefore be carefully graded and adapted to the varying degrees of intellectual maturity of the students in the different classes. To be specific, one would not ask the sophomores to write the term paper contemplated in this chapter, but would demand of them short themes and summaries.

The question is sometimes asked by inexperienced history teachers, "What is the best form for a history notebook?" There is, of course, no *best* form. The thing to do in determining this matter is to use the form best adapted to the class and the work required of it. The most satisfactory notebooks ever kept by a high-school class taught by the writer were books of all shapes and sizes, the pupils being left entirely to their own choice as to the form to be used. While this plan

secured originality, interest, enthusiasm, thoroughness, and accuracy, a loose-leaf notebook of a convenient size would probably have attained the same results if properly managed. Since there is no satisfactory ready-made history notebook on the market as there is in physics, chemistry, and general science, the only thing left for the teacher is to have his pupils use a form of his own choice, which should be inexpensive, convenient, and preferably loose-leaf made up of No. 6 unruled paper.

If, in a large high school, uniformity is desired in the matter of keeping history notebooks, it will be necessary to formulate specific directions relative to their construction just as in the case of the term paper. The following instructions to students and teachers concerning the use of the notebook in history study at one time employed in the Sioux City High School, Sioux City, Iowa, will serve to illustrate what is meant here:

INSTRUCTIONS TO STUDENTS AND TEACHERS RELATIVE TO THE USE OF THE NOTEBOOK IN HISTORY STUDY

- I. Each student in the History department is required to have a Sioux City High School History Notebook.
 1. For sale in the High School Book Shop.
 2. Notebook covers cost 10 cents.
 3. Filler, fifty sheets, costs 10 cents.
- II. The notebook work will count $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent, the recitation $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent, and the test $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent in determining the student's grade for a six weeks' period.
- III. All writing in the notebook must be done in ink.
- IV. The outline form of notes is recommended—that is, condensing the material read into short sentences, clauses, etc. under topical headings.
- V. Material to be placed in the notebook:
 1. An outline of all special reports given in class.
 - a. The heading for the report should contain the subject and number, references read, and name of student giving report.

2. An outline of the most important points made in the recitation.
3. An outline of the collateral reading required by the instructor.
4. All maps, charts, art drawings, newspaper clippings, etc. that may be required by the instructor.

VI. What the notebook should show :

1. Intelligent reading and organization.
2. Good English, spelling, and penmanship.
3. Uniform margins about one and one-half inches in width.
4. Neat topical headings or subdivisions indicated by Roman numerals.
5. The reference subject and references placed on the first and second lines of the sheet.
 - a. Reference should include title of book, author, volume, and pages read.
 - b. Subject and references may be written in red ink or underscored for emphasis.

VII. Greek History students should outline important parts of the textbook in place of the collateral reading mentioned in V.

VIII. Since the value of notebook work depends quite largely upon careful supervision by the instructor, it is recommended :

1. That the notebooks be inspected by instructor at least twice each six weeks.
2. That an O. K. or criticism be placed on the notebooks at the first inspection.
3. That a grade be placed on the notebook at the second inspection.
4. That a grade of F on the notebook means a condition in that subject.
5. The condition must be removed within one week following the grading.

IX. Suggestive weekly amounts of collateral reading are as follows :

1. Greek History (last six weeks), 10 pages.
2. Roman History, 10 to 15 pages.
3. Medieval History, 20 to 25 pages.

4. Modern History, 25 to 30 pages.
5. English History, 30 to 35 pages.
6. American History, 35 to 40 pages.
7. Civics, 35 to 40 pages.
8. Economics, 35 to 40 pages.
- X. The collateral reading will vary somewhat with the period under consideration and the manner in which the textbook is used.
- XI. Frequent reviews of the notebook work should be made by the student under the direction of the instructor.
- XII. Liberal credit is allowed for the notebook work, since it is an essential part of History study.
- XIII. Many of the better universities are requiring the high-school notebook as an entrance condition.
- XIV. The complete set of notes must be handed in to the instructor, who will return the same to the student at the close of the following semester.
- XV. An exception to XIV is made in the case of graduates.

Whether or not one agrees with each point in the foregoing instructions, one must acknowledge the fact that they represent an effort in the right direction. For if notebook work is worth doing, it is worth doing well and should have reasonable recognition. In a large high school where students are frequently changing from one teacher to another there is undeniably a need for the same uniformity in the matter of notebooks that is found in textbooks and examinations.

There remains to be discussed in connection with the notebook, and all written work for that matter, the problem of grading, an unpleasant subject to overworked history teachers and very unpleasant to the unprepared ones, since so much of their time is consumed in keeping in advance of the class. Some teachers try to solve this problem by short-cut methods, such as oral quizzes on notebook work.¹ Short-cut methods are all right in their place, but there is no royal road to the grading of notebook and written work in history. The practical

¹ Whitlow, "The History Notebook," *History Teacher's Magazine*, IX, 205.

plan for the well-prepared and conscientious teacher to follow is to have his pupils do in written form just what he has time to grade and no more. Let the grading be done with care, especially as it relates to the history in the notes. Let the pupils understand that the grade on their notebook and written work will count a specific amount in the determination of their final grades. The Sioux City, Iowa, proportion mentioned above is not bad, provided enough written work is done to justify it. If the written work is graded from day to day and a record kept of it, the burden does not become an accumulating one. To leave the grading of all written work done in six weeks until the end of the period means that it will not be graded properly because of the teacher's temporal and physical limitations.

ADDITIONAL READING MATTER

- ARMSTRONG, R. D. "The History Notebook in Secondary Schools," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VII (1916), 277 ff.
- GOLD, H. H. "Methods and Content of Courses in History in the High Schools of the United States," *School Review*, XXV (1917), 274 ff.
- LEFFLER, SHEPHERD. "Constructive Notebook Work in History," *Indiana University Bulletin*, Vol. XIII, No. 10, pp. 14 ff. Bloomington, Ind., 1915.
- LYBYER, ALBERT H. "The Use and Abuse of Notebooks in the Teaching of History," *Proceedings of the North Central History Teachers' Association*, pp. 15 ff., 1910.
- PEARSE, J. E. "The Use of the Notebook in High School History," *Texas History Teacher's Bulletin*, Vol. II, No. 1 (November 15, 1913), pp. 7 ff.
- SMITH, MARY S. "Directions for History Work in the History Department of Meredith College, N. C.," *History Teacher's Magazine*, I (1909), 90.
- SULLIVAN, JAMES. "Notebooks and Readings," *History Teacher's Magazine*, II (1911), 227 ff.
- WHITLOW, C. M. "The History Notebook," *History Teacher's Magazine*, IX (1918), 205.

CHAPTER VIII

MEASURING THE RESULTS OF HISTORY TEACHING

History teachers have always measured the results of their teaching in one way or another. The system of grading and promotion which is such an integral part of the organization of every school has forced them to do this. The most efficient way, however, to test the results of their efforts has ever remained a puzzling problem with well-meaning and conscientious individuals. The formal written examination at stated intervals has been the instrument used in most cases. To this mode of measuring the results of instruction in history, however, there have recently appeared many objectors, most of whom are engaged in phases of educational work other than the teaching of history. These individuals desire some sort of what they term standardized tests to determine objectively the results of instruction in history. Inasmuch as the traditional history examination still remains the most prevalently used method of testing in a formal way the results of one's teaching and since standardized tests are likely to play an important rôle in the future, it seems appropriate to give these phases of a history teacher's work a separate consideration.

THE HISTORY EXAMINATION

As used in this discussion the history examination means a formal written exercise performed by each member of a class in which specific answers are put down to questions set by the teacher. In actual practice these exercises occur once a month, once every six weeks, on finishing certain big topics.

or divisions of the course, and at the end of the year or semester. They can be justified on the grounds that, if properly managed, they give a splendid motive for reviewing the subject, furnish a basis for promotion, find their counterpart in everyday life, and serve as a test of the efficiency of the teacher's own work.

While the history examination can be justified on the foregoing grounds, there are certain adverse criticisms of it in its traditional form and the manner of giving it which deserve some attention. For example, it has been said that the customary manner of giving a history examination causes the pupil to waste much valuable time in reviewing unnecessary and unimportant material and to gamble on the questions the teacher is likely to ask. In the second place, it is asserted that the examination disappoints and discourages the pupil, when, after making a thorough and painstaking preparation for it, he makes a low grade because he failed to anticipate correctly the questions the teacher asks him. Other adverse criticisms are that memory is emphasized at the expense of doing and reasoning; that no confidence can be placed in the results because history grades vary so widely when made up by different teachers; that in most cases the examination is unfair both to the pupil and to the teacher; that it lacks sufficient incentive for thorough preparation; and that, as a rule, its approach is dreaded by the pupils.¹

In all probability the shortcomings of the history examination have been unduly emphasized by its objectors; for example, the charge that the grading is unreliable because it varies so much when different individuals mark the same paper. To test this matter the writer has on a number of occasions asked the members of his classes in the teaching of history to grade the specimen answers of college candidates in history, published by the College Entrance Examination

¹ See Gathany, "The Giving of History Examinations," *Education*, XXXIV, 514 ff.

Board in 1916. In this publication there are four manuscripts receiving a low grade and four a high grade, as well as the grade given by the reader for the Board to each answer. After it was made impossible to see the mark that was actually given to each answer, a copy of the pamphlet containing the eight manuscripts was placed in the hands of each student with the request that he grade them. On comparing the results of one hundred gradings of the eight manuscripts it was found that there was a somewhat remarkable uniformity in the grades given each manuscript by each grader, including the one that it actually received. For example, the actual low grade in ancient history was 43 per cent, and half of the marks in the experiment were within five points of this grade. Since there is usually a margin of ten points between groups of grades below 70 per cent, the group into which the manuscript was placed by the actual mark was not changed in the majority of the cases in this experiment. It was found, further, that more uniformity is likely to occur with very good and very bad papers than when the manuscript lies in the borderland. For instance, when a manuscript received an actual mark of 92 per cent, 90 per cent of the grades given by the students did not go five below or above this; but when a manuscript received an actual grade of 78 per cent, not so many of the students came as near as five to this mark. It would seem from this fact that the average student is the one who suffers from the alleged lack of reliability in the grading of his examination papers. However, in spite of this fact, the experiment justifies the conclusion that there is sufficient reliability in the grading of history papers to make it reasonably fair to all students for the teacher to use an examination grade as a basis for determining at least one third of the final grade they are to receive in a course in history.

No attempt will be made here to answer each of the adverse criticisms of the traditional history examination listed above; in fact, there is no thought in this discussion of mitigating the

evils now existing in the administration of this medieval institution. Most individuals are willing to admit that in some localities the situation is bad in the extreme. Because of this fact the chief problem with serious-minded history teachers is to find a way to use an inherently valuable tool to the best advantage in connection with their teaching. Little worthwhile work has been done on this phase of the subject. On the matter of changing the emphasis from memorizing to doing and thinking Professor Johnson¹ suggests the following as tests of the ability to do and to reason: interpret a map or picture; analyze a paragraph or page in history; find material on a given topic; solve by use of material a simple problem in criticism; recognize in given facts different degrees of probability; judge from a given description some historical character; discover in given conditions, past and present, resemblances, differences, relations, tendencies; organize a given collection of facts; select from the work of a term or year facts of special importance and explain why they are important. By incorporating some of these phases of work into his examination the teacher will be able to change it from a mere memory exercise to one which tests other equally important faculties. Professor Johnson feels that not more than one fourth, or perhaps one third, of the examination should be given over to a test of memory.

Many serious-minded history teachers are making strenuous attempts to make the history examination something other than a mere test of memory. A splendid example of a final examination in history which purports to test the ability of pupils to hunt down material in libraries and facts in books, to interpret the printed page, and to organize in relation to a given problem the information thus obtained is contained in an account of some experiments along this line in the Julia Richman High School, New York City. The details of these experiments are too bulky to include here. In brief, the technic

¹ *Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools*, p. 428.

consisted of having the examination written outside of school, a copy of the directions along with a topic being given each member of the class two or three days before the time set by the school program for the final examination. No two topics were alike and none was a subject which had been previously considered in class. A sample set of these directions will give the reader a concrete notion of the whole procedure.

MID-TERM EXAMINATION IN INDUSTRIAL HISTORY II

DIRECTIONS. Place in Miss Osgood's box in the office before 2:30, April —, a report on the subject assigned you written in ink or typewritten. This report must contain:

1. A list of books which are of use for the subject, the title and the author of the book to be given in every case.
2. Notes on the subject taken from one or more of these books, title of the book and pages consulted to head each set of notes.
3. A two-page discussion of the assigned topic.
4. At the close of the paper write and sign the following declaration:

"I have received no help in the preparation of this report."

Thirty per cent will be allowed for the list of books. In making this section both the number of books obtained and the quality of the books will be taken into consideration.

Thirty per cent will be allowed for the notes. The number of facts obtained and the intelligence with which the notes are taken will be considered.

Forty per cent will be given the discussion.¹

Miss Osgood reports that the final results of her experiments were highly satisfactory. For some teachers, however, the chief virtue of such examinations is likely to be that there was no reviewing necessary to prepare for them, which in reality may or may not be a virtue, the determining factor being the manner of conducting a review, or, in other words, getting ready for a final examination. There is nothing in

¹ Osgood, "Some Experiments in a New Type of History Examination," *History Teacher's Magazine*, IX, 338.

the review as such to make it dry, formal, and unprofitable. Indeed, if one makes adequate preparation for the right sort of a final examination in history, its chief value has been attained before it has been formally written, the writing simply being a confirmation of the results attained in preparing for it. To make the reviewing of a course in history of most value, the class must be led to view it as a whole—to retell, as it were, the story of the field of history in which the course lies with all of the elaborations made possible by the daily work throughout the semester. In this retrospective view the teacher should see to it that the maps made, dates-events of most importance, noted personages, the chief reference books, and the like receive sufficient emphasis. Work of this character will be certain to take care of the memory phase of the subject, which is so essential to a satisfactory accomplishment of other desirable objectives in the teaching of history.

Miss Osgood's experiments raise another question relative to the final examination in history, or any other subject for that matter: Should the teacher exempt from the final test certain pupils because of the high character of their work during the progress of the course? The experiments just mentioned would seem to answer this question in the negative, while practice often answers it affirmatively. If one accepts the latter of these views, it seems that one must at the same time admit that the final examination is both a reward and a punishment. Admitting this, a potentially valuable educational tool is brought into bad repute. Whether to exempt or not to exempt certain students from the final examination in a subject seems to be an exception to the general rule that all questions have two sides; for when such an exercise is made an integral part of the course, as it should be, if given at all, there will be no more reason for the more capable students' escaping it than for their omitting other essential phases of the work. There is such a thing as administering a final examination in a subject so that the brightest individual in

the class will receive proportionately more value in writing it than will the slowest member. There should certainly be no exemption from examination of the type that Miss Osgood used.

When the final examination is made an integral part of the work of a course, as it should be whenever administered, the question inevitably arises as to what part it shall play in determining the final grade in history. It will be recalled that the Sioux City, Iowa, proportion was one third each to notebook work, the daily recitation, and the tests given once every six weeks.¹ In all probability one third is too much to give to tests and examinations. While they are or can be made valuable adjuncts to the course, it does not seem that they should count any more than one fourth or even less in the final make-up of one's grade in history.

So far this discussion has concerned itself with examination over which the history teacher has complete control. These are by no means the only ones with which his students may have to cope. If they should desire to enter certain colleges on graduating from the high school, they would be required to pass an examination prepared in whole or in part by outside authorities. Judging from the large number of candidates making a grade of less than 40 per cent in the examinations in history conducted by the College Examination Board since 1900, it is one thing for a student to pass successfully an examination set by his teacher and quite another thing to pass one set by an outsider. The difficulty in the latter case has been that teachers have failed to foresee what the Board would ask. They either emphasized what later proved to be unimportant in the mind of the individuals making the questions or attempted to teach everything on the same level, with the disastrous results of not doing anything very well.

The difficulty in the matter of a history examination set and graded by some outside agency has always been to decide

¹ See p. 150.

just what comprises an adequate test in history. While no satisfactory way out of this dilemma has yet been discovered, a small contribution toward the solution of the problem was made a few years ago by Professor Foster, of Dartmouth College.¹ In his inquiry Professor Foster secured the judgments of thirty-two college or Examination Board readers and thirty-three candidates on the 1913 list as to the one or two questions which proved the most adequate tests of the students' knowledge of history and their fitness for entrance to college. These same individuals were also asked to designate the one or two questions in the same list which proved the most inadequate tests of the students' knowledge of the subject. As a result of this threefold inquiry Professor Foster was able to list a number of both adequate and inadequate tests. The following are a few of the questions proving the most adequate and the most inadequate tests in ancient and American history :

ADEQUATE TESTS

1. Name four Greek colonies; how was a Greek colony related to the parent state? What was the cause for Greek colonization? What was the ultimate fate of the Greek colonies?

2. Describe the social, economic, and political life in Sparta in the fifth century B.C. Contrast these conditions with those in Athens at the same time.

3. Why did the Sicilian expedition fail? Why did its failure prove more disastrous to Athens than that of the Egyptian expedition of the years 460-456 B. C.?

4. Why do we study in our schools the civilization of Chaldea, although it was overthrown, rather than that of China where an ancient civilization still exists?

5. What were the causes of Greek colonization? Describe the method of founding a colony, and state what the relations of a colony were to the mother city.

¹ "Adequate Tests in History," *History Teacher's Magazine*, V, 116 ff.

6. Compare the rule given to the provinces of Rome under the republic with that given under the empire.

7. How did the problem of foreign relations in the presidencies of Washington and John Adams differ from those in the presidencies of Monroe and John Quincy Adams?

8. What were the principal characteristics of industrial life in New England in 1750? in 1830? in 1912?

9. Indicate on the outline map the area of the states in which slavery existed in 1860, and of the states which seceded. Explain why the areas are not the same.

10. Mention the leading characteristics of the Jacksonian Period, with reference to political life, economic development, and social reforms.

11. Compare the social and industrial conditions in colonial Virginia with those in colonial Massachusetts. Indicate the time which you describe. Mention the author and title of any books, outside your textbook, which you have used on this subject.

12. Show that you have a definite knowledge of five of the following, writing at least four or five lines on each: the Webster-Hayne debate, Nullification, the Compromise of 1850, the Free Silver campaign, commission form of government for cities, McKinley tariff act.

INADEQUATE TESTS

1. Indicate on the map the independent members of the Delian Confederacy at the opening of the Peloponnesian War.

2. Outline the territorial growth of the Roman Empire from the third century B.C. to the second century A.D. Mention five important additions of territory and state the circumstances under which each was added to the empire.

3. Give some account of the Roman Twelve Tables and state the reason for drawing them up. Give the cause of the First Punic War.

4. Trace the relations between the Romans and the Etruscans in the regal period and the early republic.

5. Describe the religious conditions at Rome under the early empire.

6. Write a careful account of the life of Roger Williams.

7. Why is the period 1865-1871 called the "Reconstruction Period"? Answer fully.

8. Indicate on the outline map the principal changes in routes between the Ohio Valley and the seaboard between 1800 and 1860.

9. Mention two important changes in American industries due to inventions. Mention two inventions that have aided the rapid growth of cities during the past century. State briefly two great municipal problems resulting from this rapid growth of cities.

10. (Answer *A* or *B*.) (*A*) Was the Compromise of 1850 a wise or unwise measure? Give your reasons. (*B*) Show the important differences between the "Reconstruction" policy of Johnson and that of Congress.

11. (Answer *A* or *B*.) (*A*) What economic and industrial reasons led to the defeat of the South in the Civil War? (*B*) What reasons led to the establishment of the Interstate Commerce Commission, 1887? Describe some of the activities of this Commission.

12. Contrast economic conditions at the North and the South before the Civil War.

Generally speaking, the questions judged "most adequate" were those which tested both judgment and memory, were not too general, and avoided the omnibus type, while the least adequate ones were mainly tests of rote memory, were too general in character, and were of the omnibus variety. A cursory scrutiny of the questions in the foregoing lists will reveal the fact that each type contains these characteristics.

Because of the fact that the examination as usually administered contains so many variables, some attempts have recently been made to supplant it with what has come to be called "standardized tests." While the movement has made little headway in history, some interesting attempts have been made in the matter of devising tests in this field. To date there are on the market at least half a dozen tests in American history and one in ancient history. It is too early to pass final judgment on any of these efforts. They are interesting, to say the least. A few, indeed, give promise of considerable merit.

STANDARDIZED TESTS IN HISTORY

In reality it is a misnomer to speak of standardized tests in history in the sense that they exist in algebra, arithmetic, and reading, if one means by the expression "tests which have been scientifically devised." Generally speaking, "scientifically devised" means that the questions or exercises comprising standardized tests have been selected and evaluated according to a procedure which involves more than mere opinion; that by following specific directions different teachers will assign the same rank to the same paper; that the score made by the pupil taking the test has a definite meaning; and that their content is such that they may be used again and again without destroying their validity. Since none of the tests to date in the field of history meets these criteria, one cannot speak of them as "standardized tests." In spite of this fact, however, the history teacher should be familiar with those now available. Some he may be able to use with profit, others will possess for him informational value only.

What seems to be the first attempt at formulating standardized tests in the field of history was made by Mr. D. F. McCollum.¹ Since these tests are rather brief, they can be inserted in full here.

A SCALE IN UNITED STATES HISTORY

TEST I. Dates—Events (4 minutes): 1861, 1789, 1620, 1565, 1898, 1492, 1619, 1783, 1776, 1846. This is a list of dates, opposite each of which you write some great event that happened on that date.

TEST II. (a) Men—Events (5 minutes): This is a list of men. In just a sentence tell who each was or what great thing he did. (b) Men, Chronological order (2 minutes): Number the

¹ First published in the *Texas History Teachers' Bulletin*, Vol. III (1915), No. 2, pp. 38 ff.; and later in *Journal of Educational Psychology*, VIII (1917), 257 ff. They can be secured in quantities from the University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

men in chronological order (that is, the man that came first in history in point of time you are to number 1, the next 2, etc.) : John Burgoyne, Alexander Hamilton, Jefferson Davis, Walter Raleigh, John C. Calhoun, Cyrus H. McCormick, George Dewey, Sam Houston, Roger Williams, and James Oglethorpe.

TEST III. Events—Men (3 minutes) : This is a list of great events, each of which was accomplished by a man. Write the name of the man in each case : captured Quebec during the French and Indian War; wrote the Declaration of Independence; invented the telephone; brought about the Missouri Compromise; captured the City of Mexico during the Mexican War; founded the Colony of Maryland; made a great speech against the English Stamp Tax; was president of the United States during the Civil War; vetoed the rechartering of the United States Bank.

TEST IV. Historic Terms (7 minutes) : Test IV is a list of historic terms, each of which you will define in a short sentence : Second Continental Congress; Lewis and Clark expedition; Articles of Confederation; Sherman Antitrust Law; Monroe Doctrine; Fugitive Slave Law; Dred Scott Decision; Alien and Sedition Laws; Nullification Ordinance of South Carolina; Emancipation Proclamation.

TEST V. Political Parties (5 minutes) : Test V is a blank sheet. On it you will make a list of all the political parties that have arisen in the United States since the Revolution, and state one leading principle advocated by each.

TEST VI. Divisions of United States History (5 minutes) : On the next sheet, also a blank, you will divide the history of the United States into a number of great divisions or epochs, giving date of each period.

TEST VII. Map Study (5 minutes) : Show, by drawing on the outline map, the land boundaries of the United States at the close of the Revolution, and also indicate the different acquisitions of territory since that date.

Tests similar to McCollum's have been worked out in the field of ancient history by Professor L. W. Sackett, of the University of Texas. The following is a list of Sackett's tests.

A SCALE IN ANCIENT HISTORY¹

TEST No. I. For what are the following men noted : (1) Hannibal ? (2) Khufu or Cheops ? (3) Demosthenes ? (4) Darius ? (5) Solon ? (6) Charlemagne ? (7) Attila ? (8) Constantine ? (9) Mithridates ? (10) Justinian ?

TEST No. II. Name a man noted in ancient history for each of the following : (1) orator ; (2) painter ; (3) sculptor ; (4) historian ; (5) lawgiver ; (6) philosopher ; (7) general ; (8) ruler (king, emperor, etc.) ; (9) builder ; (10) poet.

TEST No. III. Give the historical significance of each of the following : (1) Battle of Tours ; (2) Age of Augustus ; (3) Battle of Milvian Bridge ; (4) the church council of Nicæa ; (5) check of the Saracens before Constantinople ; (6) reign of Alexander the Great ; (7) Age of Pericles ; (8) founding of the Hebrew monarchy ; (9) burning of Carthage ; (10) Peloponnesian War.

TEST No. IV. Between whom were the following battles fought : (1) Arbela ? (2) Marathon ? (3) Metaurus ? (4) Teutoburg Forest ? (5) Chalons ? Name the victor in each case.

TEST No. V. Give the approximate date of each of the following : (1) fall of Rome ; (2) Battle of Marathon ; (3) crowning of Charlemagne ; (4) establishment of the Saracen Kingdom in Spain ; (5) Delian League ; (6) the Hegira ; (7) defeat of Saracens by the Germans ; (8) Battle of Actium ; (9) defeat of Persians by Alexander ; (10) establishment of the Roman Empire.

TEST No. VI. What do you consider the most important contribution to civilization from these peoples : (1) Greeks ? (2) Teutons ? (3) Phœnicians ? (4) Saracens and Arabians ? (5) Romans ? (6) Hebrews ? (7) Persians ? (8) Egyptians ? (9) Babylonians ? (10) prehistoric man ?

TEST No. VII. Mark each of the following peoples as being Hamitic, Semitic, or Aryan : (1) Greeks ; (2) Egyptians ; (3) Romans ; (4) Hebrews ; (5) Hindus ; (6) Babylonians ; (7) Teutons ; (8) Assyrians ; (9) Phœnicians ; (10) Persians.

¹ For a full discussion of this scale see *Journal of Educational Psychology*, VIII, 284 ff.

TEST No. VIII. Name and mark the geographical locations on the accompanying map of ten points that you think were most important in ancient history. [Here was inserted an outline map of the Mediterranean World.]

It takes but little scrutinizing of the foregoing tests to discover wherein they fail when considered in the light of the recent testing movement. Some serious adverse criticisms of them when they are thought of as scales to be used again and again are (1) their usefulness is destroyed if the teacher and the pupils see them in advance, because by a few hours spent in drill or study the answers to each test could be worked out and committed; (2) too much emphasis is placed on the testing of the memory; (3) there is no certainty that the facts called for are the most important ones within the fields of history in question; (4) some of the tests cannot be completed in the allotted time; (5) the facts called for are not sufficiently standardized to make it possible to grade the answers with enough uniformity; (6) in their present crude form they are of little practical value to history teachers. Their potential value seems to be in their probable inspirational effect. They also serve to emphasize the fact that the making of standardized tests in history involves more labor and historical acumen than some people interested in the movement seem to realize.

Since McCollum's effort to construct tests in American history five other attempts have been made in this field. *American History Test—Series A*,¹ prepared by Professor Daniel Starch, of the University of Wisconsin, is composed of a number of incomplete historical statements to be completed by the one taking it. The entire list of exercises is too long to reproduce in full. The directions and the first ten of the sixty-nine items will serve to illustrate the nature of the test and the general principle underlying it.

¹ The other four are C. L. Harlan, *Test of Information in American History*; S. B. Davis, *Exercises in United States History, Colonial Period*; A. S. Barr, *Diagnostic Tests in American History*; and M. J. Van Wagenen, *American History Scales*.

STARCH'S AMERICAN HISTORY TEST—SERIES A¹

Fill in as many of the blank spaces as you can. Read each statement through completely before you attempt to supply the missing parts. Place yourself historically in each case. Take as much time as you need.

1. _____ discovered America in 1492.
2. John Cabot, exploring for the _____ in 1497, landed on the _____ coast and claimed the country for _____.
3. _____ sailed around the globe in 1519-1521.
4. _____ discovered the Mississippi River in 1541.
5. Two expeditions sent out by _____ to settle Virginia, in 1585 and 1587 respectively, failed.
6. _____ was governor of Virginia after Delaware left.
7. _____, in service of the Dutch East India Company, explored the _____ River in 1609.
8. _____ was governor of the Dominion of New England, which was composed of (1) _____, (2) _____, and (3) _____.
9. John Winthrop came to America in 1630 and settled _____.
10. New Hampshire was founded in _____.

While Harlan calls his effort a *Test of Information in American History*, it involves in reality reasoning as well. Ten exercises are included in the test, two of which are concerned with historical personages, two with dates-events, one each with historic terms, places, topics, and causes, and two are reasoning exercises. The general principle underlying the test as a whole may be detected from the three exercises which follow. It will be observed that the completion idea used by Starch also appears here but in a somewhat easier form.

¹ Order from the author, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

HARLAN'S TEST OF INFORMATION IN AMERICAN HISTORY¹

EXERCISE I

At the right of the page are the names of some men mentioned in American History. Fill in blanks with the names which properly belong there.

Score

- | | | |
|----|--|---|
| 1. | America was discovered by
----- near
the close of the fifteenth
century. | |
| 2. | The name of the man who is
supposed to have discovered
the Pacific Ocean is -----
-----. | Jefferson
Cornwallis
Wm. Penn
Lafayette |
| 3. | The first president of the United
States was -----. | Patrick Henry
Columbus |
| 4. | ----- is the
name of a distinguished
Frenchman who aided the
colonists in securing their in-
dependence. | Benjamin Franklin
Washington
John Cabot
Balboa |
| 5. | ----- surren-
dered to the colonial troops
at Yorktown. | |

EXERCISE IV

Tell the very first thing you would do under each of the follow-
ing conditions, also what you would do next.

Score

1. If a neighbor were to present to you for your signa-
ture a petition to have some man removed from
public office,—
What would you do first? -----
Would you sign the petition? -----

¹ Published by Northwestern School Supply Co., Minneapolis, Minn.

2. If a man imprisoned in the county jail for some serious crime should be taken out by a mob with the intention of hanging him,—

What ought to be done first?

Then what?

EXERCISE VI

Give the year in which the following events occurred,—

Score

1. Discovery of America
2. Signing of the Declaration of Independence
3. Settlement of Jamestown, Va.
4. Settlement of Plymouth Colony
5. First battle of American Revolution

There is one other type of tests in American history to which some attention should be given before passing to another phase of the subject. Instead of blanks to fill, persons to identify, and dates to remember as in the foregoing tests, this one asks the pupil to underscore the correct one of a number of given answers. The first ten exercises will illustrate the idea underlying the tests.

DAVIS'S EXERCISES IN UNITED STATES HISTORY, COLONIAL PERIOD

1. The Mayflower was a chapel, hall, hotel, plant, queen, ship.
2. Miles Standish led in fighting the Dutch, Indians, Puritans, Swedes.
3. Roger Williams founded the colony of Ga., Md., Mass., N.C., N.J., Pa., R.I., S.C., Va.
4. The Patroons were Dutch fishermen, fur traders, land-owners, miners, preachers, teachers.
5. Thomas Hooker led emigrants from Mass., to found Conn., Del., Ga., Md., N.J., N.Y.
6. The first college founded was Brown, Harvard, Pennsylvania, Princeton, William and Mary, Yale.

7. The Witchcraft delusion occurred among the Baptists, Catholics, Dutch, Indians, Puritans.

8. John Berkeley and George Cartaret once owned Conn., Del., Ga., Md., Mass., N.H., N.J., Pa.

9. The principal native food crop was barley, corn, oats, potatoes, rice, rye, wheat.

10. The Mason and Dixon Line was established between Pa. and Del., Md., N.J., N.Y., Ohio.

In giving a correct answer to the above the student would be expected to underscore the word "ship" in 1, "Indians" in 2, "R.I." in 3, "landowners" in 4, "Conn." in 5, "Harvard" in 6, "Puritans" in 7, "N.J." in 8, "corn" in 9, and "Md." in 10.¹

Some of the same adverse criticisms apply to the Starch, Harlan, and Davis tests that were directed against those of McCollum and Sackett. The chief weaknesses in all five of these tests are: (1) The absolute importance of the information called for has not been scientifically established. Almost any number of tests could be constructed as these have been, all of which would have equal claims to merit. (2) If either the students or the teacher see the tests in advance of their application, their value disappears, for with little effort on the part of the student or drill on the part of the teacher, the idea back of all such tests would be wholly upset. (3) The matter of grading seems to present insuperable difficulties, since some of the tests admit of so many correct answers.²

¹ Order these exercises from S. B. Davis, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

² While not a test in a sense of the foregoing, mention should be made here of the work of B. R. Buckingham in trying to determine the correlation between the ability to think and the ability to remember. For the questions Mr. Buckingham used in his study as well as a brief report of the result, see *School and Society*, V, 443 ff. Mention should also be made of the history tests Buckingham used in his survey of the Gary and prevocational schools in New York City in March and June, 1915. The questions used in this survey and the results as well may be found in "Survey of the Gary and Prevocational Schools," a part of the seventeenth annual report of the City Superintendent of Schools, 1914-1915.

It is one thing to criticize adversely the tests in history now available and quite a different thing to propose remedies to obliterate these objections. The writer believes that the latter undertaking is quite within the range of possibilities. To be comprehensive, standardized tests in history must emphasize something other than information or memory. Generally speaking, they ought to test what the student actually knows of the subject as well as his ability to do such things as comprehend and reproduce a coherent historical narrative, analyze a paragraph or a page of history, apply historic truths to social situations, organize a given collection of facts, and recognize in given facts differing degrees of probability. Furthermore, the student's conception of time and place relations, his power to construct from oral or written descriptions concrete pictures of historic places and scenes—in other words, what is often spoken of as historical sense and historical-mindedness—must be analyzed with great care, and tests must be constructed on the basis of the information attained.

In reality the first step in the construction of adequate and comprehensive tests in history has never been taken by any of the investigators to date. This step is scientifically to determine the particularized objectives of history teaching in each unit of instruction in the subject. After this task has been performed so that it will successfully withstand a reasonable number of legitimate tests, the matter of measuring the success of a teacher in arriving at the predetermined objectives will be one of small dimensions. Of course if the objectives should include a specific quantity of knowledge of the subject, as they no doubt would, then the matter of determining what is worth remembering in each unit or field of history would have to be settled, which in itself would involve an immense amount of labor. For example, the investigator in determining the facts of most value in United States history would have to get at the matter from a number of angles, the chief ones being:

- (1) analyze the current textbooks in the field in order to

determine the dates-events, personages, and other facts of most importance according to their authors; (2) examine current literature in order to learn what historical background the reader would need to peruse it understandingly; (3) ask persons in business and professional life the facts of history which most often come into their lives as they go about their daily work; (4) submit to be arranged in the order of importance tentative lists of events and personages and similar material to trained historians and to experienced teachers of history in all schools above and including the junior high; (5) examine a large number of students just completing the study of United States history in either the grades or the high school in order to find out what facts have been most emphasized by their teachers. By throwing together the results of comprehensive studies along all of these lines, an investigator would be able to construct an information test in history with some semblance of finality and permanent value.

In order to meet one of the very vital objections to the information tests now in the field, namely, that they may prove useless if the student or teacher sees them in advance, a test resulting from the foregoing studies would need to be either so long that it could not be administered, or constructed in such a way that selections could be made from it. For example, suppose the list of important things in United States history should turn out to contain 1000 items, a test could be constructed by selecting a certain number of them. One could not prepare specifically for such a test, for one would never know just what items it would include. Of course, one could prepare for it in a general way by familiarizing himself with each item on the complete list, which would be entirely legitimate, inasmuch as one of the legitimate objectives in any study is a knowledge of the important facts therein.

Neither the preliminary work relative to nor the actual construction and the administering of tests in history other than

those of the strictly informational type seem so formidable as does the procedure outlined above. For example, suppose one desires to test the student's ability to comprehend a coherent historical narrative or his power along the line of constructive imagination, reasoning, discrimination, applying historic truths to social situations, and the like, it does not seem impossible to formulate adequate tests of these abilities and powers. The chief difficulty one would encounter in constructing tests of this character would be to make them something besides the ordinary general ability or reading tests. The mere use of historical data might not satisfy the psychologist that mainly historical abilities and powers were tested. In spite of this difficulty, however, the construction of history tests of this nature seems to be both a virgin and a fertile field for investigation by those interested in the measurement movement.¹

The diagnostic value of the kind of a test anticipated above, if scientifically constructed, seems never to have been realized by history teachers. Suppose adequate tests were in existence to determine the abilities and powers, mentioned in the foregoing paragraph, of all the beginners in high-school history. These would be of great value, if wisely administered, in classifying the students on the basis of their historical abilities and powers. If some were weak in constructive imagination, they could be given special training along this line, and likewise with weaknesses which such tests would reveal in other historical abilities and mental powers.

¹ Some tests which are more than informational in character are *Diagnostic Tests in American History*, arranged by A. S. Barr, and *American History Scales* by M. J. Van Wagenen. The former can be secured from James Watson and Co., 618 Sherman St., Chicago, Ill., and the latter from Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. These tests did not appear in time to receive the critical consideration that was given the others. It should be said, however, that Barr is attempting to test comprehension, chronological judgment, historical evidence, evaluation of facts, and causal relationships (inference). While he does not attempt to wholly eliminate the informational factors, his tests deal primarily with powers (abilities) involved in the learning process of history.

ADDITIONAL READING MATTER

- BELL and McCOLLUM. "A Study of Attainments of Pupils in United States History," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, VIII (1916), 257 ff.
- BUCKINGHAM, B. R. "Correlation between Ability to Think and Ability to Remember, with Special Reference to United States History," *School and Society*, V (1917), 443 ff.
- GATHANY, J. M. "The Giving of History Examinations," *Education*, XXXIV (1914), 514 ff.
- JOHNSON, HENRY. "The History Examination," chap. xvi in *The Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools*. The Macmillan Company, 1915.
- OSGOOD, ELLEN L. "Some Experiments in a New Type of History Examination," *History Teacher's Magazine*, IX (1918), 337 ff.
- SACKETT, L. W. "A Scale in Ancient History," *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, VIII (1916), 284 ff.
- VAN WAGENEN, M. J. *Historical Information and Judgment in Pupils of Elementary Schools*. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1919.

CHAPTER IX

LIBRARY AND COLLATERAL-READING PROBLEMS

With the coming of the topical and other modern methods of teaching high-school history there arose a need for material in addition to that which the text contained. Accompanying this necessity were such major problems as the valid aims and purposes of collateral reading, the selection of suitable reading matter, and the technic of effective management. Some of the minor problems were the kinds of reading most suitable, the kinds required and kinds optional, the quantity of reading, how to assign and how to check, and the guiding principles for selecting a high-school history library. This chapter is devoted to a consideration of these major and minor problems.

VALID AIMS OR PURPOSES OF COLLATERAL READING

Two valid objectives in good history teaching which require the use of collateral reading for their attainment are to create a life interest in the subject of history and to establish a permanent taste for substantial historical reading. Neither of these objectives can be successfully attained if the teacher has no books other than the text. In truth, wherever such a scarcity of material exists there is great danger of creating an aversion for, rather than a life interest in, the subject of history. Unless the teacher has a variety of types of material he cannot appeal to the individuality of the different members of the class. This type of appeal is essential in creating life interests and permanent tastes, both of which become of vast importance when thought of in connection with the quantity and kind of reading done during life's leisure hours. Since so many of

these hours are spent in reading history, it becomes a very practical problem to teach history in such a way that the teacher is able to direct in a measure the reading of his pupils after they leave his classes. To do this, of course, will require much care in selecting and much ingenuity in managing collateral reading.

To create a critical attitude and to stimulate independent judgment are other worthy aims which cannot be successfully accomplished without some use of collateral reading, because the student has too meager a basis for a critical attitude and an independent judgment concerning a historical event when he has access to but one account of it. Frequent occasions to read and compare different narratives give the pupil opportunities for cultivating a critical attitude and for forming independent judgments. Inasmuch as the attainment of these two objectives will be of practical value to the student in the reading that he does when his school days are over, they should be constantly in the mind of the teacher when he selects and assigns the collateral reading to be done in connection with each course.

To teach those in his classes how to use books and to give them directed practice in the application of this knowledge are two of the greatest opportunities of a history teacher. In a democracy like our own where each individual has so many opportunities for independent thinking and reading, there is particular need of training in the use of some of the most fundamental tools of education whether in school or out of school. It is a highly desirable accomplishment to be able to get with minimum effort from a number of books all they contain on a definite point. There is no other subject in the curriculum which offers such a profusion of occasions for training along this line. Other subjects may give the student many rules and regulations on the use of books, but it is in the well-taught history courses that he has the opportunities for putting into practice his knowledge of how to read effectively.

It is quite obvious that training in the use of *books* cannot be given when the pupil has access to but one volume in his history work. Herein lies one of the strongest arguments for a high-school history library.

Another objective of collateral reading is to acquaint the pupils with the diverse forms in which historical materials are recorded. To secure this acquaintance the student should have access to the following types of material: fuller narrative accounts than the one his text contains, biography, letters and diaries, books of travel, reminiscences, historical novels, memoirs, chronicles, legends, stories, myths, and fairy tales, newspapers, and magazines. In his contact with each of these forms the student will learn the features common to two or more of them as well as the attributes peculiar to each. This training will be of direct value to him in selecting, characterizing, classifying, evaluating, and criticizing the historical material which he reads after school hours.

To attain the foregoing worth-while ends it will be necessary for the students to do certain things during their journey through the history course. Chief among these are: consult books of history other than the text; consult some of them while preparing daily lessons; work up some topics quite thoroughly and do a little constructive work; read some historical fiction and much current history; and come in contact with the manifold forms in which historical materials are recorded. Unless a student meets a portion or all of these specific requirements during his career in high-school history, he will miss some of the most practical and fundamental training which the proper study of the subject has to offer.

Before passing to some other problems relative to collateral reading it will be worth our while to consider some of the so-called valid objections to it. It is often said that in actual practice the teacher instead of developing a love for historical literature turns out students with an aversion to it. They are sick and tired of history, hence do not care to have any more to

do with it. The trouble here is not so much in collateral reading *per se* as in the kind selected and required. The following story illustrates this point :

A young man from the country, who had become a clerk in a mercantile house in the city, was desirous of improving his mind and he wisely thought he could do it by reading history. But he did not know what books to read. He therefore asked the advice of an intelligent, educated lawyer. The gentleman was greatly interested in the young man, asked him to call again, and promised to make out for him a course of historical reading. Thanking the lawyer he retired, and after a lapse of a few days he called at the office for the list. The learned man drew out from a desk drawer a sheet of paper, on which he had written a list of historical works which he recommended the young man to read. The list included the following :

Thucydides, Herodotus, Plutarch's *Lives*, Rollin's *Ancient History*, Grote's *Greece*, Gibbon's *Rome*, Hume's *England*, Macaulay's *England*, Guizot's *History*, Motley's *Dutch Republic*, Bancroft's *United States*, Hildreth's *United States*, Palfrey's *New England*, MacMaster's *American People*.

The young man thanked his friend, took his list, and, on his way to his boarding place, stopped at the bookstore and bought a set of Rollin's *Ancient History*. He never succeeded in reading a single column of the work. He now has a large and well-selected library, but Rollin is stored away in the attic.¹

The lawyer in this case made the mistake that many well-meaning history teachers make, namely, that of giving an overwhelming list to begin with and of suggesting material not adapted to the reader. The quantity and the quality of the collateral-reading work are the controlling ideals of too many history teachers. Could anyone blame the young man for not reading Rollin's *Ancient History*? Is there any wonder that high-school pupils often leave the history classes with a feeling of never-any-more-history-for-me when they are required to

¹ Mowry, "The Teaching of History," *American Education*, XVII, 145.

read a huge quantity of material far beyond their capacity to comprehend and to enjoy?

Other so-called valid objections to collateral reading in history, especially as it is sometimes administered, are (1) but one student comes in contact with the ideas in any particular assignment; (2) students fail to absorb what they read; (3) so much time is consumed in taking notes on the reading that other valuable work must be neglected; (4) the supplementary reading has no direct bearing on the lesson of the day; and (5) no adequate test for such work has ever been devised. Since all of these objections relate to the problem of how best to manage collateral reading, which is discussed in the last section of this chapter, no further consideration need be given them here.

SOME GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR SELECTING COLLATERAL-READING MATERIAL

Suppose the teacher has decided upon the main ends to be attained through a proper use of collateral reading and has tabulated the objections, the problem now uppermost in his mind should be how to select material to accomplish the purposes and meet the objections. Teachers often face this problem in a very practical way when asked to make additions to an already moderately well-equipped historical library or, a more difficult task, to select books for a new one. Great responsibility accompanies either of these requests. To do this work effectively the history teacher must decide upon some well-defined standard of selection. When he has decided upon this, the remainder of the work will be merely a matter of application.

The principles that the teacher will need to apply in selecting suitable collateral-reading material are both general and special. Some safe general standards to apply to each book are that the style must be both intelligent and interesting to the adolescent mind and that the book must be scholarly and bear directly

upon some phase of history work ; it should also be somewhat inexpensive and nontechnical. The special guiding principles which the teacher might apply are (1) select a list of topics in each field of history taught in the high school, then let this list determine the collateral reading ; (2) select material on the basis of the use to be made of it ; (3) select wholly on the basis of the types of books ; and (4) select the few best books in each field with the idea of duplicating them to such an extent that each book will be accessible to and used by the class as a whole. A brief discussion and a few examples of these principles will make them clear.

Selecting the big topics in any field of history and permitting them to determine in most part the books for collateral reading is a method worthy of serious consideration. It finds its parallel in physics, where there is almost uniform agreement as to the experiments to be performed in a high-school course, hence there arises equal uniformity in the matter of laboratory equipment necessary to perform these experiments. Now, if an agreement could be reached as to the big topics in each field of high-school history, there would be some basis for uniformity in the matter of library equipment, a condition worth striving for, since history teachers as a rule change their positions all too frequently and must therefore learn to use a new set of reference books with each new position.¹

Should the history teacher decide to select material for collateral reading on the basis of the use to be made of it, he could accept Professor Johnson's types of material and look for books embodying them. In doing this he would look for (1) materials to add elements of reality ; (2) materials to add information as information ; (3) materials to make history interesting and inspiring ; (4) materials to give acquaintance with historical literature ; and (5) materials to illustrate the

¹ For a list of references in the field of ancient history selected according to this principle, see Dickerson and others, *Library Equipment for Teaching History in Minnesota High Schools*, pp. 15 ff.

historical methods of study.¹ Viewed from the standpoint of use, the first type of material would be read for impressions and atmosphere. No notes would be taken on it and no effort would be made to remember it. The use of the second type is suggested by the word "information." This material would become an integral part of the daily work and be treated as the textbook is treated; it would be outlined, placed in the notebook, and learned and recited just as the textbook is. The difficult task here is to find material that is adapted to the capacities of high-school students, for most of the informational material in its present form is on the college level.

Professor Johnson would have the last three of his types of material utilized as follows: that used primarily to make history interesting should be treated merely as good reading; that used primarily to acquaint the student with historical literature should be treated in such a way as to emphasize the record and the recorder rather than what is recorded; and that used primarily to illustrate the historical method should be treated as material for written work to be handed in or for oral discussion in class. To acquire a working knowledge of how to use each of Professor Johnson's types of collateral-reading material, it will be necessary for the teacher to read his somewhat elaborate discussion of them.

A library selected on the basis of the third special principle mentioned above would contain the following types of books: (1) parallel texts; (2) one-volume narratives with a fuller account than the text; (3) books dealing with a definite period, topic, or movement; (4) biography, collective and individual; (5) books treating social, industrial, and economic life; (6) constitutional, political, and diplomatic discussions; (7) collections of documents and sources of a varied nature; (8) reminiscences, travel, diaries, letters, and similar records of everyday life; (9) atlases, abstracts, and similar material; (10) historical fiction and poetry. It is quite possible, of course,

¹ *Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools*, p. 330.

that one might have each of these types in a library selected according to the second special principle mentioned above; for practical purposes, however, the principle of selection under discussion here seems to have some advantages over both of the first two. In the first place, the names of the types are in terms of existing books; that is, one can actually find a number of books in each field of high-school history which can be readily classified under each of the foregoing types. In the second place, as a library-standardizing agency this principle seems superior to the first two, for with each of the types well in mind a teacher could in a short time survey his high-school history library and find out wherein it was short on some types and long on others; or in making out a list of books for a new history library a teacher by means of such a scheme could make sure that he was covering the field and at the same time selecting books in some definite proportion.

In order to show how this third principle works out in the field of American history the types are repeated below with from two to four examples under each.

A SMALL CLASSIFIED HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY IN AMERICAN HISTORY

I. PARALLEL TEXTS.

1. FORMAN. *Advanced American History*. The Century Co., 1914.
2. McLAUGHLIN. *A History of the American Nation*. D. Appleton and Company, 1913.
3. MONTGOMERY. *Student's American History* (Second Revised Edition). Ginn and Company, 1916.
4. MUZZEY. *An American History* (Revised Edition). Ginn and Company, 1920.

II. ONE-VOLUME NARRATIVES WITH A FULLER ACCOUNT THAN THE TEXT.

1. BASSETT. *A Short History of the United States*. The Macmillan Company, 1913.

2. ELSON. *History of the United States*. The Macmillan Company, 1904.
- III. BOOKS TREATING A DEFINITE PERIOD, TOPIC, OR MOVEMENT.
 1. HITCHCOCK. *The Louisiana Purchase and the Exploration, Early History, and Building of the West*. Ginn and Company, 1903.
 2. TRYON. *Household Manufactures in the United States*. The University of Chicago Press, 1917.
 3. BRIGHAM. *Geographic Influences in American History*. Ginn and Company, 1903.
- IV. BIOGRAPHY, COLLECTIVE AND INDIVIDUAL.
 1. MORRIS. *Heroes of Progress in America*. J. B. Lippincott Company, 1906.
 2. MACE. *Lincoln, the Man of the People*. Rand, McNally & Company, 1913.
- V. BOOKS TREATING SOCIAL, INDUSTRIAL, AND ECONOMIC LIFE.
 1. HUNT. *Life in America 100 years ago (1815)*. Harper & Brothers, 1914.
 2. CALLENDER. *Selections from the Economic History of the United States*. Ginn and Company, 1909.
 3. MOORE. *An Industrial History of the American People*. The Macmillan Company, 1913.
- VI. CONSTITUTIONAL, POLITICAL, AND DIPLOMATIC DISCUSSIONS.
 1. FESS. *History of Political Theory and Party Organization in the United States*. Ginn and Company, 1910.
 2. FOSTER. *A Century of American Diplomacy*. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1900.
 3. MCKEE. *National Conventions and Platforms of All Political Parties, 1789-1904*. Friedenwald & Co., 1904.
- VII. COLLECTIONS OF DOCUMENTS AND SOURCES OF A SIMILAR NATURE.
 1. MUZZEY. *Readings in American History*. Ginn and Company, 1915.
 2. MACDONALD. *Documentary Source Book of American History*. The Macmillan Company, 1908.
- VIII. REMINISCENCES, TRAVEL, DIARIES, LETTERS, AND SIMILAR RECORDS OF CONTEMPORARY LIFE AND MANNERS.
 1. BURNABY. *Travels in America*. Wessels, 1904.

2. HOWELLS. *Recollections of Life in Ohio, 1814-1840*. R. Clarke & Co., 1895.
 3. CHESTNUT. *Diary from Dixie*. D. Appleton and Company, 1905.
 4. CRÈVECŒUR. *Letters from an American Farmer*. E. P. Dutton & Company (Everyman's Library).
- IX. ATLASES, ABSTRACTS, AND SIMILAR MATERIAL.
1. GROSCUP. *Synchronic Chart of United States History*. Windsor Pub. Co., 1912.
 2. *Statistical Abstract of the United States*. Published annually. Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor, Washington.
- X. HISTORICAL FICTION AND POETRY.
1. AUSTIN. *Standish of Standish*. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1890. ("A tale of the Pilgrims of Plymouth Colony in the 17th Century.")
 2. BROADHURST and RHODES (compilers). *Verse for Patriots*. J. B. Lippincott Company, 1919.

The fourth special criterion which a teacher might use in selecting collateral-reading material is limiting in its nature. In fact, the matter selected with it as a guide might be practically the same as that included under Professor Johnson's material to add information as information. However, in the actual selection of the ten or twelve best reference books for any particular history course the principle need not be so narrowly interpreted as to give but one kind of material. In truth, the ten or twelve books might include one or more of each of the ten types mentioned under principle three above. Such an application of the principle would provide a more valuable working library than would be secured if all of the books were those of the strictly informational type. The varied kinds of material that might be included in a library selected according to the principle under discussion is illustrated in the following twelve books in European history since 1648.

A TWELVE-BOOK HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY IN EUROPEAN
HISTORY SINCE 1648

1. ROBINSON and BEARD. *Development of Modern Europe*, Vol. II. Ginn and Company, 1918.
2. HAYES. *A Political and Social History of Modern Europe*, Vol. II. The Macmillan Company, 1916.
3. USHER. *The Story of the Great War*. The Macmillan Company, 1919.
4. HAZEN. *Fifty Years of Europe*. Henry Holt and Company, 1919.
5. GIBBONS. *The New Map of Europe* (4th ed.). The Century Co., 1915.
6. HERRICK. *History of Commerce and Industry*. The Macmillan Company, 1917.
7. LOWELL. *The Eve of the French Revolution*. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1892.
8. WEBSTER. *General History of Commerce*. Ginn and Company, 1918.
9. OGG. *Economic Development of Modern Europe*. The Macmillan Company, 1917.
10. SCHAPIRO. *Modern and Contemporary European History*. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1918.
11. SEIGNOBOS. *History of Contemporary Civilization*. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1909.
12. ROBINSON. *Readings in European History*, Vol. II. Ginn and Company, 1906.

The idea back of a small library such as the one made up of the twelve books listed above is that each volume in it is selected with such great care that it can be duplicated with profit. If each book in the list were duplicated to the extent of one volume to each four or five history students, all of them would be accessible to the major portion of a class. At any rate they could be rather well known by the different members of the class on completing the course, because of the abundant opportunities for using them. There may not be

twelve books in each field of high-school history worth duplicating. Those given above are presented more as an example of the principle under discussion than as volumes truly worth duplicating in a high-school library in modern European history.

An almost ideal scheme would seem to be to have a library made up on the basis of principles three and four. In building a new history library it would seem well to begin with the ten or twelve best books in the various fields of high-school history. After these had been duplicated to such an extent that they could actually be used every day, it would be time to enlarge the basis of selection and secure representatives of each type mentioned under principle three. After beginning on this basis it would only be necessary to add certain books from year to year, keeping the various types in a justifiable proportion. This would avoid overloading a library with material of one kind at the expense of other valuable types.

MANAGEMENT OF COLLATERAL READING

To some history teachers efficient management of collateral reading is no problem, because they have no material other than that the text contains on which to base their work. To those teachers, however, who do have ample library facilities at their command, how to use and manage these facilities in order to secure maximum results is a practical problem which seems to have been satisfactorily solved. In fact, the main problem breaks itself up into at least four minor ones: (1) the kinds of collateral reading to be required and the kinds to be optional; (2) the amount to be required in each course in history; (3) how the reading is to be assigned; and (4) how it is to be tested. Any serious attempt to use collateral reading in connection with history work will have to concern itself with all four of these problems; and some decision relative to each of them will have to be made before any effective work in collateral reading can be done.

The kinds of collateral reading are too frequently determined by a library selected without much thought or due consideration of the existing different types of books or materials. In all such cases the practical thing for the history teacher to do is to classify very closely the available material and to determine wherein his present equipment is lacking. When he has done this, new purchases can be made on the basis of these findings. It is quite obvious that a requirement of a certain kind of material from the whole class must not precede the acquisition of an ample supply of this required reading. Granting, however, that all problems of this nature have been solved, the questions as to what readings are to be required of all members of the class and what ones are to be optional still remain. Generally speaking, the material contained in the twelve-book library mentioned above should be required; not all of it by any means, but certainly enough to make the daily work meaningful and concrete. Inasmuch as many of the books in this library are used throughout the course and are to be supplied in duplicate, this does not appear to be an excessive demand. With one exception, all other kinds of reading had probably better be optional. The exception in mind here is the reading of historical fiction and similar material. While reading of this type can be optional, there will, however, have to be some requirements regarding it if uniform results are obtained. These requirements can be made in terms of a definite number of books to be read each semester, permitting each student to select the ones he reads from a list compiled by the teacher. In administering this phase of the work it will be well to cooperate with the English department if at all possible. There seems to be no valid reason why a student should not receive credit in history for reading he does in English and vice versa. The arrangements in such a cooperative scheme could extend to the checking; that is, the history department accepting the grades of the English department and the English department accepting the grades of the history department on all this work.

There seems to be no general agreement among history teachers as to the quantity of collateral reading to require of each history class. In fact, the quantity of reading actually required varies between wide extremes. Conditions relative to this matter in the North Central Association high schools in 1915 are shown in Table III.

TABLE III. APPROXIMATE QUANTITY OF COLLATERAL READING IN PAGES PER SEMESTER¹

NUMBER OF PAGES	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS REPORTING FOR			
	Ancient History	Medieval and Modern History	English History	American History
None	2	1	—	—
25	—	1	—	1
50	2	2	1	1
75	2	—	—	2
100	6	5	1	3
120	—	—	—	1
150	6	2	—	4
180	—	—	—	7
200	4	5	2	8
250	10	8	2	6
300	2	2	2	3
350	—	—	—	4
400	5	3	—	3
450	—	—	—	5
500	3	6	2	9
600	—	2	—	3
700	2	1	—	3
750	—	—	—	2
800	2	1	—	1
900	—	1	2	3
1,000	1	—	—	5
1,500	—	—	—	3
1,800	1	—	—	—
3,500	1	—	—	—
Not answering	18	9	3	18
Answers in terms not usable	4	3	2	9
Total responses to questionnaire	71	52	17	104

¹ Koos, *The Administration of Secondary-School Units*, p. 101.

Because of the wide variation in the matter of collateral-reading requirements which Table III reveals, it certainly behooves someone, for the sake of both the pupils and the subject, history, to attempt to bring a little order out of the existing chaos. The North Central Association itself has attempted to control this situation by specifying the minimum number of pages to be required in connection with each of the four traditional fields of high-school history. These suggestions are: ancient history, 200 pages; medieval and modern, 150 pages; English, 300 pages; and American, 350 pages. The median requirements each semester as reported in Dr. Koos's study were: ancient, 250 pages; medieval and modern, 250 pages; English, 275 pages; and American, 350 pages. It will be observed on comparing these two sets of figures that the teachers represented in Table III required more than twice as much collateral reading in each field as the North Central Association specifies.

All of the available data on the quantity of collateral reading which teachers are actually requiring in connection with each course in high-school history indicate very clearly the undesirability as well as the impracticability of stating these requirements in terms of pages. The practical thing for one to do in this matter is to make subject-matter requirements rather than page requirements. Granting that the facilities are at hand, some collateral reading should be demanded nearly every day, the frequency depending upon the fullness of the textbook treatment of the general topics with which the course deals. Having assignments made in terms of material rather than pages the pupils will feel that they are reading history for the purpose of securing valuable and usable information on a point and not merely killing time on so many pages. For all practical purposes the less said about the number of pages the better.

The matter of assigning collateral reading can be made a relatively simple affair. If the teacher has his work carefully

planned with the collateral reading forming an integral part of it, he can readily indicate on making the day-by-day assignments just what reading is demanded of all and what is required of certain members of the class. In taking up a new topic, for example, the French Revolution, a very good scheme is to give each pupil at the outset an outline of the work with the collateral reading specifically designated. It will then be necessary, only, from day to day, to call attention briefly to the extra reading to be done. In assigning special readings the teacher must be sure that they are adapted to the students to whom they are assigned. An opportunity offers itself here of adjusting the collateral reading to the special capacities of the various members of the class.

The problem of checking collateral reading is one that has given many good history teachers considerable difficulty. In this matter there is little uniformity, some arguing for one method and some for another. The prevalence of the use of a number of modes of testing collateral reading is shown in Table IV from Dr. Koos's study, which contains the latest data on the matter.

TABLE IV. NUMBER OF TEACHERS REPORTING USE OF CERTAIN MODES OF TESTING COLLATERAL READING¹

MODES OF TESTING	ANCIENT HISTORY	M. AND M. HISTORY	ENGLISH HISTORY	AMERICAN HISTORY	TOTAL
Oral reports in class	64	44	15	95	218
Discussions in class	48	34	12	75	169
Quizzes in class	22	22	8	54	106
Written examination or tests	27	17	9	50	103
Written reports	31	22	6	54	113
Themes	24	16	4	27	71
Notebooks	39	30	10	61	140
Outlines or digests handed in	25	19	4	47	95
Total number of responses to questionnaire	71	52	17	104	244

¹ *The Administration of Secondary-School Units*, p. 103.

Table IV certainly contains most of the effective modes of testing collateral reading. One not included is the personal conference, which is very potent in checking the reading done in the field of historical fiction. There are, however, numerous ways of using each of the modes listed in this table. For example, "written reports" with one teacher means notes taken on a week's reading and handed in on Friday. These are in the form of direct quotations and abstracts, taken topically and accompanied by a list of reading for the week, giving author, title of book, particular subject discussed, chapter, and pages, and at the bottom of the list the total number of pages read. Another teacher has all of the required readings outlined on cards for his own use in checking and asks the students to hand in outlines of them. This teacher then compares the work the students hand in with his own, and if it is satisfactory stamps it so. There are, in fact, about as many specific forms of testing collateral reading by written reports as there are teachers using it. Since this is also true of many of the other methods listed in Table IV, it does not seem worth while to consider each of them in its multifarious forms. Attention will therefore be turned to the practical side of the matter when viewed from the angle of actual high-school conditions.

There are certain things that can be said in favor of checking collateral reading by means of oral reports in class. If done in a formal way, it is easy on the teacher but hard on the class. It can be managed by a teacher who is overworked, as most history teachers are, since it requires no time outside of the recitation period. When the collateral reading, however, is an integral part of the daily lesson, this method cannot escape being formal, and if its use is long continued it will tend to kill all interest in history. For this reason the method should be sparingly used and confined to special reports.

Testing collateral reading through class discussions and oral quizzes undeniably relieves the students of a certain amount of

rather painful drudgery and makes the work of the teacher less burdensome—two things of vital importance in administering any scheme for conducting this phase of history work. It is especially claimed for the oral quiz that new life is infused into the subject through its use, because the teacher's questions can be framed so as to bring out the human element in the study. Like claim is also made for the class-discussion method, providing the teacher skillfully directs the discussion and does not place too much emphasis on facts as facts. The ideal to aim at with both of these methods is for the teacher through his questions so to vivify the subject that the student will go on reading without compulsion. One serious objection to these methods is that, since they contemplate setting aside certain days for testing, they are likely to cause the pupils to feel that the collateral reading and the regular daily work are two separate and distinct things. If the collateral reading is mainly used, as it should be, to elaborate and make intelligible the textbook treatment of the subject, no mode of testing it which does not require daily application will be free from adverse criticisms.

Testing collateral reading by means of any form of written work is likely to become a burden both to pupils and to teacher—to the pupils in preparing the exercises and to the teacher in grading them. On the part of the pupils this work often degenerates into mere copying. The teacher's time for grading is limited, hence the danger of inadequateness. When pupils feel that their work is not carefully graded, they are likely to prepare it carelessly, from the standpoint both of history and of English. To avoid all of these pitfalls in the application of the method of testing collateral reading solely by means of written reports, the teacher would have to reduce the written work to an amount that would practically defeat all the purposes of collateral reading.

It would seem from the foregoing adverse criticisms of the various modes of checking collateral reading listed in Table IV

that there is no way to test the work which is not fraught with a multitude of dangers. The situation, however, is not so hopeless as it at first seems. A way out of the difficulty is a scheme that will combine all the good qualities in each of the modes thus far discussed and eliminate as many of the objectionable ones as is possible. One scheme whereby this can be done is the following: Plan the collateral reading so that it will be a necessary and integral part of the daily work. In doing this it will be found that the majority of the reading will be of two types, namely, readings on special topics required daily of three or four students and readings assigned to the class as a whole. Readings given out one day will be tested the next during the recitation period. If a student makes an acceptable report on the special topic assigned him, there is no need of further testing. Since but one or two of these reports can be given each day, it will be necessary to find other methods of testing those who make no special reports. There are two effective ways to do this. One is to conduct the recitation so as to make successful reciting depend upon thorough preparation of the extra reading assigned. This test would in all probability reach the majority of the class. To make sure, however, that no one escapes, it had better be supplemented by one that is sure to include all. Of necessity any mode of testing that will affect all will be administered through written reports to be handed in. These can be in the form of outlines, digests, or summaries and should give the opportunity for the pupil to apply what he has been taught in English and elsewhere concerning these forms of written work. One way to report this kind of work is on a card about 4" x 6" in size. This plan prevents long reports and at the same time is well adapted to the making of outlines, synopses, and digests. All of one side of the card and a part of the other should be reserved entirely for the student's notes, the remainder containing such items as appear on the example given on the following page:

HISTORY READING CARD

Date ----- Name-----

References Read

Author	Title of Book or Article	Pages

Subject : -----

Using a card like that on page 195, the student would begin his notes on the page just below the subject or topic on which he is reading, and continue them on the other side of the card. This would provide all the space that should be used in making reports such as the ones contemplated here. These cards would be handed in the next day following the assignment of the reading. Students should be permitted to retain their cards until the close of the class period in order that they may be encouraged to use in reciting the data they have thus collected. As long as these cards are satisfactory they should not be returned, and they should be destroyed at the end of each semester. A few of the best ones might be retained for examples to use in connection with teaching beginning classes how to use them. One way to make sure that cards will come in regularly is to devise a scheme of grading which will make passing in the course next to impossible when they are neglected. Let the students understand the plan at the beginning of the semester. They will then feel that history-reading cards regularly handed in are a part of the work that must be done, just the same as taking examinations, making maps, and reciting when called upon.

There are legitimate kinds of collateral reading that cannot be checked by the foregoing scheme, the chief ones being historical fiction and other readings chiefly for pleasure and historical setting, and the reading done in connection with writing a term paper. This latter kind needs no other test than the finished product. All of the former, if time permits, should be tested in personal interviews. If this method is not practical, a written test of a general character is the next best scheme. Questions like the following might be asked in a test of this nature: Did you like the book? Would you advise others to read it? Why? Describe a principal character, or an event which shows the historical value of the book. It should always be kept in mind that this type of work aims primarily to foster the habit of reading with pleasure historical

literature of this character and that the enjoyment should not be neutralized by the dread of a test that is somewhere in the future.

ADDITIONAL READING MATTER

- BOTSFORD, G. W. "The Choice and Use of Books relating to the History of Greece," *History Teacher's Magazine*, V (1914), 171 ff.
- BOURNE, H. E. "The School and the Library," *The Teaching of History and Civics in the Elementary and Secondary Schools*, chap. viii. Longmans, Green & Co., 1903.
- DURBIN, E. C. "Reference Libraries for Ancient History in the High Schools," *School Review*, XII (1914), 109 ff.
- EVANS, JESSIE C. "How to make Definite a Reference Course in History in High Schools," *Seventh Annual Convention of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland*, pp. 12 ff., March, 1909.
- FULWIDER, L. A. "High School Texts and Equipment in History," *Mississippi Valley Historical Association Proceedings*, IV (1910-1911), 245 ff.
- GARRETT, M. B. "Testing Collateral Reading," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VII (1916), 53 ff.
- GUTCH, MILTON R. "Efficiency in Supplementary Reading," *The Texas History Teacher's Bulletin*, II (1913), 3 ff.
- HOOVER, T. N. "History Material and its Keeping," *History Teacher's Magazine*, III (1911), 4 f.
- JOHNSON, HENRY. "The Selection and Management of Collateral Reading," *The Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools*, chap. xiii. The Macmillan Company, 1915.
- JOHNSON, W. D. "The Library and History Study," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VI (1915), 31 ff.
- NESTOR, IRA F. "Library Work and Collateral Reading," *History Teacher's Magazine*, V (1914), 53 ff.
- PERKINS, CLARENCE. "Reference Work in High-School History Courses," *History Teacher's Magazine*, II (1911), 123 ff.
- PITTS, LEMUEL. "Are History Libraries used to Best Advantage?" *History Teacher's Magazine*, VII (1916), 55 f.
- ROBINSON, E. V. "Topics for Supplementary Reading and Discussion in United States History," *School Review*, V (1897), 302 ff.
- SHORTRIDGE, W. P. "Testing Collateral Reading," *History Teacher's Magazine*, III (1912), 19.

- SHOW, A. B. "History Reference Library for High Schools," *History Teacher's Magazine*, III (1912), 79 ff.
- SMITH, MARY S. "How to utilize the Library in High-School History," *History Teacher's Magazine*, V (1914), 139 f.
- SMITH, P. T. "Collateral Reading in Recent American History," *History Teacher's Magazine*, IX (1918), 202 ff.
- WUESTHOFF, W. W. "What should we attempt in Collateral Reading and how shall we test it?" *History Teacher's Magazine*, VIII (1917), 129 ff.

CHAPTER X

TEACHING CURRENT EVENTS IN CONNECTION WITH HIGH-SCHOOL HISTORY

Since the fall of 1914 there has been increasing stress on the teaching of current events in connection with history and English, especially history. The World War, of course, was the big impelling force behind this augmented attention to present-day happenings. Even before the outbreak of the war, however, many educators and a few history teachers had come to feel that too much emphasis in high-school history teaching was placed in the remote past at the expense of the present. With such a feeling quite prevalent and the impelling force at hand, there is no occasion for surprise at the heightened emphasis given to current topics in connection with high-school history during the past few years.

NEED AND VALUE OF CURRENT-EVENT STUDY

The statement is often made concerning much of the material taught in present-day history courses that it is totally lacking in personal appeal. Too many pupils have the same feeling about the events and personages in far-away times, as had Mike in a little story told on one occasion by Professor Muzzey. As the story goes, the Professor's colleague was trying to impress upon a class of settlement boys the awful character of Nero. He told them how Nero had poisoned his courtiers, kicked his wife, killed his mother, and how he had longed to sever the heads of all his subjects with a single stroke of the axe. Then turning to Mike, to get his reaction, he

asked, "Well, Mike, what do you think of this man Nero?" Mike roused himself sufficiently to draw out, "Huh, he never done nothing to me!" The absolute lack of a personal appeal in the case of Mike in this story finds its counterpart in much history work today. It is to give to history this much-to-be-desired personal appeal that current-event work has been brought into the history classes.

Another need which the teaching of current events can be made to meet is the one of making history teaching concrete and objective. One of the fundamental criteria for judging good history teaching is the opportunity given the pupils during the progress of their work to do concrete and objective thinking. By noting comparisons and contrasts in past and present-day life, by seeing the beginnings in the past of our present-day institutions and customs, and by the constant illumination of the past by means of the present, and vice versa, the students are afforded much opportunity for concrete and objective thinking—something greatly needed because of the abstract nature of so much of the material with which the students work.

If one views current-event work in history courses from the angle of its value, there are at hand considerations by both teachers and pupils. The chief values attributed to this work by enthusiastic teachers are that it gives the pupils an insight into history in the making, correlates present-day problems with the past, helps the pupils to discover present-day interests and tendencies; that such work is near to the pupils, practical, and in constant demand; that a knowledge of his relation to current happenings is of first importance to a good citizen; that current-event work gives excellent training in acquiring knowledge; that interest in any work is of prime importance, and current-event study tends to create and sustain an interest in the history work; that it gives opportunity to evaluate a magazine or newspaper article and decide upon its true worth, thus preventing an acceptance of everything read; that it

develops in the pupils the power of expression and the ability to make themselves clear and interesting to companions; that after thorough training in current-event work the pupils will as citizens take increased and active interest in civic and political affairs; that, by showing the pupils that most questions have two sides and therefore need much study, it fosters the habit of considering questions from the standpoint of reason and judgment; and that it acquaints young people with the right sort of current literature to read.

This array of values of current-event work gives but half of the story. What do students themselves think of its value? Fortunately a number of answers to this question are at hand. After pursuing current-event work for a time, some high-school students when asked concerning its value replied:

1. It not only gives you an idea of what is going on around you but it also gives you a feeling that it is your duty to find out what is going on in your city, state, and nation, and among the nations.

2. It gets one into the habit of reading about important topics, a habit that is pretty hard to get rid of, and one that we don't want to get rid of.

3. It enables one to find out what is going on in foreign countries, and shows the attitude of our country toward other countries.

4. It makes better citizens because pupils begin to look into matters and they will be apt to continue doing so, which will mean that they will not vote a certain party ticket because their fathers did.

5. It prepares one for a respectable standing among intelligent men, and enables one to talk about politics and understand when others are talking about the government and daily occurrences.

6. Perhaps the greatest and most forcible reason for studying current events is that to be an intelligent voter one must have a clear idea of the great issues of the day, which can be gained (practically speaking) in no other way than by a study of current events and movements.¹

¹ Gathany, "How I teach Current Events," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VII, 25.

THE PROBLEMS OF PLACE, TIME, AND TOPICS

Having convinced himself that there is immense value in a systematic study of current events in connection with the work in history, the teacher is ready to consider some other matters. Let us suppose that it is the question of the particular class in which to teach the work and the time to devote to it. At the present time it is quite common to do some current-event work in all high-school history classes. Other practices are to carry on the work in conjunction with American history only, or civics only, or American history and civics only, devoting one period a week to it. On the matter both of the class in which to do the work and of the time to devote to it the following general rules seem reasonable.

1. Do some current-event work in connection with all high-school classes in history and in civics.

2. Give the work a definite place and time on the program, preferably one period a week.

3. Vary the work to fit the needs and capacities of each class; use one method of conducting it with one class and a different method with another. Let the work exemplify the principle of progress within the subject.

4. Besides the regular day devoted to the work give it some attention by way of application during the regular history work when opportunity affords.

The problem of determining the present-day topics with which junior and senior high-school pupils should be familiar is by no means an easy one to solve satisfactorily. One way to settle the matter is simply to let the magazines and newspapers determine week by week or month by month what topics to consider. Another and more systematic mode of procedure is to examine the local, state, and cosmopolitan papers covering a definite period and discover if possible the topics most consistently before the public, hence the ones about which citizens should be best informed. To illustrate what is meant

by a study of this type, Table V (p. 204) is given. The time covered in the table is one year and eight months, beginning in July, 1913, and ending in March, 1915. The table shows results obtained from an examination of 138 daily papers, ranging in size from small dailies to such papers as the *New York Times*.

A good plan would be to make a study similar to Mr. Garth's with one class each year, preferably the most advanced one. The results of these studies, if kept from year to year, could be used as a guide in selecting the topics to be considered in the lower classes. The actual training gained from this work would well pay the class for making it. If one adds the social value resulting therefrom to the personal gain, the sum total of the results would justify the study.

POSSIBLE METHODS OF PROCEDURE

Since some current-event work is to be done in each history class, the method of procedure becomes a very important consideration. If there is any advance in the quality of the work from year to year, it will have to be secured largely through the way of presenting it. It may be possible to find a method, for instance, that is especially adapted to each of the junior high-school grades and to each of the senior high-school grades as well. A survey of the various methods used by teachers may throw some light on this rather intricate problem.

The committee method. A tentative outline which will cover the main issues before the public as discovered through an examination of periodicals and daily newspapers is first mapped out, the class having a part in this work. On the basis of the general outline thus made, a committee is appointed to be responsible for each main topic. For example, the topics might be "Men and Women before the Public," "Capital and Labor," "Science and Invention," "Literature and Art," "International Events of Importance," "Religion and Education," "Events of a State and Local Character."

TABLE V. RELATIVE STRENGTH OF INTERESTS OPERATING IN SOCIETY AS DETERMINED FROM WHAT APPEARS IN THE DAILY NEWSPAPERS¹

TOPIC	AVERAGE PERCENTAGE OF SPACE DEVOTED TO TOPIC
1. War	14.00
2. Sports	10.14
3. Government	10.00
4. Business	7.7
5. Finance	6.22
6. Crime	6.14
7. Politics	5.7
8. Education	3.61
9. Deaths and Births	3.60
10. Society	3.61
11. Safety and Accidents	2.8
12. Noted Persons	2.7
13. Industries	2.22
14. Religion	2.00
15. Literature	1.8
16. Persons not Noted	1.8
17. Agriculture	1.7
18. Theater	1.5
19. Marriage	1.3
20. Benevolence	1.21
21. Improvements	1.20
22. Weather	1.1
23. Jokes9
24. Household Arts9
25. Science and Discovery8
26. Fashion7
27. Amusements and Recreation6
28. Exposition6
29. Divorce4
30. Invention4
31. Transportation3
32. Art2

¹ Compiled from data collected by T. R. Garth and published in *School and Society*, III, 140 f.

This list would demand seven committees. Some of these committees would report once a week and others once a month. The exact arrangement would be determined by the quantity of material available on the various topics as the work moves along. The recitation in carrying out this method of procedure would consist of committee reports, usually by the chairman, the report being based on work done by the entire committee. If five committees were to report on a certain day, a definite time apportionment should be used so that one or two of them would not consume all the time. In order that each member of the class may be familiarized with the character of the material that he must read in following each general topic for a month or so, the personnel of the committees should be changed from time to time.¹

The report method. Each pupil is required to choose a subject which he will follow for a week or so and on which he will report the results of his study to the class. Concrete information given in definite statements, based on an outline previously approved by the teacher, is demanded. This outline should be in such a form as to make it possible for the class to copy and to use it as a basis for note-taking on the report. The entire class is held responsible for the contents of each report. Two or more pupils may select the same topic, thus making possible some lively discussion of the report when given.

The historical method. The teacher selects some important local, national, or international topic to be followed closely for several weeks. In this case the outlining of the work is done by the instructor. Assignments are made in about the same way as in the regular history work. In pursuit of this plan the material used will necessarily be a week or more old, because the teacher must know the subject matter before he can outline it. This method seems particularly well fitted

¹ Kirk, "A Class in Current Events," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VII, 97 f.

to topics which require some historical background in order to be thoroughly understood and fully appreciated by the pupil.

The notebook method. Each member of the class is required to bring in once a week a digest of some eight or ten events of his own choosing. These digests are placed in a permanent current-event notebook along with suitable clippings and apt illustrations when they can be secured. The notebook work is arranged according to some definite plan such as the following:

- I. Local events (in the town, city, or state)
 - A. Name of the event
 1. Reference
 2. Digest of the event
 - B. Arrangement as under A
 - C. Arrangement as under A
- II. National events
 - A. Name of the event
 1. Reference
 2. Digest of the event
 - B. Arrangement as under A
 - C. Arrangement as under A
- III. International and foreign events
 - A. Name of the event
 1. Reference
 2. Digest of the event
 - B. Arrangement as under A
 - C. Arrangement as under A¹

The informal method. All restraints and definite requirements are removed from the work, each pupil simply being held responsible for a concise report on some event on the day set aside for the work. The recitation is carried on in the form of a roll-call, each member of the class responding with a brief report on some one of the week's happenings. This

¹ Gathany, "Using Magazines in History Classes," *Outlook* (August 24, 1914), pp. 1053 f.

method, it will be observed, places the chief emphasis on habit formation rather than on information. Its chief merits are an absence of formality and its similarity to what people do in actual life (that is, they read what they please and talk about what they read if it interests them).

The textbook method. Whenever a periodical is used as a text, certain portions are set aside each week for discussion. All pupils are held responsible for the material, just as they are in their history texts. The recitations are conducted in about the same manner as in the regular history work. Magazines which have definite sections lend themselves to this method. For example, one week a "Review of the World" would be considered; following this, "Persons in the Foreground"; the next, "Science and Invention"; and the fourth, "Religion, Literature, Education, and Art." The advantages here are that the teacher can assign definite tasks and demand their performance, also a unity is found in the work which is too often absent under some other plans.

Reports-on-assigned-topics method. When some current-event work is to be done every day, four or five pupils are excused from preparing the history lesson for the day and asked to report on some assigned current topic or topics. When the class assembles, the regular history lesson is first disposed of, say in twenty or twenty-five minutes, the remainder of the time being devoted to reports on the assigned current topics. The entire class keeps the results of these reports in permanent notebooks. The general outline of each topic is given in advance by the teacher, thus leaving only the details to be inserted when the reports are actually made.¹

No doubt the wide-awake and interested teacher will discover other and probably better ways of conducting current-event work than those described above. There are, of course, favorable and unfavorable things to be said concerning almost any procedure, as there seems to be no best one. The main

¹ Gathany, "Using Magazines in History Classes," op. cit. p. 1054.

points to be made in this connection, however, are (1) that the teacher should have a well-formulated plan for the work, one that is thoroughly understood both by himself and by the pupils; and (2) that there must be some gradation in the methods used in lower and upper classes, which is another way of saying that the method must be adapted to the class using it, and that the one employed in the most advanced class should use all of the knowledge and training acquired through the methods previously employed.

THE MAGAZINE TO USE

In all probability there is no one best magazine to use in connection with the study of current events. The following criteria for judging the fitness of a periodical for this work have been proposed: (1) the use of precise and exact English; (2) clearness and definiteness in presentation; (3) unquestioned scholarship; (4) painstaking care in giving to its readers only trustworthy and authoritative information; (5) lack of partisanship; (6) an aggressive policy for public good; and (7) the periodical's power and purpose to arouse public conscience.¹ Most people will concede that these are worthy and well-stated standards, but when it comes to applying them to magazines in general one encounters some seemingly insuperable obstacles. It would be difficult to find a respectable magazine that does not claim to embody each of Mr. Gathany's essential characteristics in the superlative degree. In spite of this fact, however, and the special attempt of some magazines to cater to these demands as well, to date there is no periodical in the field, printed wholly for use in current-topic work, that is entirely satisfactory. The magazines claiming this distinction have simply added a section which offers suggestions for using the material that they have always been printing. The thought here is that the major articles in these magazines are

¹ Gathany, "Using Magazines in History Classes," *op. cit.* p. 1053

not prepared as textbooks are, with the idea that they are to be used exclusively by high-school pupils of a certain maturity. If magazines ever attain the success that they should in presenting material adapted to high-school students, they will have to displace their general audience with a limited one. Until they do this the teacher will have to do what has been done in the past in respect to the magazine to use in current-event work, namely, use the one most available, as there is little or no difference in the quality and quantity of material or the level on which it is written when one considers the magazines that are making any special efforts to appeal to those interested in current-event study. However, before one can decide upon *the* magazine to use, there is another question which must be settled, namely, whether the periodical is to be a weekly or a monthly. Let us examine the claims of each of these.

In favor of the weekly periodical it can be said that if regularly done once a week, current-event work adapts itself admirably to such a plan. The articles are likely to be up to the minute and rather brief. The most significant happenings in so far as they can be determined at so short a range are also found in most weekly periodicals. The chief objections to the permanent use of weeklies are that they generally depend upon newspapers for their news, hence are subject to the same pitfalls, only to a less degree, as newspapers; the articles appearing in them are not usually of permanent value; topics treated are usually incomplete and not fully developed; the general make-up of the periodicals as a whole is not especially appealing to high-school pupils; and they contain few or no illustrations, many quotations, and a general lack of continuity in treatment, since most of the material is in the form of a survey.

In favor of the monthly periodical the following statements may be made: It contains a large variety of articles by different authors; the style of the articles usually appeals to the

high-school students because it is more like what they are accustomed to; it is usually profusely illustrated and therefore likely to attract and hold young readers; the articles are often of permanent value, because they are written by individuals possessing first-hand knowledge; the nature of the material offers many opportunities for the teacher to make historic and economic parallels; and, because topics have a full month to develop, the treatment can approximate completeness and maturity. As for the objections to monthly magazines, it may be said that when one period a week is devoted to the work, the student is likely to lose interest in the succeeding three weeks. There is a tendency to want to be more nearly up to the minute in everyday occurrences. To wait a whole month for important and exciting news is too much to expect. It is also true that many of the articles in a monthly magazine are written far in advance of their publication. Such articles, of course, are those having more or less permanent value, and they are more useful as supplementary reading matter in connection with courses in geography, history, or English.

There is no disposition in this discussion arbitrarily to settle the debatable questions relative to the best magazine for use in a course in current topics. The fact is that many teachers may never face such a problem, in as much as they will have to depend for material upon the magazines to which the pupils may chance to have access. This being the case, the problem assumes a different nature, namely, that of making the best possible use of the varied materials at the teacher's command.

In connection with this matter of what magazine to use there are two other considerations which deserve some thought on the part of the teacher. These are the preservation of certain types of material for future use and the study of magazines in general. As the current-topic work progresses from day to day there will appear many articles of historic value, which should be found and filed away for future reference. It would be well to let one class each semester specialize in the collection

and proper filing of this type of material. In this class it would be better not to rely wholly upon material from any one source of the weekly lessons. After a magazine has been used, ask the owner to donate it to the course. Occasionally throughout the semester certain days should be used for cutting out the articles worth preserving and binding them in a neat form for filing. The teacher, with the assistance of the class, should work out a definite system for filing and cataloguing this material. If this is done with intelligent care, it will be of inestimable value for future reference in all history and civics courses.

Before leaving high school each student should have the opportunity of a special study of magazines and newspapers. This work could be done in the same semester in which the preserving and filing of material are emphasized. These two things would go well together, since each demands access to a number of magazines for its successful operation. The chief things to emphasize in the study of magazines are the numerous types with some concrete examples of each, the nature and content of each type, and the chief characteristics of dailies, weeklies, and monthlies. The purpose of this work is thoroughly to acquaint the class with the various types of magazines so that the knowledge thus acquired will guide future magazine reading. It will also serve as a protection to some in the class who will have an opportunity to find out by a comparative study the best periodicals in any one field.

SOME DIFFICULTIES AND PRECAUTIONS

Before undertaking work with a class in current topics the teacher should know that there are certain difficulties which he is sure to encounter and that by knowing and heeding a few cautions and suggestions he may reduce them to a minimum. Chief among these difficulties are: (1) The work is likely to be disconnected, to lack unity, and to have few tangible results. (2) The importance of contemporary events is easily

overemphasized, because we are too near them to get a proper perspective; the student is likely to get the idea from newspaper and periodical accounts that most present-day happenings are as important as the French or the American Revolution. (3) Securing, using, and properly interpreting the sources of information are obstacles too great for an ordinary class to overcome. Because of these difficulties, few final conclusions can be made, which is somewhat unfortunate for young people who crave finality. (4) The results of the work do not lend themselves to the customary test used in history and civics. The complaint is often heard that pupils seem interested, but when any semblance of a test is administered they show dense ignorance of what they are supposed to know.

The following precautions and suggestions may help to solve and avoid some of the foregoing difficulties: (1) To keep the work from being scrappy and disconnected, center the attention of the class as far as possible on large problems as central themes, and correlate the minor events around them. Let the class always be informed as to the exact problem or problems under consideration; keep the information on each large problem separate; on finishing a topic summarize the knowledge gained in studying it. (2) Continually emphasize the difficulties connected with getting the proper perspective of history in the making. This may help to counteract the tendency to overemphasize certain present-day happenings. (3) Make the work so definite that it can be tested by means of the customary school tests. Definite assignments and regular tests will aid in this matter. If it is felt desirable, short weekly tests could be given, these in turn to be followed by a regular examination once in every five or six weeks. Of course it should be kept in mind that one big result which must come from this work can probably never be satisfactorily tested, namely, the habit of reading periodical literature and passing judgment on the contents thereof. (4) Change the method of conducting the work as soon as it is discovered that

the class is losing interest in the one in use. However, a method once undertaken with a class should be continued until it has been mastered. If interest seems to lag, it may be because the details of the method are not clear. (5) Make the work concrete by means of such devices as individual collections of clippings, pictures, and cartoons, and a bulletin-board for which the entire class is responsible. In order to keep up interest in the bulletin-board some attention should be given to it every day. The details of management might be placed in charge of a committee appointed by the class, said committee being held responsible for keeping the board filled with material directly related to the work the class is doing. Individuals may loan clippings, cartoons, and pictures to the committee for display purposes, these to be returned and properly filed when they have served their purpose on the bulletin-board.

ADDITIONAL READING MATTER

- ANDREWS, ARTHUR. "Some Suggestions as to the Use and Abuse of Current Events in History Classes," *History Teacher's Magazine*, IX (1918), 144 ff.
- BOYNTON, G. E. "The Use of Current Literature," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VII (1916), 95 ff.
- DUNCAN, D. SHAW. "Use of Magazines in History Teaching," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VIII (1917), 160 f.
- GATHANY, J. M. "Tying History to Life," *Outlook*, CXX (1918), 58 ff.; "Using Magazines in History Classes," *History Teacher's Magazine*, V (1914), 288 ff.; and "How I handle Current Events," *ibid.* VII (1916), 24 ff.
- GORE, ALVIN G. "Current Events in the High School," *Teaching*, III (1917), 22 ff.
- HENDRICKS, E. L. "A Course in Current History," *Mississippi Valley Historical Association Proceedings*, VI (1912-1913), 332 ff.
- KIRK, ANNIE B. "A Class in Current Events," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VII (1916), 97 f.
- NELSON, J. C. "Teaching of Contemporary History in the High School," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VI (1915), 82 ff.

CHAPTER XI

PLANNING THE COURSE AND THE LESSON

Successful teachers will testify to the fact that nothing brings such large returns both to themselves and to the pupils as a careful and detailed planning of an entire course long before it begins. The chief rewards to the teacher resulting from painstaking care in planning are the pleasure in seeing the work move along with smoothness and definiteness, freedom from the daily worry about things to do next, time for wide reading and search for material to make the work more concrete, time to grade written work, and the pleasure that comes from a piece of work well done. On the part of the pupils the most outstanding returns are the fact that they always know just what they are doing, the ease with which they group the main facts of the course, the enthusiasm and pleasure gained from a course in which they feel that they are succeeding, and the freedom from the floundering which too often accompanies courses where no one seems to know just what turn things are to take next. To obtain these ends for himself and his pupils the teacher must know what it really means to have the entire course as well as each lesson planned in detail. It is to a somewhat minute consideration of these matters that this chapter is devoted.

Generally speaking, efficient course planning in history involves some ten specific things: (1) objectives or attainments; (2) the general organization for teaching purposes of the field of history in question; (3) an overview of each main division of the field; (4) the six or eight maps to make, including the main features to be shown on each; (5) a list of

the significant personages to know and identify; (6) a list of the dates-events to remember; (7) the general and specific methods of procedure; (8) the analysis of some half-dozen textbooks in the field; (9) library and laboratory equipment; and (10) a detailed outline of each topic taught in the course according to some definite and workable scheme.

OBJECTIVES OR ATTAINMENTS

Under objectives and attainments will come two things: a statement of the particularized objectives or attainments of history in general and the same sort of a statement relative to the particular field of history being organized. Neither of these statements need to be known to the student except as the course reveals them to him as it proceeds from day to day. The writer has no dogmatic statement as to just what these objectives should be. A famous committee some twenty years ago said that the chief objectives in studying and teaching high-school history should be (1) to bring boys and girls to some knowledge of their environment; (2) to fit boys and girls to become intelligent citizens; (3) to cultivate the judgment; (4) to give power in arranging and systematizing facts; (5) to develop the scientific habit of mind and thought; (6) to furnish the opportunity for the student to acquire a store of valuable historical material; (7) to broaden the sympathies and lay the foundation for permanent and worthy refinement; (8) to give training in handling books; (9) to quicken, strengthen, and discipline the imagination; and (10) to afford training in good diction.¹ What high-school teachers themselves claim as the aims or objectives in the four traditional fields of history is found in Table VI (p. 216).

Additional tabulations of objectives could be given, but since they would be more or less a repetition of the preceding two, their inclusion here would contribute nothing to the discussion.

¹ Committee of Seven, *The Study of History in Schools* (1898), pp. 16 ff.

TABLE VI. PERCENTAGE OF CONCURRENCE OF TEACHERS OF HISTORY IN AIMS LISTED IN THE INQUIRY CONDUCTED BY DR. LEONARD KOOS¹

AIMS	ANCIENT HISTORY	MEDIEVAL AND MODERN HISTORY	ENGLISH HISTORY	AMERICAN HISTORY
1. To master the text	59.2	44.2	52.9	46.2
2. To cultivate the power of handling facts	85.9	78.9	82.4	81.7
3. To develop the spirit of nationalism	42.3	40.4	47.1	70.2
4. To cultivate "reconstructive imagination"	59.2	55.8	82.4	59.6
5. To equip the student with a store of historical information	62.0	65.4	64.7	57.7
6. To develop the "faculty of discrimination"	67.6	75.0	94.1	82.7
7. To promote good citizenship	73.2	69.2	70.6	93.3
8. To develop ability in speech, oral and written	76.1	65.4	58.8	76.0
9. To inspire with a love of reading	63.4	75.0	70.6	63.5
10. To teach the use of books .	74.6	82.7	82.4	74.0

Furthermore, little other than mere opinion is represented in either of the two preceding lists, as would be the case in additional ones that might be given. While the history teacher is waiting for the objectives in his subject to be scientifically determined, he will have to select from the unscientifically determined ones those he thinks of most value and see that he accomplishes them through his teaching. If he thinks it a desirable thing to do, however, he can set up specific objectives for each course, these being stated in terms of the general organization. That is, he can say just what each student on completing any particular course must know and be able to do. For example, a list of these particularized requirements would

¹ *Administration of Secondary-School Units*, p. 105.

include certain maps to make, personages to know, dates-events to remember, an overview to know, and a number of books relating to the subject with which to be familiar. These specific objectives would add definiteness to the work and in a measure offset the indefinite ends which are usually given for the subject of history.

GENERAL ORGANIZATION FOR TEACHING PURPOSES

The general organization for teaching purposes of any field of history includes three things: the name and date boundary of the six or eight main divisions, the percentage of time to be given to each division, and the six or eight leading topics under each big division. To explain what is meant by each of these the field of American history will be used as an example.

First, as to the general organization of the field and the percentage of time to be devoted to each main division: There are certain prerequisites or principles which should guide one in organizing the field of American history, or any field for that matter, for teaching purposes. Chief among these are the number, length, date boundaries, and names of the main divisions. The name must suggest the dominant movements or characteristics of the period and must likewise be short enough to be held in mind without difficulty. The date boundary must mark, roughly at least, the beginning and the end of the movement. Each division must be long enough to illustrate progress and development, but not so long as to make it difficult for the pupil to keep its chief characteristics well in mind. All of these will in a measure determine the number of divisions, which should be neither too few nor too many. If there are too few divisions, the pupil will be troubled with the complexities they contain; if too many, he will have difficulty in keeping them in mind at all stages of his progress through the course. To illustrate these prerequisites the following organization of American history for teaching purposes in the junior high school is submitted:

GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF AMERICAN HISTORY FOR
TEACHING PURPOSES IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

NAME AND DATE BOUNDARY OF EACH LARGE DIVISION	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL TIME GIVEN
I. Perspective and introductory view—factors affecting early American history	10
II. The period of discovery and exploration, 1492-1607	8
III. Colonization and the struggle for supremacy in North America, 1607-1763	22
IV. Revolution and the establishment of the American nation, 1763-1789	10
V. Nationalism and democracy, 1789-1829	12
VI. Expansion and conflict, 1829-1865	16
VII. Reconstruction and consolidation, 1865-1897	17
VIII. National expansion and the new democracy, 1897 to present time	<u>5</u>
	100

To explain what is meant by the six or eight leading topics under each main division, let us take the first two of the divisions given above. When worked out for teaching purposes the general outline of these two divisions would be:

- I. Perspective and introductory view—factors affecting early American history.
 - A. Overview story of the entire course.
 - B. Physical features of eastern North America.
 - C. The North American Indians.
 - D. European background of American history.
- II. The period of discovery and exploration, 1492-1607.
 - A. Spain and her activities.
 - B. Portuguese attempts and accomplishments.
 - C. English explorations.
 - D. French explorations and discoveries.
 - E. Rival claims to North America in about 1650.

When the teacher has completed the remaining division of the field in a similar manner, or else thrown two periods

together and selected topics running through both of them, or some other practical and definite way, and decided upon the approximate amount of time each leading topic is to receive of the time devoted to the main division, he has completed the first step in organizing the course in American history for teaching purposes. On the basis of all these accomplishments he is now ready to undertake another phase of the work.

MAPS TO MAKE

On completing the work relative to the general organization of the field the teacher may next take up the matter of maps to make, or, if he prefers, the list of personages to know, or the dates-events to remember. Let us suppose he begins on the maps. On thinking through each main division of the field he will decide upon the minimum amount of map work necessary to make the historical geography clear. The number of individual maps need not be large. On an average one for each main division is a very safe rule. After deciding the number of maps necessary, the name for each is the next problem to be solved. Much thought can profitably be spent on the names for the various maps, since each is to be so learned that it can be reproduced at any subsequent time. The following list of maps for American history in upper elementary grades and junior high school illustrate what is meant here.

NAMES OF MAPS TO MAKE IN AMERICAN HISTORY

- I. North America North of Mexico—Physical Features and Indians.
- II. Discovery and Exploration.
- III. Conflicting Claims of Territory in 1650.
- IV. Progress of Settlement to 1750.
- V. North America North of Mexico in 1763.
- VI. The United States in 1790.
- VII. Progressive Territorial Map of the United States to 1853.
- VIII. Admission of States and the Status of Slavery to 1860.
- IX. The United States and her Possessions Today.

The value and importance of map work in history is sufficient to justify the teacher's spending considerable time on it. On the value and use of the outline map in history teaching there is probably no clearer statement than that of Harding when he says :

The filling in from time to time of outline maps to show the geography of a period or a movement is almost indispensable to sound historical knowledge. Nowhere else, perhaps, will the principle of "learning by doing" be found so sound pedagogically. Accuracy of locations should be insisted upon, for the deviation of a quarter of an inch on the pupil's map will often mean a difference of a hundred miles or more on the earth's surface. Water colors, wax crayons, or pastels can be used for coloring; but some instruction should be given in their technique.

Finally, as a means of testing the pupil's knowledge, they should at examination time or on other occasions be required to show from memory, on blank outline maps furnished them, some of the chief historical locations which they have been studying. Probably there is no other device which will more certainly make for thorough map study, both in their textbooks and in this series. It is only fair, however, that this requirement should be announced beforehand, and fairness also demands that too much should not be made of it. What the wise teacher will demand is *understanding*—first, last, and all the time; but if the study of history is to be of permanent value, as much accuracy and definiteness of detail as is possible should be combined with this.¹

The second part of Harding's excellent statement indicates the objective to be reached in the map work under discussion here. On completing a course each student should be able to fill in from memory each outline map he has been required to make during the course. The number of maps in each case should be kept low enough to make this demand reasonable. Of course, temporary maps may be made from time to time to illustrate and make concrete specific historical movements.

¹ *A Teacher's Manual accompanying the Harding European History Maps*, pp. 12 f.

These, however, should not be confused with the permanent maps which the student must know. Generally speaking, the temporary maps will be made as the work moves along from day to day, and the few permanent ones after the study of a specific period has been completed.

Since the few permanent maps are to be filled in with much care and as accurately as possible, specific instructions for the work had better be given the pupils. Directions similar to the following might be used.¹

1. Print neatly with pen and ink all names, dates, descriptions, and explanations. No script must appear on the finished map.
2. Locate and name the physical features called for in connection with each map. These include rivers, mountain ranges, bodies of water, highlands, mountain passes, and the like.
3. Trace with pen as needed boundaries of countries, territorial results of treaties, routes of lines of march, invasions, explorations, movements of population, and similar historical data.
4. Locate and name as needed political areas, cities, towns, and other political features.
5. Descriptions and explanations must be done briefly and with care. Place them in the lower left-hand corner.
6. Use color sparingly. With a little practice and ingenuity you can do the whole map in ink.
7. Place your own name in the lower right-hand corner.

By following these or similar directions to the letter a class will soon be producing maps of a uniformly high grade. That there may be no waste of effort, as much of the work as possible should be done under the guidance of the teacher. This is especially true of beginning classes. Since no course will be overburdened with historical map-making, the teacher can well afford to take the recitation time for some of this work if no special laboratory periods are provided.

¹ For valuable suggestions along this line see Bishop and Robinson, *Practical Map Exercises in Medieval and Modern European History*, Ginn and Company, 1920.

DATES-EVENTS TO KNOW AND REMEMBER

History teaching has often been criticized adversely because it consisted of little else than learning and reciting a long list of unrelated facts. For this reason many teachers are somewhat timid when it comes to asking their pupils actually to learn a list of dates-events, however short. There are, on the other hand, many teachers who feel that since time is one of the chief elements of history it becomes very necessary to learn a few dates along with the events they mark and the full significance of each in order to have the necessary historical guideposts to direct the pupil along his journey and through any particular course. It is with this latter feeling that the teacher should enter upon the work of preparing a minimum list of dates-events to be learned and remembered in connection with each field of history.

There are a number of ways to determine the list of dates-events for any particular field of history. First, the teacher might make a list which he feels necessary to teach in connection with the general organization he has decided upon. After completing this he could turn to all the textbooks in the field in question and make a list based on the suggestions found therein. He could then turn to syllabuses and courses of study in the field; also ask his fellow teachers and noted historians to submit lists. He might, furthermore, examine current literature to find what dates-events occur again and again there; and finally, he might, as he would in the field of American history, turn to some lists already made by committees of teachers. Since no teacher will have time to make a list based on all these methods of procedure, he will either have to use the one he makes himself with little or no assistance, or adopt one made by a committee¹ or an individual.

¹ In the field of American history the teacher will find a list of dates-events proposed by a committee of which the writer was chairman. For the complete report of this committee see either the *School Review*, September, 1918, or the *Historical Outlook*, November, 1918.

While the teacher should have the list of dates-events made up before beginning any particular course, it should not in all probability be given the pupils at the outset. An effective method of procedure in this connection is to let the pupils feel that they have some part in making the list. For example, on finishing the period of Expansion and Conflict in American history a retrospective view of it could be made. This would include among other things the selection of the dates-events falling within the period which seem worth remembering. If the teacher has taught the period with these well in mind and given each proper emphasis, the class can be relied upon to name and discuss them when given the opportunity. Such a procedure will save this sort of work from the formal character which it too often possesses.

HISTORICAL PERSONAGES TO KNOW AND IDENTIFY

Similar to the problem of selecting a list of dates-events is that of deciding upon the historical personages to know and identify. In this case, however, there are certain complexities not found in the making of the dates-events list. It seems necessary to make for each course two lists of personages to know and remember rather than one. One could designate these lists with the terms "long" and "short." The latter would include from twenty to thirty personages in each course with whom the student would be expected to become well acquainted. In the junior high school, students should be able to write a statement of approximately 200 words in length about each character on the short list. These statements should be written as the course progresses and the characters appear. No references will be needed in preparing them, provided the teacher duly emphasizes the work of each personage about whom he wishes such a statement to be written. The long list will include individuals for identification only. The following is an example of what is meant by the short list.

PERSONAGES TO KNOW AND IDENTIFY IN AMERICAN HISTORY

At the end of the junior high-school course the student should be able to write a statement of about 200 words in length about each of the following :

Samuel Adams	General Lafayette
Thomas H. Benton	La Salle
Daniel Boone	Robert E. Lee
John C. Calhoun	Abraham Lincoln
Henry Clay	James Madison
Christopher Columbus	John Marshall
Jefferson Davis	William McKinley
Dorothea Dix	James Monroe
Stephen A. Douglas	Samuel F. B. Morse
Cyrus W. Field	William Penn
Benjamin Franklin	William Pitt
Robert Fulton	Theodore Roosevelt
Ulysses S. Grant	Harriet Beecher Stowe
Alexander Hamilton	George Washington
Patrick Henry	Daniel Webster
Andrew Jackson	Eli Whitney ¹
Thomas Jefferson	

The lists of historical personages would be used in about the same way as a list of dates-events. Neither of them should be given the pupils on beginning the course, since they are more for the use of the teacher than of the students. Just as the student should be able to make a list of the most important dates-events on completing the period of Expansion and Conflict in American history, so should he be able to make a short and a long list of historical personages. The character of this performance will, of course, depend upon the emphasis the teacher places on certain individuals as he teaches the period. In most cases it will be worth while

¹ *School Review*, XXVI, 7; also *Historical Outlook*, IX, 445. A long list in the same field may be found here also.

to have each member of the class actually write the 200-word statement about each of the most significant personages whose work falls within the period. The following is an example of what a statement of approximately 200 words about Henry Clay might contain. It will be observed that it is more than a tabulation of abstract uninteresting and unimportant biographical facts.

HENRY CLAY

Henry Clay was a prominent character in American history through the latter half of the period we have called Nationalism and Democracy and most of the period designated as Expansion and Conflict, 1820-1865. He first came into prominence in connection with the War of 1812, being one of the main leaders in bringing it on and one of our representatives at the peace table which ended it. He did his first work as a great compromiser in 1820 in connection with the Missouri Compromise. He was also prominent in bringing about two other great compromises, in the controversies over the tariff in the early thirties and the Great Compromise of 1850.

In his day Clay was known as a Westerner, being from Kentucky. Throughout his political career he worked first for the nation as a whole and second for the West. He was a staunch advocate of internal improvements and a protective tariff, both of which he felt were needed by the West. His chief ambition in life he never attained, namely, the election to the office of president of his country, for which he always seemed to be running. Even though he did not reach the object of his life's ambition and have the opportunity of serving his country in the capacity of president, he gained sufficient distinction in his capacity as Speaker of the House of Representatives, as Secretary of State, and as senator to place him among the most distinguished men of his time.

The following are some statements which satisfy the demands of the term "identify" used in speaking of the long list of personages:

1. Benjamin Harrison was president from 1889 to 1893. He was defeated for reëlection by Grover Cleveland, whom he had defeated in 1888.

2. Cyrus McCormick invented the reaper, which in time revolutionized the methods of harvesting small grains.

3. Sir Francis Drake was the first Englishman to circumnavigate the globe.

4. Horace Mann was a great educational reformer, doing his work in the latter part of the period of Expansion and Conflict.

5. Sir William Johnson was the great Indian Agent who did so much to keep the Iroquois Indians on the side of the English during the French and Indian War.

THE OVERVIEW OF THE ENTIRE FIELD

The overview should be in narrative form, the general organization of the field being the outline to follow in preparing it. In all probability there should be two of these narratives, a brief one and a long one. The first is for use in beginning the course, the second in ending it. The teacher should actually write out the short story, but not necessarily the long one, because each pupil will be able to make a long story of his own. The following story of one of the main divisions of American history will give an idea of what the long story should contain. The teacher will have little difficulty in formulating a short story based on it.¹

A STORY OF THE PERIOD OF DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION, 1492-1607

What we now know as North America was discovered in the year A.D. 1000 by some missionaries from Norway on their way to Greenland, which had been discovered some years prior to this date. Leif Ericson, sometimes known as Leif the Lucky and Leif, son of Eric the Red, was the leader of this holy expedition. The

¹ The best short story of the entire field of American history that has come to the writer's attention is Eva March Tappan's *Little Book of Our Country*, published in 1919 by Association Press, 347 Madison Avenue, New York.

name "Vinland" was given to the land discovered, because of the abundance of grapes growing there. It is generally agreed, however, that it must have been somewhere in the neighborhood of what is now Nova Scotia or New England, and that to Leif, son of Eric the Red, belongs the honor of having first discovered the New World.

We best know these brave and adventurous sailors from Norway, Sweden, and Denmark by the name Northmen, who during the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth centuries made many cruises to the western lands. Some settlements were made in Iceland and Greenland and probably in Vinland. While these voyages and settlements were probably known to the people of southern and southwestern Europe, they seem to have had no permanent interest in them. This is explained by the fact that Europe during the three centuries prior to 1600 had its face turned eastward rather than westward. The early Crusades established eastern connections, which were kept up for two or more centuries. A great trade in both natural and manufactured products sprang up between Europe and the Mohammedan lands. The cities of Genoa and Venice, in Italy, were the European terminals of this vast eastern trade. From these two cities all western Europe received many of life's luxuries, and a multitude of men grew vastly rich in handling them.

Up to 1453 Constantinople was in the hands of the Christians. The Crusades had failed permanently to check the westward march of the Mohammedans; so when they captured this city much of Europe's trade with the Far East was destroyed. The Italian cities began at once to decline in importance. The center of navigation now moved to Lisbon, Portugal, and Palos, Spain. Both of these nations now began the race to the East Indies by a new and all-sea route. Through the inspiration of Henry the Navigator, Dias reached the southern extremity of Africa, and in 1497 the journey was completed under the leadership of Vasco da Gama, who reached Calicut, India, in this year.

While the king of Portugal was straining his commercial resources to discover a new and all-water route to the East Indies, the king and queen of Spain were not entirely idle. In 1492 Columbus sailed under the flag of Spain to discover an all-water route to the land of spices and pearls. His plan was to sail directly west

and enter China through the front door rather than the back, as the Portuguese were trying to do. After many days of dangerous sailing, the little fleet of three vessels and some ninety men landed on a small island in what we now know as the West Indies. Before Columbus returned to Spain in 1493, Cuba and Haiti were discovered and slightly explored. In three subsequent voyages made by this brave sailor other islands of the West Indies, Trinidad Island, near the mouth of the Orinoco River, and the shores of Honduras, in Central America, were discovered. While Columbus failed to find an ocean route to India, as he still thought he had found in 1506 when he died, he did even a greater thing—he put the most advanced ideas of his day relative to the shape of the earth to a test, and by so doing discovered a New World. This in time proved to be a much greater accomplishment than finding an all-sea route to an old one.

During the first half of the sixteenth century Spain and Portugal were the two great maritime powers of Europe. There seems to have been an agreement between these two powers that the former should confine its exploring activities to seeking the Far East by a western route, and the latter by a southeastern one, around southern Africa. The fact that Portugal succeeded in reaching the goal of her desire in 1497 and established a lucrative trade with the East only spurred Spain to more strenuous efforts to complete what Columbus had begun; so between 1500 and 1550 many exploring, colonizing, and conquering expeditions were sent out under her flag. Noted among the early ones of these voyages was the one made by Americus Vesputius, an Italian navigator in the service of Spain, in whose honor America was named. On returning in 1499 from a voyage to the northeastern coast of South America, Vesputius wrote an account of the country he had visited. In this account he suggested that a New World had really been discovered. A few years later, a geographer by the name of Martin Waldseemüller in a little essay on the constitution of the universe suggested that the New World, having been found by Americus, should be named in his honor America. From this slight beginning the idea of naming the New World America developed, and in 1541 the name was applied to both continents as we know them today.

The chief successors of Columbus sailing under the flag of Spain were Balboa, Ponce de Leon, Magellan, Cortez, Narvaez, De Vaca, De Soto, and Coronado. Balboa, a bankrupt farmer, in an attempt to escape his creditors, secretly embarked with a recruiting expedition to the northern shores of South America. After a time the expedition landed on the Isthmus of Darien, where it was learned from the Indians that there existed beyond the southward mountains a great water whose waves washed shores where gold was so plentiful that the commonest utensils were made of it. This body of water Balboa saw in 1513, after many days of the most strenuous travel. He named it the South Sea and took possession of all the land washed by its waters for his master, the king of Spain.

In the same year (1513) that Balboa discovered the Pacific Ocean, Ponce de Leon sailed from Cuba in his search for gold and a fabulous fountain of youth and discovered, on Easter Sunday, the eastern coast of Florida. Six years later Magellan set out from Spain on his voyage which, when ended, proved to the world that the earth is round. After sailing south along the eastern coast of South America, Magellan finally discovered the strait which ever since has borne his name. For more than a month his ships battled with the dangers of this giant strait. Finally the passage through it was completed and the crew entered the South Sea, to which Magellan gave the name "Pacific Ocean." Weeks and weeks were spent on this body of water. At last, Magellan discovered the Philippine Islands, where he was killed in a battle with the natives. One of his vessels finally reached Spain by the way of the Indian Ocean and the Cape of Good Hope, after an absence of three years, thus ending one of the greatest feats of navigation that has ever been performed.

While Magellan was on his remarkable voyage around the world Cortez was making one of the greatest conquests in history—the conquest of central Mexico. After two years of hard fighting and enduring the severest hardships Cortez conquered this rich country, over which a government was set under the name of "New Spain." Thus was established the first great colony of Spain on the continent of America, from which great quantities of gold and silver poured into the coffers of her king. Similar conquests were made in South America and attempted in the

region north of the Gulf of Mexico. The two chief attempts to conquer the latter region were made by Narvaez in 1528 and De Soto in 1539-1542. While both attempts ended disastrously, the latter is important because the Mississippi River was discovered by De Soto in the spring of 1541. This great river was reached after a fruitless search through what is now Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi for what was thought at that time to be the "richest country in the world." Crossing over into what is now the state of Arkansas, De Soto continued his search, which ended in his death in 1542. The survivors of the expedition built boats and floated down the Mississippi, and finally reached some Spanish settlements.

Some survivors of Narvaez's expedition, after eight years of wandering and many adventures, finally reached the Spanish settlement founded by Cortez on the Gulf of California. Their glowing stories of the rich cities which they had visited in their wanderings through what is now southwestern United States influenced Coronado to lead an expedition from Mexico northward in search of them. After nearly two years (1540-1542) of wandering the expedition returned, having advanced as far north and east as the present state of Kansas and discovered the Colorado Canyon, a number of Indian pueblos, and the "hunchback cow," or buffalo, but no great riches such as they had hoped to find.

With a few other minor expeditions into what is now southern United States, Spain gave up her quest for gold and silver in these parts. In fact, on the first of January, 1562, there was probably not a Spaniard on the soil of the mainland of what is now the United States.

The chief rivals of Spain in the New World were England and France. These two nations gradually awoke to the consciousness of the opportunities they were losing in America, while at the same time Spain became so beset with political and religious quarrels at home that she was fortunately unable to prevent other nations settling the lands she claimed.

England began her voyages to the New World as early as 1497, when John Cabot discovered the mainland of North America somewhere north of Halifax, on a voyage in which he was seeking an all-water route to China. The importance of this voyage lies in

the fact that it gave Englishmen the right to occupy large portions of North America. It did not, however, stimulate them to a great effort like that which Spain put forth immediately following the voyages of Columbus. The explanation of England's inactivity is found in the fact that there was enough excitement at home for most Englishmen during the first half of the sixteenth century, for it was during this time that the country was attempting to recover from the effects of the War of the Roses and adjust itself to the changes brought about by the Reformation. But when England did begin her aggressive policy to overthrow Spain's maritime power, things moved rather rapidly. To John Hawkins and Francis Drake, two of England's greatest sixteenth-century seamen, much of the credit for the rapid movement of things maritime was due. The former did his best work in making ready the royal navy to dispute the supremacy of the sea with the Armadas of Spain; and the latter in his onslaught on the Spanish colonies—thus diminishing the resources of Philip II, the king of Spain.

Drake is best known, however, for his famous voyage around the world. After the West Indies came to be rather securely guarded by Spain, he conceived the plan of sailing through the Strait of Magellan and capturing all the Spanish treasure on the west coast. So in 1577 he set forth to attack this region and sail on seas never before known to an English sailor. After plundering the west coast of South America and Mexico and failing to find an opening to the east, the expedition, rather than face the dangers of returning by way of the Atlantic, chose to cross the Pacific and return to England by way of the Cape of Good Hope. The voyage was successfully completed in 1579 when the *Pelican* sailed into Plymouth harbor with an immense booty. Drake was later knighted by the queen on the quarter-deck of his ship, and the wrath of the Spaniards was increased immeasurably.

While Drake was on his way home from his dangerous cruise a new line of exploring and colonizing activity broke out in England. In 1578 Queen Elizabeth granted Sir Humphrey Gilbert and his heirs the right to discover, explore, and inhabit certain lands in the New World. Sir Humphrey's efforts cost him his life, for on the return voyage from Newfoundland and the country

southward his vessel went down and all on board were lost. His brother Adrian and half-brother Walter Raleigh succeeded to the rights of the dead explorer. These gentlemen lost no time in sending other expeditions to the western shores; in 1584 one fitted out by Raleigh landed on what is now the coast of North Carolina and remained for the brief period of two months. The next year another expedition was sent out and finally established a settlement on Roanoke Island. After a short stay the settlers were picked up by Drake on one of his later voyages and taken back to England. The third and final attempt was made by Raleigh in 1587. In this year three vessels brought to Virginia from Plymouth, England, 1550 men, women, and children and settled them on the same island that had been deserted by the former band. The ships that brought them soon returned to England for supplies. On their return four years later nothing remained but the houses which had been built by the colonists. The fate of this "lost colony" is still a matter of conjecture among historians.

England's struggle with Spain for the supremacy of the sea ended in her favor in 1588, when her fleet of fifty fighting ships encountered and defeated a fleet of sixty-two Spanish vessels in the English Channel. Spain attempted to retaliate upon England after this disastrous defeat, but with meager success. The work of Hawkins in modernizing the English fighting ships was too much for the slow, conservative efforts of the once powerful Spaniards.

Besides England, Spain had a rival in France for power in both the Old World and the New. The king of France was not slow to perceive what great advantages came to his rival from the riches drawn from the New World, so he resolved to send an expedition to this region in order that he himself might profit by some of these riches. Verrazano, a native of Florence, Italy, was chosen to lead the expedition. He set sail in 1524 and succeeded in exploring the American coast from North Carolina to Maine. On the way northward the vessel entered New York harbor, possibly something no other vessel had ever done. Little came from the voyage, since the king was so busy with affairs elsewhere. Ten years later, however, the attempt was renewed under Cartier, who made in all four voyages and gave the French their claim to Canada. On

these voyages Cartier discovered and explored the St. Lawrence River as far as where Montreal now stands. No settlements were attempted at this time in the North, but some definite attempts were later made in the South.

In 1562 Jean Ribaut led an expedition to the American coast. He landed in the neighborhood of where St. Augustine now stands. After he sailed northward for a considerable distance, a landing was effected, and a garrison of thirty men was left at Port Royal Sound to hold the place. Two years later recruits came out under the leadership of Laudonniere, a Huguenot. These people had really come to plant a colony. After a year of the severest hardships, however, they were attacked by the Spaniards under the leadership of Menendez and but few escaped his cruelty. No more attempts were made by the French to settle in this region. All their efforts were henceforth directed to the frozen North, where in the course of time they built up a great colonial empire, to which was given the name of New France.

Two of the most noted leaders in founding this empire were Champlain and De Monts. Through their efforts a colony was established at Port Royal, Nova Scotia, in 1604. Explorations were also made along the eastern shores of New England and up the St. Lawrence, where a trading post was established at what is now Quebec, in 1609. While here Champlain conceived the idea of uniting the Indian tribes on the northern banks of the St. Lawrence and conquering the Iroquois south of this region. With a small band of these northern Indians he made his way up the Richelieu River into the lake that now bears his name. Somewhere on its western edge he met and defeated a small party of Iroquois. This was the beginning of that eternal hatred of this great Indian nation for the French. A few weeks later a Dutch ship, commanded by the Englishman Henry Hudson, encountered another Iroquois band, which he entertained royally. Henceforth this great confederacy, occupying such an important position, was the ally of the Dutch and English and an enemy of the French, thus closing a large part of the continent to Frenchmen and at the same time protecting the English colonies from French attacks.

After these vigorous beginnings of Champlain and his followers, things moved rather slowly in New France for a half-century or

more. It was not until 1664 that things took on a new life. At this date the population was doubled, and soon other explorers were busy enlarging the French domain. Chief among these were Marquette, Joliet, and La Salle. The first two, in 1673, went down the Mississippi River as far south as the Arkansas, returning by way of the Illinois River to Lake Michigan, near the present site of Chicago. La Salle in 1681-1682 completed what Marquette and Joliet began. As early as 1670 he had reached the Ohio River. Hearing of the voyage of Marquette, he resolved to push on to the mouth of the Mississippi and take possession of the country for France. This he succeeded in accomplishing in the spring of 1682. France was now in possession of the St. Lawrence valley, the Great Lakes region, and the Mississippi valley—the heart of the American continent; Spain, of Florida and the country to the south and southwest; while all that territory along the Atlantic from Port Royal to St. Augustine was left solely to the Englishman and his kinsfolk from northern Europe. This locality offered slight hope for immediate gain, so the French and the Spaniards passed it by, unmindful of the fact that there existed nowhere on the surface of the earth a region better fitted for permanent colonization for Europeans.

THE TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS

Since the general and specific methods of procedure and the library have been discussed at length elsewhere,¹ no further consideration need be given them here. Attention, therefore, may be turned at once to the problem of textbook analysis as a means whereby the teacher acquaints himself with the main tools of his trade. As a guide in this analysis the main divisions of the course which have previously been determined upon should be used. They are the big units around which all material must center. Because of this fact it is very necessary that the teacher know what the textbook he is to use has on each main division and also what other texts in the same field contain. By knowing the first of these facts he can at once determine just where and how much the

¹ See Chapters V and IX.

TABLE VII. A TABULAR VIEW OF TEXTBOOKS IN AMERICAN HISTORY, SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL¹

TEXTBOOK	DATE OF		NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF PAGES DEVOTED TO EACH MAIN DIVISION OF THE FIELD															
	Copy-right	Edition used	I. Introductory—Factors affecting American history		II. Discovery and exploration, 1492-1607		III. Colonization and the struggle for supremacy in North America, 1607-1763		IV. Revolution and the establishment of the American nation, 1763-1789		V. Nationalism and democracy, 1789-1829		VI. Expansion and conflict, 1829-1865		VII. Reconstruction and consolidation, 1865-1898		VIII. National expansion and the new democracy, 1898 to the present	
			Pages	%	Pages	%	Pages	%	Pages	%	Pages	%	Pages	%	Pages	%	Pages	%
Montgomery: <i>Students' American History</i>	1897	1919	12	2	18	3	146	23	62	10	97	15	156	24	73	12	68	11
Andrews: <i>Hist. of the United States</i>	1914	1914	4	1	12	3	79	21	67	18	62	16	105	27	33	9	21	5
Ashley: <i>American History</i>	1907	1917	23	4	16	3	87	15	104	18	67	11	133	23	63	11	87	15
Channing: <i>Students' History of the United States</i>	1897	1919	18	3	21	3	70	11	115	18	120	19	156	25	48	8	79	13
Cousins and Hill: <i>American History for Schools</i>	1913	1913	28	5	20	3	97	17	79	14	72	13	149	26	85	15	43	7
Fiske: <i>History of the United States</i>	1894	1907	26	6	38	7	116	23	85	17	54	10	121	24	31	6	39	7
Fite: <i>History of the United States</i>	1916	1916	12	2	25	5	60	11	81	15	89	17	125	24	78	15	61	11
Forman: <i>Advanced American Hist.</i>	1914	1914	18	3	23	4	108	19	72	12	89	15	165	28	70	12	44	7
Hart: <i>Essentials in American Hist.</i>	1905	1910	30	5	14	2½	90	15½	100	17	81	14	175	30	60	10	36	6
Hart: <i>New American History</i>	1917	1917	17	3	16	2	92	14	83	13	97	15	178	28	75	11	92	14
James and Sanford: <i>Am. History</i>	1909	1917	8	1	28	5	105	19	73	13	82	16	118	21	82	15	63	11
McLaughlin: <i>History of the American Nation</i>	1899	1919	6	1	12	2	114	20	65	11	92	16	143	23	81	14	72	13
Muzey: <i>American History</i>	1911	1920	4	1	19	4	64	12	65	12	72	13	154	29	70	13	86	16
Stephenson: <i>An American History</i>	1913	1919	7	1	18	3	133	22	88	15	64	11	154	25	53	9	82	14
West: <i>Hist. of the American People</i>	1918	1918	6	1	16	2	155	21	135	19	172	24	96	13	50	7	99	13
Teaching time in days and per cent (d=days)			9d	5	7d	4	22d	12	22d	12	30d	17	36d	20	36d	20	18d	10

¹ The object of this table is not to compare textbooks but to illustrate a method of discovering with exactness the existing textbook material on a definite period of American history.

adopted text must be supplemented. A tabular view (Table VII) of a number of texts in senior high-school history will illustrate the sort of analysis that is meant here.

The practical use that can be made of the material in Table VII becomes evident as soon as one begins to interpret it. Suppose the adopted text is McLaughlin's *History of the American Nation* and the teacher desires to adapt the organization of the field found in the table and the time to spend on each main division to it. If nine days are to be spent on the first big division, the text will have to be supplemented, since it devotes but six pages to it. From the data before him, the teacher knows at once that the best parallel texts to use for the much-needed supplementary material are Hart's *Essentials in American History*, Cousins and Hill's *American History for Schools*, and Fiske's *History of the United States*. Running on through the remaining large division it will be seen that material in addition to that found in the text would have to be sought for divisions II, IV, V, VII, and VIII. In each of these cases the table tells the best book to select for one type of supplementary material.

ORGANIZATION OF EACH MAIN TOPIC UNDER EACH LARGE DIVISION

After the textbooks in the field of history he is organizing have been analyzed and the data thrown in tabular form, the teacher is ready to begin the most important and at the same time most difficult part of his work of course-planning, namely, the selection of the main topics in each large division and the organization of each of these topics for teaching purposes. To show concretely a form this work might take and what is involved in organizing a topic for teaching purposes let us suppose the period is that of Colonization and the Struggle for Supremacy in North America in American history. The general organization of this period for teaching purposes in the senior high school might be as follows:

COLONIZATION AND THE STRUGGLE FOR SUPREMACY IN
NORTH AMERICA, 1607-1763

- A. Seventeenth-century southern seaboard settlements.
- B. Seventeenth-century settlements in the eastern sections of the colonies north of Maryland.
- C. The back-country settlements.
- D. Spanish and French settlements and activities.
- E. French and Indian Wars.
- F. Cross-section view of colonial life about 1763.

Suppose now that one desires to organize topic F, "Cross-section view of colonial life about 1763," for day-by-day teaching purposes. This would involve more detail than any other phase of the work thus far discussed. The form given on pages 238-243 has been used by the writer with results commensurate with the efforts required to make it.

The advantages to the teacher of having an entire course in the form of the one topic illustrated above are worth the time it takes to do the work of arranging it in this form. In the first place day-by-day assignments can be made with definiteness and dispatch, since the first column contains exactly what he desires to teach and the second the necessary reference material on each topic. The numbering will facilitate matters here because the reference number is the same in each case as the topic in the first column on which it contains material. Inasmuch as the number of pages in a reference is always given, the teacher will know just how much the student is expected to read.

Another advantage of this form for the teacher's daily lesson plans is that it is accumulative. For example, should the teacher find better references and illustrative materials as he goes over the field from time to time, there is always space to include them where they belong. Furthermore, the teacher will often on completing a lesson think of things he might have done. If these are inserted in their proper place, he can benefit by them the next time he teaches the lesson.

F. CROSS-SECTION VIEW OF COLONIAL LIFE ABOUT 1763

(The first time a reference is mentioned both author and title are given. In subsequent uses the author only is mentioned. Special reports are marked thus *. More references are given than any one class will be able to read.)

WHAT TO TEACH — AN OUTLINE IN DETAIL	REFERENCES OTHER THAN THE TEXT; ALSO TOPICS FOR SPECIAL REPORTS WITH EXACT REFERENCES FOR EACH	SOURCE AND ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL; MAPS AND CHARTS TO USE IN THE RECITATION AND STUDY PERIODS	DATES AND PERIODS TO KNOW; MAPS AND CHARTS TO MAKE	PIVOTAL QUESTIONS, EXERCISES, AND THINGS TO EMPHASIZE AND DO
<p>1. The people</p> <p>a. Approximate number</p> <p>b. Sources and distribution</p> <p>c. Contrasts and similarities</p> <p>d. Absence of common feeling</p>	<p>1. Hart, <i>Formation of the Union</i>, "The People and their Distribution," pp. 3-5; Thompson, <i>Hist. of U.S.</i>, "Population of the Colonies," pp. 46-49; Muzzey, <i>American History</i> (Revised ed.), pp. 60-64</p>	<p>Map: Density of Population, 1750, Ashley, <i>Am. Hist.</i>, p. 104</p>	<p>NOTE. There are few dates and percentages to list in a unit like the one analyzed here</p>	
<p>2. Industrial and commercial conditions</p> <p>a. Agriculture</p> <p>(1) First to develop</p> <p>(2) Natural advantages</p> <p>(3) Agriculture in New England</p> <p>(a) Beginnings</p> <p>(b) Products</p> <p>(c) Size of farms</p> <p>(d) Implements</p> <p>(e) Supplementary occupations</p> <p>(f) Marketing the surplus</p> <p>(4) New York and Pennsylvania</p> <p>(a) Soil and climate</p> <p>(b) Products</p> <p>(c) Implements</p> <p>(d) Supplementary occupations</p> <p>(e) Marketing the surplus</p>	<p>2. Fite, <i>Hist. of U.S.</i>, "Occupations," pp. 101-109</p> <p>a. Thompson, "Colonial Agriculture," pp. 59-71; Bogart, <i>Econ. Hist. of U.S.</i>, "Agriculture and Land Tenure," pp. 36-50; Moore, <i>Indus. Hist. of Am. People</i>, "Agriculture," pp. 131-155</p>	<p>Important map: The Colonies in 1760, Chan- ning, <i>Hist. of U.S.</i>, II, 604</p> <p>Pictures: A Colonial Plow, Hand Corn Shelter and Wooden Harrow, Bogart, pp. 40, 42, 47; Farming Tools in Colonial Times, Thompson, p. 60</p>	<p>Map to make:</p> <p>1. Title: The Colonies in 1763</p> <p>2. Use an outline map of North America east of Mississippi River</p> <p>3. Show progress of English, French, and Spanish settlements, routes from coast to Mississippi basin; Indian portages; conflicting claims of English colonies; Proclamation Line of 1763</p>	<p>Why were the first settlers of necessity farmers? Make a list of the agricultural products in New England, New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, and the South</p> <p>Call attention to what is going on in each of the sections today</p>

<p>(5) New Jersey and Delaware (a) Soil and climate (b) Products</p> <p>(6) Agriculture in the South (a) Along the seaboard 1) Soil and climate 2) The plantation system 3) Implements 4) Products 5) Waterways and their importance 6) Marketing the surplus (b) In the back country 1) Soil and climate 2) Products 3) Implements 4) Supplementary occupations 5) Marketing the surplus</p> <p>(7) England's attitude toward colonial agriculture (a) Her theory (b) Encouragements — bounties (c) Restrictions</p> <p>b. Manufacturing (1) Household (a) Extent (b) Economic importance of (c) Kinds of industries (d) Implements (e) Processes</p> <p>(2) Outside the home (a) Unsuccessful</p>	<p>(3), (4), (5), (6) Coman, <i>Indus. Hist. of U.S.</i>, pp. 50-63 (6) Hart, "The Planter," pp. 111-113; Callender, <i>Economic Hist. of U.S.</i>, pp. 9-25 (b) Hart, "The Farmer," pp. 110 f. (7) Moore, "England's Policy regarding Colonial Agriculture," pp. 144 f. (b) and (c) Herrick, <i>Hist. of Com. and Industry</i>, "Restrictions and Bounties," pp. 281-283 * b. Thompson, "Colonial Manufacturers," pp. 77-84; Callender, "Manufactures," pp. 29-44 (1) Tryon, <i>Household Manufactures in U.S.</i>, "The Status of Household Manufactures in the Colonies," pp. 61-122 *</p>	<p>"Economic Conditions in Virginia, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island, 1759," James and Sanford, <i>Readings in Am. Hist.</i>, pp. 121-125</p> <p>For a list of homemade articles see Tryon, pp. 188 f.; Picture of the Hand Loom, Bogart, p. 62; also Wright, p. 45</p>	<p>Work out in some detail the plantation system of agriculture</p> <p>Itinerant hatmakers, shoemakers, and candle-makers — importance of all these</p> <p>(2) Call attention to how the communities maintained their economic independence</p>
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F. CROSS-SECTION VIEW OF COLONIAL LIFE ABOUT 1763 (CONTINUED)

WHAT TO TEACH—AN OUTLINE IN DETAIL	REFERENCES OTHER THAN THE TEXT; ALSO TOPICS FOR SPECIAL REPORTS WITH EXACT REFERENCES FOR EACH	SOURCE AND ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL; MAPS AND CHARTS TO USE IN THE RECITATION AND STUDY PERIODS	DATES AND PERSONAGES TO KNOW; MAPS AND CHARTS TO MAKE	PIVOTAL QUESTIONS, EXERCISES, AND THINGS TO EMPHASIZE AND DO
<p>(b) Kinds most common: iron, lumber, naval stores, hats, leather goods, furniture, bricks, wagons, cordage, liquor, salt, tinware, tiles, twine, pottery</p> <p>(3) Attitude of England toward her conduct—the mercantile system</p> <p>(a) General principle governing her conduct—the mercantile system</p> <p>(b) Parliamentary prohibitions in 1699, 1731, 1733, and 1750</p> <p>c. Minor industries</p> <p>(1) Lumbering</p> <p>(2) Shipbuilding</p> <p>(3) Fishing</p> <p>(4) Fur trade</p> <p>d. Systems of labor</p> <p>(1) Indented servants</p> <p>(a) Origin and value of system</p> <p>(b) Number and distribution in 1760</p> <p>(c) Treatment</p> <p>(d) Economic and social effects</p>	<p>(b) Coman, "Manufactures," pp. 63-73</p> <p>(3) Thompson, "Attitude of the Mother Country toward Colonial Manufacturers," pp. 73-77; Tryon, "England's Colonial Policy and Household Manufacturing," pp. 13-28*; Callender, pp. 85-94</p> <p>c. Bogart, "Colonial Industries," pp. 53-63; Webster, <i>General History of Commerce</i>, pp. 342-350</p> <p>d. Thompson, "Systems of Labor," pp. 50-56; Callender, pp. 44-51</p> <p>(1) Hart, "White Laborers," pp. 113 f.</p> <p>d. Bogart, "The Systems of Labor," pp. 65-73; Channing, <i>Hist. of U.S.</i>, "Systems of Labor," II, 367-398*</p>	<p>Description of the spinning process, Tryon, p. 209</p>	<p>Map to make:</p> <p>1. Title: Colonial Trade and Industry of the world</p> <p>2. Use outline map of the world</p> <p>3. Show the importance of the West Indies: triangles and quadrilaterals of trade; fisheries</p> <p>4. Note on the map the commodities comprised in this trade, e.g. Barbados, sugar; South Carolina, indigo, etc.</p>	<p>Show connection between restrictions on manufacturing and the Revolutionary War</p> <p>Show why the question of an ample supply of labor is so difficult to solve in a new country</p> <p>Compare the status and work of the indented servants with the status and the work of the slaves</p>

<p>(2) African slavery (a) Traffic in slaves (b) Number and distribution in 1760 (c) Treatment (d) Economic and social effects</p> <p>6. Commerce and trade (1) Internal (a) Transportation (b) Articles of commerce (c) Attitude of the mother country (d) Extent and difficulties (2) External (a) West Indian trade 1) Articles of import 2) Articles of export (b) Transatlantic trade 1) Articles of import and their sources 2) Articles of export and their destination (3) Restrictions on colonial trade (a) Navigation acts (b) Attitude of colonists (c) Aggressive policy after 1760</p> <p>(4) The trader and the merchant (a) Peddlers and storekeepers (b) Well-to-do merchants (c) System of bartering (5) Financial difficulties connected with commerce and industry (a) Lack of uniform currency (b) Scarcity of money (c) Paper money</p>	<p>(2) Hart, "The Slave," pp. 114-116; Hart, <i>Formation</i>, "Colonial Slavery," pp. 19-21.</p> <p>e. Thompson, "Local and Intercolonial Trade," pp. 87-91; Hart, <i>New Am. Hist.</i>, "Commerce," pp. 120-122</p> <p>Coman, "Commerce," pp. 73-85</p> <p>(2) Thompson, "Colonial Foreign Commerce," pp. 96-100</p> <p>(a) and (b) Callender, "The Trade to the West Indies and the Mediterranean," pp. 51-55</p> <p>(3) Thompson, "England's Commercial Policy," pp. 91-95; Bogart, "Regulation of Colonial Commerce, etc.," pp. 95-100; Callender, "The Influence of the Trade Laws," pp. 88-94</p> <p>(4) Hart, "The Trader and the Merchant," pp. 116-119</p> <p>(5) Bogart, "Colonial Currency," pp. 83-85</p>	<p>Map showing colonial roads, Coman, p. 75</p> <p>Picture of a Conestoga Wagon, Herrick, p. 284</p> <p>Map: Colonial Trade and Commerce, 1689-1775, Hart, <i>New Am. Hist.</i>, p. 108</p> <p>Picture of an Eighteenth-Century Ship, Herrick, p. 286</p> <p>Graph showing balance of trade between American colonies and Great Britain, 1697-1775, Coman, p. 64; graphs showing colonial exports, Coman, p. 80</p> <p>A good example of bartering, Tryon, p. 119</p> <p>(5) "Tobacco Notes in the Colony of Virginia," Bullock, <i>Selected Readings in Economics</i>, pp. 403-405</p>	<p>(a) Show how the rivers served the plantations as a means of transportation</p> <p>Call attention to the system of warehouses in the South</p> <p>Show how the balance of trade affected each locality</p> <p>Show the relation of the balance of trade to household manufacturers</p>
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F. CROSS-SECTION VIEW OF COLONIAL LIFE ABOUT 1763 (CONTINUED)

WHAT TO TEACH—AN OUTLINE IN DETAIL	REFERENCES OTHER THAN THE TEXT; ALSO TOPICS FOR SPECIAL REPORTS WITH EXACT REFERENCES FOR EACH	SOURCE AND ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL; MAPS AND CHARTS TO USE IN THE RECITATION AND STUDY PERIODS	DATES AND PERIODS TO KNOW; MAPS AND CHARTS TO MAKE	PIVOTAL QUESTIONS, EXERCISES, AND THINGS TO EMPHASIZE AND DO
<p>3. Social, religious, and educational conditions</p> <p>a. New England</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Classes of society (2) Amusements (3) Dress (4) Crime and punishment (5) Funerals and weddings (6) Religion and church (7) Education and literature (8) Newspapers and libraries (9) Communication (10) Professional life (11) Taverns and inns (12) Drinking of beverages (13) Health conditions 	<p>3. Montgomery, <i>Leading Facts of Am. Hist.</i> (New Rev. Ed.), "General State of the Colonies in 1763," pp. 124-132; Thompson, "Life in the Colonies," pp. 33-45; Forman, <i>Advanced Am. Hist.</i>, "Social Life," pp. 153-158; Fite, "Education and Religion," pp. 111-113; Hart, "Colonial Education," pp. 75 f.; "Colonial Literature," pp. 76-79; "Colonial Religious Life," pp. 80-83</p> <p>a. McLaughlin, <i>Hist. of Am. Nation</i>, "New England Colonies," pp. 118-124 (13) Eggleston, <i>Life in Eighteenth Century</i>, "Health Conditions," pp. 212-217*</p> <p>b. McLaughlin, "The Middle Colonies," pp. 124-126</p> <p>(7) and (8) under a, b, c, d. Channing, <i>Hist. of U.S.</i>, II, 456-489</p>	<p>a. "Young People's Life in New Hampshire, 1765," Hart, <i>Source Readers</i>, No. 1, pp. 192-194</p> <p>(2) "Puritan Amusements," Hart, pp. 152-155</p> <p>(6) "The Great Awakening in New England," Hart, <i>Source Book of Am. Hist.</i>, pp. 109-111</p> <p>(7) "A Year of a College Student's Life, 1758," Hart, <i>Contemporaries</i>, II, 266-272; "Harvard College in the Early Days," Muzzey, <i>Readings</i>, pp. 80-84.</p>	<p>John Harvard</p> <p>Jonathan Edwards</p>	<p>Emphasize the basis for society stratification in New England, in the middle colonies, and in the South</p>
<p>b. The middle colonies</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Classes of society (2) Amusements (3) Dress (4) Crime and punishment (5) Funerals and weddings 	<p>"Social Life in Philadelphia," Hart, <i>Source Book of Am. Hist.</i>, pp. 115-117</p> <p>Picture of Franklin's Printing Press, Wright, p. 65</p>	<p>Call attention to the four stages in the history of punishment. In what stage were the colonies? The stages are the vindictive, the deterrent, the reformative, and the preventive</p>		

<p>(6) Religion and the church (7) Education and literature (8) Newspapers and libraries (9) Communication (10) Professional life (11) Taverns and inns (12) Drinking of beverages (13) Health conditions</p> <p>c. Southern plantations</p> <p>(1) Classes of society (2) Amusements (3) Dress (4) Crime and punishment (5) Funerals and weddings (6) Religion and the church (7) Education and literature (8) Newspapers and libraries (9) Communication (10) Professional life (11) Taverns and inns (12) Drinking of beverages (13) The back country</p> <p>d. The back country</p> <p>(1) Classes of society (2) Amusements (3) Dress (4) Crime and punishment (5) Funerals and weddings (6) Religion and the church (7) Education and literature (8) Newspapers and libraries (9) Communication (10) Professional life (11) Taverns and inns (12) Drinking of beverages (13) Health conditions</p>	<p>(2) under <i>a, b, c, d</i>, "The Colonial Theater," <i>Eggleston in Century</i>, XXX (1885), 403-407*</p> <p><i>c</i>. McLaughlin, "The Southern Colonies," pp. 114-118</p> <p>(7) and (8) under <i>a, b, c</i>. Wright, <i>Indus. Evolution of U.S.</i>, "Printing and Publishing," pp. 61-69*</p> <p>(3) under <i>a, b, c, d</i>. Earle, <i>Home Life in Colonial Days</i>, "Dress of the Colonists," pp. 281-299</p> <p>(6) under <i>a, b, c, d</i>. Channing, <i>Hist. of U.S.</i>, II, 423-454*</p> <p><i>a, b, c, d</i>. Ashley, <i>Am. Hist.</i>, "Colonial Conditions (1750)," pp. 104-124</p> <p><i>d</i>. Forman, "Life in the Backwoods," pp. 148 f.</p>	<p><i>b</i>. "Philadelphia and New York in 1748," James and Sanford, <i>Readings in Am. Hist.</i>, pp. 116-121</p> <p>(7) "A Colonial School-Boy," Hart, <i>Source Book of Am. Hist.</i>, pp. 122 f.</p> <p><i>c</i>. "The Life and Home of a Colonial Planter," McLaughlin, <i>Readings in Am. Hist.</i>, pp. 30-36</p>	<p>William Byrd</p>	<p>Why was the drinking of beverages of various kinds so prevalent in the colonies?</p>	<p>Work out in some detail the religious differences among the colonies</p> <p>What are the chief differences in houses, food, dress, and manner of living in 1763 and today?</p>

F. CROSS-SECTION VIEW OF COLONIAL LIFE ABOUT 1763 (CONTINUED)

WHAT TO TEACH — AN OUTLINE IN DETAIL	REFERENCES OTHER THAN THE TEXT; ALSO TOPICS FOR SPECIAL REPERTISE WITH EXACT REFERENCES FOR EACH	SOURCE AND ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL; MAPS AND CHARTS TO USE IN THE RECITATIONS AND STUDY PERIODS	DATES AND PERIODS TO KNOW; MAPS AND CHARTS TO MAKE	PIVOTAL QUESTIONS, EXERCISES, AND THINGS TO EMPHASIZE AND DO
<p>4. Government and political organizations . . .</p> <p>a. General types of colonial governments</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Charter (2) Provincial (3) Proprietary 	<p>4. Kimball, <i>National Government of the U.S.</i>, "Colonial Traditions and Experiences," pp. 3-9; McLaughlin, "Political Life, etc.," pp. 126-131</p>	<p>NOTE. A beginning teacher will not have time to work out each course as elaborately as this scheme contemplates. The practical thing for him to do is to outline one field in considerable detail before attempting others. When one field has been worked out in a manner approximating this scheme, but little attention need be given it from day to day. In two or three years a teacher should have each field worked out according to this or some other workable plan.</p>	<p>Find out who could vote in colonial times; compare with present-day conditions</p>	
<p>b. Features common to all the colonies in matters of general government</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Three departments of government (2) Suffrage 	<p>b. West, <i>Hist. of Am. People</i>, "The Development of Political Machinery," pp. 87-92*</p>			
<p>c. Local government</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Towns (2) Counties (3) Mixed system 	<p>c. West, "Local Government in New England," pp. 93-95; Hart, "Local Government," pp. 86-88</p>			
<p>d. English control prior to 1760</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) English law (2) Relation to crown (3) Parliament (4) Lords of trade and plantations 	<p>d. Hart, "England's Control of the Colonies," p. 84; Channing, <i>Students' Hist. of U.S.</i>, "The Colonial System, 1688-1760," p. 112; Hart, <i>Formation of New Schemes of Colonial Control</i> (1763), pp. 44-55</p>			<p>Compare present-day town and county government with colonial town and county government</p> <p>Show the distinction between the English government and the English people about 1763. Summarize in one, two, three order the potential causes of the Revolutionary War that were coming to the surface in 1763</p>
<p>e. New schemes of control after 1760</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Accession of George III (2) Proclamation Line of 1763 (3) Greenville's colonial policy 	<p>(2) Channing, "Proclamation Line of 1763," pp. 97-99</p>			
<p>(a) Execution of acts of trade</p> <p>(b) Taxation of the colonies</p> <p>(c) Permanent establishment of British troops in America</p>				

The advantage of having all the main features of the lesson before him while it is in progress is one not to be overlooked. Teachers sometimes forget to do just what they have planned for a particular lesson. If the dates-events, person-ages, and geographic feature which he wishes to emphasize in each lesson are before him, they are almost sure to receive the attention due them. Furthermore in the quiet of his study hours the teacher will think of things to do that will never come on the spur of the moment. If these are before him in their proper place they will be done when planned.

ADDITIONAL READING MATTER

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- TRYON, R. M. "The Organization of United States History for Teaching Purposes in Grades Seven and Eight," *Elementary School Journal*, XVI (1916), 247 ff.
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CHAPTER XII

THE HIGH-SCHOOL HISTORY TEACHER

There is in existence a considerable amount of information relative to the high-school history teacher which should be of interest and practical value to the beginner in the field and to the experienced teacher as well, since it deals with so many phases of the history teacher's professional career. As considered in this chapter these phases relate to the equipment of a high-school history teacher, the subjects he actually teaches, the measurement of his efficiency, himself and his methods as viewed by high-school undergraduates and graduates, and his professional library. If data on the tangible rewards of the high-school history teacher were not so difficult to keep up-to-date, a discussion of this sort might with propriety include material on salary schedules in the various sections of the country. In view, however, of the general dislocation of these schedules brought about by the World War and the accompanying high cost of living, it does not seem worth while to do more than mention the subject of salary, even though it is and must remain a consideration of great concern to all history teachers.

THE EQUIPMENT OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL HISTORY TEACHER

It is quite generally agreed that on beginning his career a high-school history teacher should know considerable history and have a few ideas concerning the best methods of imparting his knowledge to others. To these two phases of his equipment one might apply the terms "academic" and "professional."

There was a time when many people felt that academic equipment was all that a history teacher needed in order to succeed. While a few individuals still believe in this fallacious doctrine, the weight of opinion now is in favor of an equipment which slights neither the academic nor the professional. There has been so much progress toward this much-to-be-desired goal in recent years that even teachers of history in colleges and universities are recommending that students majoring in their department with a view to teaching the subject include in their preparatory work a liberal amount of professional training. The very general present-day interest in the professional equipment of the high-school history teacher is evidenced by the number of courses in the teaching of history that have recently appeared in colleges and universities. Only a few years ago these courses were exceptions, while now there is scarcely an institution in the country which makes any pretense at the training of teachers that does not offer one or more courses in the teaching of history some time during a school year.

There has been much written during the past ten years on what the academic equipment of high-school history teachers should be. Among these discussions there is one that is more or less authoritative. This is a report on "The Certification of High-School Teachers of History," made to the Mississippi Valley Historical Association in 1913.¹ This committee set down certain specific academic requirements in social science for prospective high-school history teachers. The most important of these may be summarized as follows:

1. A college student intending to teach history in the high school should specialize enough "to understand the scope of the subject, to know something of its methods and materials, and to be able to read independently and intelligently along the lines of his teaching."

2. The prospective high-school history teacher should devote from about one fourth to one third of his time in college to the

¹ Published in full in *History Teacher's Magazine*, IV, 169 ff.

study of history. In points or semester hours this would mean from 25 to 40 out of an aggregate of 120.

3. In addition to the 25 to 40 points given to history proper, the prospective history teacher should devote some time to such closely related subjects as political economy, political science, and sociology.

4. The history courses should include: (1) one or more elementary courses such as a survey of some European field, ancient, medieval, modern, or English, and a general course in American history to be required of all prospective history teachers; (2) advanced courses covering the whole field of history or any section; (3) a pro-seminary course in which method and point of view are taught.

5. The elementary courses should require not more than 12 points, the advanced courses about 20 points, and the pro-seminary not over 6 points.

The sanity and reasonableness of these recommendations are their chief characteristics. The great difficulty in their practical application is the fact that so many young people are candidates for high-school history positions on graduating who had no intention of teaching on entering college. Since so many of these well-meaning young people discover what they actually want to do so late in their college career, the problem of satisfactorily administering any recommendations is next to impossible. One redeeming feature, however, in the situation as it applies to those who decide late in their college career that they want to teach history in the high school is the fact that most colleges require for graduation a specific amount of work in some one or two departments. Hence, if the student whose major subject is history suddenly decides, upon graduating, to seek a position to teach history in some high school, he is not wholly unprepared in the academic phase of the subject. The unfortunate phase of the matter is, as will be shown later, that even though the prospective teacher is actually prepared to teach history he will probably be called upon to teach a number of other subjects

as well, in all of which he will not be equally well prepared. And more unfortunately for history than for some of the other subjects, a teacher who has specialized in college in a field unrelated to history will be asked to teach history, the idea being that anyone who can read the adopted textbook from day to day can teach the subject. Fortunately such wholly unprepared individuals cannot teach history in some states, since a certificate in each subject is required. While the ability to make a specified grade on a formal examination is not absolute proof of adequate academic equipment in history, it does indicate that the individual who is able to make a satisfactory grade has some knowledge of the subject even though he may never have studied college history.

Hand in hand with academic training and growth in historical knowledge should go professional training and growth. This means that the prospective history teacher must devote some time to learning how to teach history before going out to practice on helpless high-school youths. It also means that after entering upon one's career as a history teacher one must continue to read the professional literature on the subject. Too many high-school history teachers cross the dead line and die at the top. That is, they are teaching as they taught ten years ago. Their defense of their methods is the familiar one of long use. While in itself this might be a just defense, the possibility always exists that there are somewhere in the literature of the subject descriptions of more up-to-date and effective ways of doing the thing, of which the teacher, who is not up to the minute in the professional reading, is ignorant. Hence the attempted justification of his methods on the basis of long use becomes an excuse for having died at the pinnacle of his career which he reached during his younger days.

The amount and character of the professional training which prospective high-school history teachers should have are unsettled questions. The committee referred to above said that where from 25 to 40 points of a possible 120 were devoted

to history, from 2 to 4 of these points should include methods of teaching the subject. In terms of months this would be about three out of a college course of thirty-six months in duration. To those who employ college graduates to teach history in the high school, this small amount of time devoted to strictly professional training during the preparatory stage of the teacher's career is wholly unsatisfactory. Speaking approximately, these individuals would increase the foregoing points fivefold or sixfold. In other words, they would demand that not less than one sixth of the prospective history teacher's time in college be spent on the professional phase of his equipment.

Granting that the high-school teacher in preparation, whether for junior or senior high-school teaching, is willing to spend one fourth of his time in college on academic equipment and one sixth on professional, the question of the content of the courses he will be expected to take along both of these lines is a matter of much importance. The report on "The Certification of High-School Teachers of History"¹ answered this question in a general way. Such broad statements, however, do not always secure the desired results. What is needed most at the present time are courses in history planned and taught with a view to preparing young people to teach high-school history. As now planned and taught most college courses exist more for the sake of the subject, history, than for the sake of the students pursuing them. A change of emphasis is needed. Courses for prospective teachers should seek both their content and their general organization in the prevalent high-school history courses. In other words, instead of forcing students into highly specialized courses which, for the lack of time, make it impossible to cover during one's college career more than a limited amount of the material found in present-day high-school history courses, it would be far better to make it possible for them to study in college all of the fields of history which they

¹ See p. 247.

will actually have to teach. For example, the present tendency in the junior high school is to include courses in the European beginnings of American history and in American history proper, and in the senior high school, courses in modern European history and American history. Now it is evident that prospective teachers cannot cover each of these fields in the time they have for history during their college careers if they have nothing but specialized courses offered them. To meet the actual needs of these people colleges should offer them three one-year courses, one devoted to early European history, one to modern European history, and one to American history. This arrangement would make it possible for history teachers in training to cover in a unified and connected way during their college careers all of the field of history which they will subsequently be called upon to teach. These courses would furnish teachers with a fund of information that they could actually use, instead of turning them out with a body of technical, unconnected, and highly specialized historical knowledge which they find to their dismay on entering upon their teaching careers that they cannot use. Scores of teachers have said to the writer that, on leaving college with a feeling that they were well equipped in subject matter because of the number of courses taken in history, they found that they really had to learn a new body of material before they could teach what a modern high-school history department demands. Of course their training in college history facilitated the learning of this new body of knowledge and for this reason was not wholly lost. In spite of this fact, however, it would seem much better for the prospective history teacher to prepare on things he will actually teach rather than to learn them after beginning his teaching career.

The present situation with reference to the content of the professional courses to be taken by the high-school history teacher in training is more hopeful than the one relating to the academic studies. On the whole, it is fairly well agreed that

the time to be spent on professional equipment should be divided about equally between general courses in education and special courses in the teaching of history, including practice teaching. While the content of the courses in education is by no means uniform the country over, or satisfactory to those administering them, there are hopeful signs for betterment even along this line. Most of the courses in the teaching of history are too new to possess the attribute of finality. To assist those interested in them there exist certain recommendations of another committee of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association.¹ This committee proposes three types of work of a professional nature as it relates to the field of history. Recognizing the fact that most of the courses in history which teachers have been obliged to take in the university are sections of the field somewhat remote from the high-school division of the subject, and therefore do not give close acquaintance with the high-school material and field, the committee suggests a course for students at the end of their last year in college which will give them a closer acquaintance with the content and material of the high-school field of history. Besides this course the committee recommends one in the teaching of history and one in practice teaching. In the teaching course the committee would have some consideration given to each of the following topics: the general purposes of the high school and the values of the study of history in their bearing on these; the place of history in the curriculum of the high school, together with an inquiry as to the scope and content of high-school units of history; the special demands made by the subject of history on the teacher; what it means to study a history lesson; the use of the textbook; practice work in assigning a textbook lesson; the use of source material in the high school; practice work in assigning lessons in source material; collateral reading—what

¹ "Certification of High-School Teachers of History," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VI, 150 ff.

to use and how to use it; geography's relation to history—maps and map work; pictures—what to use and how to use them; practice work in assigning a lesson on picture material; the possibilities of written work, including uses of the blackboard; the history recitation; special problems of method presented by special phases of the subject; devices for arousing interest; the first recitations of new year—their special problems and opportunities; formation of plan of semester work in any one field of high-school history; reports on observation work; and practice work in conducting a recitation.¹

The most directly beneficial phase of the professional preparation of the teacher in training is practice teaching, providing it is done under favorable conditions and expert direction. While colleges and universities are slowly coming to recognize the value of this sort of training, they do not as a rule require it of their graduates who enter the teaching profession. This being the case, it becomes necessary to convince prospective teachers of the practical benefits to be derived from a well-directed course in practice teaching.

While there have been no exhaustive studies of the results of practice teaching on teaching efficiency, the meager data so far collected seem to warrant the conclusion that in the judgment of superintendents of schools and of high-school teachers who successfully completed a practice course during their preparatory period such work is of great value. Superintendents are of the opinion that "one semester of high-school practice teaching under a competent critic produces a more successful teacher than does two, three, or even four years of schoolroom experience of the teacher not so trained."² Thus it will be seen that in the judgment of some superintendents practice teaching is a short-cut route to success. Since it is becoming

¹ Report, op. cit. p. 152.

² Childs, "The Results of Practice Teaching on Teaching Efficiency," in *Practice Teaching for Teachers in Secondary Schools*, Bureau of Education Bulletin (1917), No. 29, p. 35.

more and more difficult for young people with no first-hand experience with teaching problems to secure desirable positions upon graduating from college, information concerning the practical value of well-directed experience with actual classroom situations should be given them early in their college careers. This is very necessary, since practice teaching cannot be done successfully without certain prerequisites which must be taken care of during the early part of one's college course.

There is an important phase of the history teacher's equipment not classed as either academic or professional. For want of a better name let us call it mental and temperamental traits and characteristics. It goes without saying that no teacher can teach what he does not know and that the successful teacher of anything must be able to teach. True as these statements are, they are not the only prerequisites to the all-round equipment of a history teacher. Certain qualities which are either innate or acquired through conscious striving must be combined with academic and professional equipment before one has other than a mediocre history teacher. Some of these qualities are common sense, character, aptitude, sympathy, vivacity, open-mindedness, intellectual and political honesty, enthusiasm for history, optimism, sound judgment, vivid imagination, copious supply of clear and simple language, firmness, impartiality, cheerfulness, pleasantness, and sincerity. These characteristics might be termed likable ones in teachers. They are named by high-school students when they are asked to designate the traits in teachers which make the strongest appeal to them. Table VIII summarizes a study along this line which shows the relative importance of ten of these qualities in the minds of three groups of students.

In a more recent study than the one summarized in Table VIII "willingness to help me" was mentioned 130 times by 550 high-school students in response to the request, "As you think over the teachers who have been or still are most helpful

TABLE VIII. PUPILS' ESTIMATES OF TEACHERS. RANK AND PERCENTAGES OF FREQUENCY¹

QUALITIES	ONE HUNDRED FIFTY NORMAL-SCHOOL GIRLS		TWO HUNDRED FIFTY-THREE HIGH-SCHOOL BOYS		ONE HUNDRED THIRTY-SIX HIGH-SCHOOL GIRLS		AVERAGE FREQUENCY
	Rank	Percentage of Frequency	Rank	Percentage of Frequency	Rank	Percentage of Frequency	
	Kindness	1	94	2	51	1	
Fairness	2	54	1	56	5	44	51
Sociability	3	50	7	17	10	7	25
Sense of humor	4	45	5	22	4	47	38
Good temper	5	30	6	19	8	14	21
Discipline	6	23	3	35	2	52	37
Neatness	7	15	10	11	7	27	18
Patience	8	13	4	26	3	50	30
Preparation	9	11	8	15	9	14	13
Clearness of explanation	10	0	9	15	6	43	19

¹ Bird, "Pupils' Estimates of Teachers," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, VIII, 40.

to you, tell the qualities in them which make the strongest appeal to you."¹ Patience was mentioned 85 times by these same students; kindness, 80 times; clearness, 35; sense of humor, 32; understanding of students, 24; firmness, 21; impartiality, 24; cheerfulness and pleasantness, 19 each; sincerity, 14; sympathy, 16; and ability to make work interesting, 21. The writer's own investigations along this same line with history teachers especially in mind reveal facts relative to the personal and social qualities of teachers similar to the foregoing ones. On one occasion he asked 150 high-school graduates to describe the history teacher who had helped them most to an appreciation and an understanding of history. In the tabulation of the responses to this request the following terms were used over and over again: astounding vitality, impartiality, broad-mindedness, friendliness and kindness to everyone, desire to help, keen sense of humor, attractive personality, pleasing personality, remarkable personality, pleasing manner, interest in the subject, personal interest in each pupil, delightful sense of humor, enthusiasm for the subject, power to inspire the class, ambition and energy, fairness and uprightness, truthfulness and exactness, and a companionable disposition. All these personal and social qualities in a teacher assume large proportion in the minds of their students. The truth of this whole matter is well summarized by Superintendent Engleman when he says:

No amount of learning and no amount of "professional training," though each is a *sine qua non*, can atone for a lack of the human touch, and the virtues which endear people to their associates in ordinary walks of life. The most scholarly teachers, employing the most skillful methods, measured by coldly intellectual standards, must largely fail to get desired results if they fail to bring or beget the right emotional atmosphere in the schoolroom. Emotional warmth is just as essential to the growth of ideas as physical warmth is to the growth of plants. Frost is as much to be avoided in the schoolroom as in the garden.

¹ Engleman, *A Survey of the Decatur High School* (Decatur, Illinois), p. 23.

THE SUBJECTS HISTORY TEACHERS TEACH

One would naturally suppose that history teachers teach history. However, such is not the case in altogether too many high schools. Investigations of rather recent date in Kansas, Maine, and Illinois unearthed some rather astounding conditions along this line. A few of the main facts revealed by these studies will give prospective history teachers some idea of the conditions they are likely to encounter on entering upon their anticipated careers. For example, conditions in Kansas around 1914 as shown by two investigations were as follows: But 43.7 per cent of the teachers who had prepared to teach history were actually teaching the subject. Facing this fact, one might ask with propriety, What were the other 56.3 per cent who had prepared to teach history teaching? The answer to this question is this, Nearly every subject in a modern high-school curriculum, ranging in number from two to ten a teacher.¹ Furthermore, one of these studies in which history was made the center of attention revealed the startling fact that it was combined with twenty-seven other subjects, numbering from one to five additional ones a teacher. The most frequent combinations were history and English, 149 times out of a possible 420; history and mathematics, 121 times; history and Latin, 94; history and physics, 51; history and German, 39; history and botany, 39. It was also discovered that history was combined with a single subject 127 times; with two subjects, 164 times; with three subjects, 76 times; with four subjects, 12 times; and with five subjects, once.² On the basis of these findings one must conclude that when these studies were made conditions in Kansas relative to history teaching were by no means favorable and were more or less discouraging to history teachers in training.

¹ Josselyn, *Survey of Accredited High Schools*, p. 54.

² Steeper, "The Status of History Teaching in the High Schools of Kansas," *School Review*, XXII, 191.

Kansas is not alone in the matter of conditions unfavorable to good history teaching and a discouraging outlook to those preparing to teach the subject. In a study of the history teachers in Maine for the year 1913-1914 it was discovered that but 6 per cent of 156 teachers in 90 high schools made history teaching a specialty, the remaining 94 per cent devoting only a part of their time to the subject. In a consideration of the matter solely from the standpoint of the high schools it was found that 10 per cent of those reporting employed a teacher to teach history exclusively; 14 per cent employed him primarily to teach history, but in practice he often had to teach two other subjects as well; and 76 per cent gave the history to people who happened to have room for it on their programs.¹ In Illinois at about the same date, in but 95 out of 483 high schools was history taught alone. In 171 schools it was taught along with one other subject; in 118, along with two other subjects; in 46, along with three other subjects; and in 42, along with four or more other subjects. The following were some of the peculiar and unfortunate combinations:

1. History, zoölogy, physics, chemistry.
2. History, Latin, physics, German, physiography, astronomy.
3. History, physical geography, drawing, botany, domestic science, zoölogy.

4. History, physics, chemistry, business law, civics, economics.
5. History, science, arithmetic, geography, civics, algebra.

Mr. E. R. Sayre, who made this study, commented as follows on the combinations he found:

These examples could be multiplied indefinitely, for they were picked almost at random from the reports of the first fifty schools which I examined, and they were not chosen from among high schools having only three or four teachers but from some having as many as twelve.²

¹ Lewis, "The Teaching of History in Maine," *History Teacher's Magazine*, V, 159.

² *Proceedings of the High School Conference* (November, 1913), p. 274. University of Illinois, School of Education.

The most discouraging fact revealed in this investigation was that nine tenths of the teachers who taught history and three or more other subjects had no degree; the idea seemingly being that the less preparation a teacher has the more subjects he can teach.

In view of the foregoing statistics the following suggestions to history teachers in preparation seem relevant: (1) The chances are few that the inexperienced teacher will be called upon to teach history only—one in twenty in some states. (2) The combination standing first is: history and English—an English teacher teaching English and history, or vice versa. (3) A combination of history and mathematics seems to stand second and a combination of history and Latin third. (4) One desiring to teach high-school history on completing a college course should be prepared to conduct classes in more than one subject—the safe plan being to make some preparation in at least three subjects.

In order to improve the discouraging conditions now existing in the matter of the subjects other than history which history teachers teach, those already in the field should demand on all possible occasions that they be permitted to devote their entire time to the teaching of their chosen subject. If such demands can be made sufficiently emphatic and receive the response they deserve, the near future will not see 32.5 per cent of the teachers of high-school history in a state unprepared to teach the subject, and 56.3 per cent of those who prepared to teach history teaching other subjects, as was the case in Kansas when Josselyn made his report.

MEASURING THE HIGH-SCHOOL HISTORY TEACHER'S EFFICIENCY

It is most important that the teacher know as much about the standards whereby he is to be judged as the individual administering them. This being true, it becomes necessary for prospective as well as actual teachers to give some consideration

to failure and success in teaching and to the standards by which each is determined and more or less accurately measured. Since so many teachers fail (about 42 per cent) during their initial year, the problem of failure and some of its causes furnishes a very profitable field of investigation for beginners. Fortunately some concrete data are in existence on this subject. In 1915 Buellesfield made a study of causes of failure among teachers. There were included in this study 4848 cases in 116 school systems. The seven chief causes of failure in the order of importance were weakness in discipline, lack of judgment, deficiency in scholarship, poor methods, daily preparation insufficient, lack of industry, and lack of sympathy. The complete list is given in Table IX.

The diagnostic value of the material in Table IX both to experienced and inexperienced teachers is considerable, for it will be observed that nearly all the causes of failure listed therein are directly under one's control. A self-inventory now and then with the undesirable traits and characteristics discovered by Buellesfield clearly in mind would in all probability be worth any teacher's making. To make sure that such a self-examination is in the main correct, one would do well to seek the assistance of others, for it is quite conceivable that one might lack sympathy, use poor methods, be deceitful, too frivolous, unprofessional, and untidy in dress and never discover the fact without the aid of a second party.

Important as it is that history teachers know wherein they are failing, it is equally important that they know something of the elements of success or qualities of merit on which their success is rated. While there is somewhat of a general agreement among school administrators and supervisors on the fundamental qualities of teaching efficiency, there is no one scheme for measuring this efficiency that meets with general approval. To acquaint the teacher with the various qualities and at the same time to give him an idea of their relative importance there is probably no better available information

TABLE IX. CAUSES OF FAILURE AMONG TEACHERS¹

CAUSES OF FAILURE	CHIEF CAUSE	CONTRIBUTORY CAUSE	TOTAL
Weakness in discipline	114	54	168
Lacked judgment	45	86	131
Deficient in scholarship	42	40	82
Poor methods	41	79	120
Daily preparation insufficient	23	51	74
Lacked industry	19	28	47
Lacked sympathy	17	45	62
Too nervous	15	30	45
Deficient in social qualities	15	27	42
Unprofessional attitudes	14	28	42
Unattractive appearance	12	29	41
Poor health	12	13	25
Lacked culture and refinement	11	28	39
Uninterested in work of teaching	10	26	36
Too many outside interests	10	23	33
Immoral	10	1	11
Too frivolous	9	17	26
Disloyalty	9	16	25
Could not control temper	7	23	30
Deceitful	7	19	26
Untidy in dress	7	14	21
Remained too long	5	17	22
Too immature	3	13	16
Wrong religious views (for that community) .	2	3	5
Attended places of questionable amusement	1	8	9
Keeping company with High School boys .	1	0	1
Use of tobacco	0	1	1

than that given by Boyce in his *Methods for Measuring Teachers' Efficiency*. Table X contains a summary of Boyce's study.

The practical use to be made of the material in Table X is the same as that on failure and its causes. The comparative rank of each quality should assist a teacher in distinguishing

¹ "Causes of Failure among Teachers," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, I, 451.

TABLE X. THE QUALITIES WHICH MAKE AN EFFECTIVE TEACHER, AND THEIR RELATIVE IMPORTANCE¹

QUALITIES	RANK
I. Personal equipment.	
1. General appearance	43
2. Health	39
3. Voice	42
4. Intellectual capacity	34
5. Initiative and self-reliance	13
6. Adaptability and resourcefulness	11
7. Accuracy	17
8. Industry	24
9. Enthusiasm and optimism	22
10. Integrity and sincerity	33
11. Self-control	30
12. Promptness	29
13. Tact	25
14. Sense and justice	36
II. Social and professional equipment.	
15. Academic preparation	44
16. Professional preparation	45
17. Grasp of subject matter	19
18. Understanding of children	15
19. Interest in the life of the school	31
20. Interest in the life of the community	35
21. Ability to meet and interest patrons	38
22. Interest in lives of pupils	26
23. Coöperation and loyalty	28
24. Professional interest and growth	18
25. Daily preparation	27
26. Use of English	40
III. School management.	
27. Care of light, heat, and ventilation	37
28. Neatness of room	41
29. Care of routine	32
30. Discipline (governing skill)	12

¹ See Fourteenth Year Book of the *National Society for the Study of Education*, Pt. II, p. 68. The table reads: General development of the pupils ranks first in a list of 45 qualities; growth of pupils in subject matter ranks second, etc.

TABLE X (CONTINUED)

QUALITIES	RANK
IV. Technique of teaching.	
31. Definiteness and clearness of aim	10
32. Skill in habit formation	5
33. Skill in stimulating thought	8
34. Skill in teaching how to study	7
35. Skill in questioning	20
36. Choice of subject matter	6
37. Organization of subject matter	3
38. Skill and care in assignment	9
39. Skill in motivating work	16
40. Attention to individual needs	14
V. Results.	
41. Attention and response of the class	4
42. Growth of pupils in subject matter	2
43. General development of pupils	1
44. Stimulation of community	23
45. Moral influence	21

important from unimportant qualities. Since, when relatively considered, such items as definiteness and clearness of aim, skill in habit formation, skill in stimulating thought, choice of subject matter, and attention and response of the class all rank high, a teacher who desires a corresponding rank will give these qualities considerable attention. On a close examination of the table it will be found that qualities relating to results and the technic of teaching with few exceptions uniformly rank high in the scale values.

Before a supervisor can scientifically rate a history teacher according to Boyce's qualities of merit, he must devise some scheme to view the effects of the teacher's work on the students. One may get at this matter concretely from two angles—the one on the basis of what the students know and can do, the other on the basis of their attitude toward history. The first angle involves the whole matter of tests and standards discussed in Chapter VIII and the second a personal statement

on the part of the pupils as to why they appreciate or fail to appreciate history. Both of these angles would furnish concrete data on the qualities of merit ranked so high in Boyce's scale of values.

Since the matter of tests and standards has been considered elsewhere, the discussion may pass at once to the second angle of the matter under discussion. From data that the writer has collected from high-school graduates as to why they failed to appreciate history while in high school it appears that the teacher is the chief cause. Judged wholly from the effect of their teaching on the girls who wrote the following, the two teachers in question would fall rather low in the scale of efficiency :

During almost four years I did not appreciate history and I do not feel that I was altogether to blame for it. My first half year things around me were so new (for it was my first year in high school) that it was hard for me to really get down to hard solid work. Then the teacher I had didn't understand people of our ages and consequently was a little hard on us. He was excitable and very inconsistent in marking and every-day recitations. The classes were so noisy all the time that one could hardly keep one's mind on the work. My mind was not led into the paths which would tend to interest me, for in fact it was not guided at all but allowed to drift, and gradually the little interest which I had had in history from grammar school was blotted out, and by the end of my first half year I found all appreciation of history gone.

Well do I remember that three-thirty history class. Our high-school building was very small and we had our history class down on the main floor in the little botany room, which was a close, stuffy little room. Our history teacher was an elderly man, very heavy set, with large flabby cheeks. He had been teaching a great many years and had gotten into a rut. He used no devices to make the subject interesting; day after day we recited from the text. We had no opportunity for an informal discussion or personal opinion. Mr. K. called on us alphabetically and went down the

list. After we had been called on we could settle back in our chairs. It seems strange that one should not appreciate history for the mere reason that one disliked the teacher. This was true. He did not try to stir any interest or appreciation of the subject whatever.

The writer has in his possession many statements of high-school graduates similar in tone to the foregoing. He also has an equal number of statements which give the other side of the matter. While it is true that high-school graduates hold their teachers responsible for their failure to appreciate history, it is equally true that when these same individuals appreciate and like their high-school history, their teachers receive due credit. That this is the case to some extent at least is evidenced by the following statement of a high-school graduate in response to the request to write a brief statement on why she liked history in the high school:

I liked American history in the high school for several reasons. One was the enthusiastic, wide-awake, and charming personality of my instructor. She inspired me to do my best. When one is doing good work, this alone will make the work interesting, enjoyable, and profitable. Another reason was the interesting way the work was given. We read from our texts and from outside references. She did not ask for a report on these, but would ask a question which we would have to figure out, putting together all we had read, what we knew about it, and any information which would bear on the subject. In other words, she threw it into the problematic form. We found out what x and y were and gave her the solution. She had us also read historical novels, and books on the life of men, as Daniel Boone, and then we made as interesting a report on it as we could. We were given free rein to develop it as we pleased. This was very interesting to me. I never worked so hard in my life as I did trying to get interesting and varied reports. I had to report on pioneer life of the children. I wrote it in novel form with a plot, bringing in the pioneer life, the Indians, and some historical events. We had several papers of this type to work out, and I enjoyed them all. We also had to keep

notebooks and most interesting maps and charts. She was full of interesting surprises in carrying out the different work. We had a mock trial and many other real-life demonstrations and objective work. This was great fun and very good for us. She had contests on dates, etc., when the boys were pitted against the girls. This I think was the most fun of all. She varied the contests: sometimes she would give dates and we had to tell everything of importance that happened, sometimes she would give results and we would enumerate the causes, etc. All in all, my American history in the high school, as I look back upon it, was enjoyable, interesting, likable, and profitable work.

If a student likes one field of history and dislikes another, the teacher is often held responsible. Judging from the statements which the writer has collected, the field of history itself is not always a sufficiently impelling force in causing young people to like or dislike the subject. In no case did the same teacher cause pupils to like one field and dislike another, but in many cases one field of history was much appreciated under one teacher and another field was disliked under a different teacher. The following statement is but one of many illustrating this fact:

I liked American history in high school because the teacher was a very cheerful and easy-going person, but also held enough prestige over us to make us realize her position. We had daily lessons to prepare from a textbook, but always recited on these lessons in quite informal discussions. Any material that we might have had from our experiences or from other reading was considered worth while as long as it pertained to the lesson. Not being held strictly to the words of the text, giving more if able, we were interested in reading any article that we came upon. The facts seemed true and I liked them because they related to our own country. Because they did relate to our own country, its progress and development, they seemed worthy of careful study. While I appreciated this particular field of history, I did not care about ancient history. This field seemed not well founded, because it was so old and primitive. The teacher was well versed in her subject,

but she was of a very nervous disposition, and this more or less affected her work. Her method was the textbook method, and she held us strictly to the text. This gave no chance for individual reflections and did not encourage research work. Occasionally Greek stories were given us as reference work, but the attitude toward this was much different than toward the research work done in American history.

HIGH-SCHOOL HISTORY TEACHERS AND THEIR METHODS AS VIEWED BY THEIR STUDENTS

No comprehensive study of the high-school history teacher from the pupil's point of view has ever been made. To the writer's knowledge but one article along this line has been published.¹ Working along the same lines suggested in this article and in some unpublished material in the possession of its author, the writer has collected a small amount of data on the subject; not enough, however, on which to base dependable conclusions, but sufficient to indicate how a number of history teachers are viewed by those whom they have taught.

Reference has already been made to Engleman's study made on the general subject under consideration here. This, it will be recalled, revealed certain mental, personal, and social qualities which high-school students admire in their teachers. Interesting to relate, most of these qualities appear in the papers of high-school graduates when they are asked to write especially of their history teachers. As revealed in the one hundred and fifty statements that the writer has collected from high-school graduates relative to their high-school history teachers and their methods, the following qualities of merit are looked upon with much favor: attractive personality, broad-mindedness, keen sense of humor, impartiality, fairness, kindness, interest in subject, personal interest in students, pleasing manner, and much vitality. Here is how one girl expressed her appreciation of these qualities in her teacher:

¹ Williams, "The History Teacher as viewed by the History Student," *History Teacher's Magazine*, V, 260 ff.

The teacher I had for medieval and modern history was a wonder. She had a reputation of being severe, and she was, but in such a way that one did not mind it. Her idea was that we were all there to help each other, and she wanted us not to feel formal. The result was that we all looked forward to going to her class. We had a textbook in which a lesson was assigned every day except when we had reference readings in other history books. These references were always about the subject we were taking up in the textbook. Twice or three times a week we had one-word tests, which we wrote in our notebooks. These were collected and kept by her. The rows were numbered, and the odd rows took the odd questions and the even rows the even questions. These tests were given to see if we had read our text or reference. At the beginning of the year she showed us how to study to get the most out of our lessons and to get only the main points. After these little quizzes she would lecture to us. She might have four points that she wanted to bring out, but often we would only finish two, because we would become so interested that we would keep asking questions, and as she had traveled a great deal and knew her subjects so well, she could always answer our questions. In taking up the subject of religions, she gave all the good and bad points impartially. She was very broad-minded and could see the good things in every religion. She knew all the doctrines of all the sects, and even if she wasn't a member of a certain denomination, she knew the doctrines and creed better than some of the students who were members. She gave stereopticon lectures and had other pictures, and sometimes she had original documents and heirlooms to show us. She had a keen sense of humor. Often we laughed for ten minutes, and then we would feel more like settling down to work. There were only a few dates that she wished us to remember, and these were made easy by a little verse or something similar. We also had a little verse to help us remember the kings. At the end of the semester she gave out a set of questions which required quite a bit of reference work to answer. If we answered so many of these and got a good mark, we were excused from the final. As a result, very few had to take the final examination. She said that she could tell pretty well at the end of the first month those who were sure to do good work, just by our attitude. She was very fair and did her share to help us make up any back

work. Her personal appearance was always without a fault. She wore quiet tailored clothes and absolutely no jewelry except a plain ring and a simple pin in her tie. Everyone in her class admired her, and also got a great deal out of the course under her direction.

Besides revealing certain definite and desirable qualities in history teachers, the descriptions by high-school graduates of their history teacher and their methods of procedure throw much light on some other phases of successful history teaching when considered from the standpoint of those being taught. For example, a good teacher in the judgment of the pupils does not have to be a good-looking individual. The following description gives some proof of this fact:

An accurate description of the teacher who gave me the best appreciation and understanding of history will have to be, from the standpoint of outward appearances, most uncomplimentary, since the first glance at her did not make you feel that she would have anything valuable or interesting in store for you. She was short and quite fleshy, and there was no sign of grace in any of her movements. She was a middle-aged woman, and her hair was rather gray, pulled back tightly from her face, and coiled into a tiny knot on the top of her head. Her eyes were small, but very snappy and full of life, her nose was small, but pugged, and her mouth unattractive except in a smile, and then most charming. Her whole face smiled, instead of just her mouth, and one always felt that he *must* smile back. However, if on first glance your impression of her was not remarkable, you only had to sit looking at her for a few moments before you felt how charming and fascinating and *human* she was. With a personality such as hers, a thorough knowledge of her subject, and carefully planned methods for making the course most valuable, there was scarcely anything missing to make the course a success and to give the pupils an understanding and a new conception of history. And this she certainly did, at least in my case. Her methods were simple, not seeming to differ from those employed by many other teachers in but one or two respects. When I was in the class, of course, I was not looking for "methods," but there are one or two things which stand out clearly in my mind that differed entirely

from methods used by other teachers. In the first place she gave us each week a typewritten outline, which included all the topics we were to study for that week. This was in a definite and clear form, and beside each large heading were given references in several texts which we were given access to, so that we could turn immediately to them and find the material we wanted. These outlines furnished us definite material for the preparation of the daily lesson, and seemed to put into a compact form the essential topics, and helped fix them in mind. I believe also that her idea of not confining the reading to one text was an especially good one, and one not employed by the majority of history teachers. There were occasional outside references, but usually one text was used in the preparation of the daily lesson. This is apt to be narrowing, and become a bore to the pupil, if the text is not unusually good. The outlines were brought to class each day and used somewhat as guides for our discussions, although we were never obliged to adhere strictly to them. The recitations were carried on in the form of informal discussions, sometimes between teacher and pupil, sometimes between pupils, and were very free and always remarkably interesting. By clever questions and challenges she led one on until he was all stirred up over a question. You never felt as if she was going to put down in her book just what your answer was worth, for she seldom asked a question which demanded a direct answer, but rather put it into argumentative form. You always knew that she appreciated any common sense revealed or individual thinking on your part, even though the text did not state the same facts. I believe that these outlines and our informal discussions, combined with her knowledge of United States history and her enthusiasm displayed in the classroom, were all methods or factors which gave me a better understanding and appreciation of history in general.

Some other encouraging revelations contained in the accounts in the writer's possession are: (1) A teacher does not have to be young to make his students appreciate history. (2) A history teacher does not have to be easy to be popular. (3) The lecture system can be made a success in high-school history teaching. (4) Good history teaching does not have to be

spectacular. (5) The power to make the fact a living reality is a great asset to a history teacher. (6) Students enjoy making maps, reading in other books, keeping notebooks, writing papers, and similar exercises. The following statements illustrate almost all these points:

The teacher who helped me most to an appreciation of history was an elderly woman with white hair and a dignified bearing. When a Freshman this lady had terrified me, and it was with much trepidation that I entered her room for class work. She was assistant principal of the high school, and so was necessarily stern at times. I thought she was a sort of an ogre, and the first time I remember trying to recite for her I started to name as many presidents as I could, and as nearly in order as possible. I started with Washington, named Adams and a few others, and ended up by naming Washington over again. She had me so frightened that I could not think. However, when I finished, she looked up and smiled—everybody else laughed excepting myself. She seemed to know that I was frightened for she put her glasses down a little way on her nose, peered out over them at me, smiled and said, "How do you spell your first name, Miss——?" I was thunderstruck. What was she going to do? But I did manage to say "V-i-o-l-e-t." She said, "I am glad you don't spell it V-i-o-l-e-t-t-e; it would lessen my opinion of you." Then she chatted on a little about names. Of course, everybody wondered what she was doing. She wasn't doing a thing, but making us "at home," but we didn't know it then. Soon she started the history study again, and we forgot about the little discussion for the time. That afternoon I was walking down the hall. She put out her arm, a clean, stiffly starched arm it was too, and caught my arm. To this day I cannot tell what she said to me, but I do know that ever after I idolized the dignified, orderly woman. She admired a boy who sold papers or worked in some other way, and said so. Also she admired a girl who helped her mother, she said that too, and although her lessons did wander from the straight and narrow path of just history at times, yet she got as good results as any of the other teachers and, besides, made the subject pleasant for us.

The history teacher who helped me most to an appreciation and understanding of history had a pleasing personality which seemed to be carried through the subject of history itself. She was not what one would call good looking, but had an attractive way. She was for the most part of an even temper, but could be stern if necessary. Her way of taking up history was not that of the old type, but was a most interesting way. She went over much of the history in a clear way. She gave us topics on which to take notes in an orderly fashion and so that they could be remembered. Although the textbook was studied, the reading in other books was one of the pleasant features of this course. Miss L. had us prepare notebooks and maps. What made the subject of most pleasure to the class was the informal way in which the recitation was carried on. Informal discussions directed by Miss L. did much to make the history clear. Another device she used was the giving of different current topics by various members of the class. Guided by this wide-awake teacher we were able to keep in touch with the outside world as well as with the past history. Miss L. was a rather slight young person of medium height with light hair and blue eyes. She wore her hair parted in the middle and slightly rolled on both sides and was always very neat and attractive to look upon. Her light blue eyes were generally calm, but could snap and flash when she became excited. Miss L. talked in a quiet even tone, but sometimes when careless or unruly boys disturbed the class her tones could be sharp and clear cut to make the offender realize his misdemeanor. She was well liked by both fellow teachers and her students. At all class parties and functions it was always Miss L. whom the boys and girls unanimously chose as chaperon. This popularity among the students was not because Miss L. was "easy" in classes. She was most fair in all examinations and classes and showed no favoritism or partiality. Her popularity was due, I think, to her pleasing personality, her friendliness and kindness to everyone, and her desire to help wherever and whenever she could.

The teacher who helped me most to an appreciation of history was the young lady who taught history and civics in the high school. She was very ambitious and full of life. She had a

pleasing manner and a sense of humor. She made you feel an interest in the subject because of her own interest in it and the personal interest which she seemed to take in each pupil. She lectured on the different topics and gave us some outside reading to do. We had a notebook in which we kept notes on the lectures and reports. We prepared maps to illustrate the geographical connections of some things. Special topics were assigned to each student to report upon to the class. These seemed especially to interest the class. We had a textbook, but it was so condensed that it was almost an outline, and all elaboration of the facts had to be obtained from other sources. This book, however, gave us the order of progression, and material gleaned from other sources seemed more profitable and interesting.

The teacher who helped me most in acquiring an appreciation of history was a woman who herself was thoroughly alive to the subject. She had studied history a great many years and knew a great deal about it. Consequently she made the class very much interested in it, and her method of work was, I suppose, very much like others. We read a certain number of pages, talked them over in class, read outside references, and had a general discussion. The devices which she used were discussions upon outside readings; mapping out the different routes of armies; coloring printed maps to show gains of territory or losses of it; arguments or debates upon certain points such as who was the best leader of a certain army and why, which required outside reading; and various articles and pictures brought in by the teacher. All of these devices helped to bring the class to a greater appreciation of the subject, and I'm sure everyone got something worth while out of the course, whether he further studied history or not.

The history teacher who helped me to an appreciation and understanding of history was a man who was thoroughly absorbed in his subject. When we studied historical characters, he always had a rich fund of details (not given in our textbook) to make the impression of the character lasting. His admiration of some historical people was very great, as frequently expressed by such hearty exclamations as "Oh, how I would like to have known the man!" The enthusiasm, admiration, and reverence with which he treated biographies of great men made them living people to his pupils. I liked his treatment of events—we were made to see

their relationship to all phases of life. The petty details of war were omitted, only such parts as touched significant points or problems were studied. We were led to criticize, revise, question, and study out for ourselves important topics. The devices which this instructor used to help us to grow in power to understand and appreciate history were varied. Those which best helped me were his vivid lectures and his references to other books. Our textbook merely gave a broad general study of our subject, the enrichment being left to reference books. The maps which we made twice a week fixed facts clearly and definitely. We used notebooks in which we wrote in topical order the points obtained from reference reading, textbooks, and lectures.

The teacher who helped me most to an appreciation and understanding of history had pleasing manners; was broad-minded, well informed, interested in the subject and in the children, fair, and just, and expected the children to do the right thing. I think his method was a combination of methods: textbook, problematic, topical, lecture, developmental. The assignment was good; interest was aroused in the work to be done. Sometimes the assignment was in the form of questions that had to be answered. Reading in addition to the textbook was given, special topics were often given, and these were to be worked up and reported to the class. Maps were made to help in understanding and organizing material. Outlines were worked out, not merely copied and learned. Sometimes the teacher lectured, at other times lectures would be given on special topics by the pupils. There was an attempt to correlate history with other work. The recitation was not a time for mere memory work but a time for clearing up points and for getting new views of things.

A history teacher who wishes to help his students to an appreciation and an understanding of history can well afford occasionally to examine himself in the light of the foregoing descriptions. He will find in them an ideal worthy of attainment, a standard deserving of the efforts of any teacher to attempt to measure up to, and an indication that good history teachers are much appreciated by their students.

THE HISTORY TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL LIBRARY¹

The three chief ways for a history teacher to keep abreast of the new movements in the teaching phase of his subject are (1) to attend professional gatherings now and then; (2) to spend an occasional summer in studying the problems relative to the teaching of history in a school which offers courses along this line; and (3) to read books, magazines, and reports concerning history and the teaching of history in the high school and elsewhere. No one of these is complete within itself. To attain the most worth-while results a teacher must supplement any one of them with the other two. This, however, is an ideal which all will not be able to attain. Because of the fact that most teachers are forced to adapt their ambitions along the line of professional growth to a salary which is too often but little above a living wage, their attendance at professional gatherings and summer schools must be very sporadic. On account of this fact there is left but one avenue through which to attain professional betterment. This is number three above, which does not seem entirely beyond the financial reach of the lowest salaried teacher. Generally speaking, if the money spent in attending two or three professional gatherings or one summer session were put in books on the teaching of history, it would be sufficient to supply one with all the material of any great value along this line. When a professional history library has once been brought up to date the amount required to keep it thus is very insignificant. A beginning teacher should supply himself at his earliest opportunity with the worth-while literature on the teaching of his subject. This done early in his career it will be possible for him subsequently to keep up to date in this matter and at the same time occasionally to attend a professional gathering or a summer school.

¹ This section aims to be practical rather than complete. It supplements the additional reading matter listed at the end of each chapter.

Suppose a history teacher desires to purchase, as he is able, a select library on the professional phase of his subject, what ought he to include in his list? In terms of the types of material a working library on the teaching of history should include (1) general discussions of the subject of history, its purposes, processes, etc.; (2) books treating the numerous teaching phases of the subject; (3) reports of committees; and (4) outlines and syllabuses. A careful selection would limit the number of books in the first of these classes to five, all of rather recent publication, the oldest being J. W. Allen's *The Place of History in Education*.¹ Three years after Allen's book, *The New History* by Professor James Harvey Robinson appeared,² which was followed three years later by *The Purpose of History*, by Professor T. J. E. Woodbridge,³ and Dean Mathews's *The Spiritual Interpretation of History*.⁴ The most recent of these general discussions is Teggart's *The Processes of History*.⁵ Briefly considering these titles in reverse order, it should be said of Professor Teggart's little volume that it contains interesting considerations of the geographical and the human factors in history. The entire discussion is an attempt "to do for human history what biologists are engaged in doing for the history of other forms of life." It is heavy reading and contains little that will interest a beginner. *The Spiritual Interpretation of History* is the outcome of six lectures delivered by the author at Harvard University in the fall of 1916. The first two lectures treat of the limits within which the spiritual interpretation of history is possible, and the spiritual tendencies in history as a whole; and the last four with such general subjects as the substitution of moral for physical control, the growing recognition of the worth of the individual, the transformation

¹ William Blackwood and Sons, London, 1909.

² The Macmillan Company, 1912.

³ Columbia University Press, 1916.

⁴ Harvard University Press, 1916.

⁵ Yale University Press, 1918.

of right into justice, and the spiritual opportunity in a period of reconstruction. Professor Woodbridge's book, like Dean Mathews's, is the result of a series of lectures, in this case three, delivered at the University of North Carolina in the spring of 1916. The subjects of these lectures are "From History to Philosophy," "The Pluralism of History," and "The Continuity of History." Philosophically inclined individuals will be interested in what Professor Woodbridge says on these subjects. A book that has been widely read is Professor Robinson's *The New History*. For a popular treatment of the newer tendencies in writing and interpreting history it probably has no equal. The chapters on "The New History," "The New Allies of History," and "History for the Common Man" are especially illuminating and will be read with interest by a neophyte in the field of history teaching. Allen's *The Place of History in Education*, the oldest of the books in this group, deals with such subjects as history as a science, the educational value of history, and the point of view in history. The work as a whole is interesting as well as easy reading.

Of the titles comprising the second class of books mentioned above there are probably nine that should be mentioned in a limited list. Chronologically considered, the first of these is a book edited by G. Stanley Hall.¹ It consists of collections of essays by a number of scholars and for the present time has historical rather than practical value. A similar statement can be made of B. A. Hinsdale's book, which appeared a decade after the one edited by Hall.² The fact, however, that Hinsdale's volume is yet on the market would seem to indicate that it is still used by some teachers. Inasmuch as the book contains considerable material of a general nature, such as methods of teaching, organization of facts, etc., one might expect sustained rather than temporary interest in it.

¹ *Methods of Teaching History*. D. C. Heath & Co., 1883.

² *How to Study and Teach History*. D. Appleton and Company, 1893.

Two other books which seem to have more historical than practical value are those by W. H. Mace¹ and H. E. Bourne.² In his first edition Mace presented a theory of organizing history which he illustrated with the history of the United States. The 1914 edition kept all the old material and added enough new to place it almost in the class with recent publications of a similar character. Bourne's book is in reality the pioneer in the field of teaching history in the elementary and secondary schools. While half of his discussion is devoted to an out-of-date organization of high-school history, the subjects considered in the other half are those yet in the foreground of the thought of those most interested in better history teaching on all levels of instruction.

The five remaining books in group two have been published since 1910. In the order of their appearance they are *Studies in the Teaching of History* by M. W. Keatinge,³ *The Teaching of History* by E. C. Hartwell,⁴ *How to Teach American History* by J. W. Wayland,⁵ *The Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools* by Henry Johnson,⁶ and *History in the Elementary School* by C. N. Kendall and F. E. Stryker.⁷ Since these five volumes contain the most recent discussions of history and the teaching of history in the elementary and secondary schools, they will of necessity be the first books to be considered by a teacher, a librarian, or a high-school principal in purchasing an up-to-date professional history library.⁸

¹ *Method in History*. Rand McNally & Co., 1897, 1914.

² *The Teaching of History and Civics*. Longmans, Green, & Co., 1902, 1910.

³ Adam & Charles Black, London, 1910.

⁴ Houghton Mifflin Company, 1913.

⁵ The Macmillan Company, 1914.

⁶ The Macmillan Company, 1915.

⁷ Houghton Mifflin Company, 1918.

⁸ Two other books on special phases of history teaching might be mentioned in this connection. They are C. O. Davis, *A Guide to Methods and Observation in History*, Rand, McNally & Co., 1914; and Mabel Simpson, *Supervised Study in History*, The Macmillan Company, 1918.

Since 1893 there have appeared in the field of history the reports of five committees. A knowledge of each of these is necessary to an adequate understanding of the stages through which the present course of study in the elementary and secondary schools have gone. Chronologically considered, the first of the five is the report to the famous Committee of Ten¹ of the subcommittee on "History, Civil Government, and Political Economy," in which one finds the beginning of a great deal that now exists in elementary and secondary history. Soon after the appearance of the Committee of Ten's report the American Historical Association became interested in the subject of history in elementary and secondary schools. As a result of this interest there appeared in 1898, 1908, and 1911 the reports of three committees² appointed by this association. Inasmuch as the report of the Committee of Five is based on a partial revision of the report of the Committee of Seven, the two should be considered conjointly. Some things relating to the teaching of history have never been said better than these committees said them. Furthermore, when one includes the report of the Committee of Eight, it is the whole truth to say that most of the history taught in the secondary schools for fifteen years following 1900 and in the elementary schools for ten years following 1908 was that recommended by these committees. Hence the necessity for knowing the contents of these reports, if one desires a historical background of the present-day condition of history in these schools. To date, the reports under discussion end where they began, with the National Education Association. In 1916, through one of its committees, this association issued a report on *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*.³ Since this report leaped into favor immediately after its publication, and since the program proposed therein will be

¹ American Book Company, 1894.

² The Committees of Seven, Eight, and Five. The Macmillan Company published the first and the last, and Scribner the other one.

³ Bulletin (1916) No. 28. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

the one at which most of the attacks of the future are likely to be directed, it becomes almost a professional crime for a history teacher to be ignorant of its contents.

The outlines and syllabuses which are worth a history teacher's consideration may be classified into (1) those covering the entire field of high-school history, and (2) those relating to special fields. In the first group there are three, two of immediate and one of remote value. The reader will recall the fact that the Committee of Seven made no attempt to outline in any detail the fields of history which are recommended for the high school. This detailed work was left to a committee of the New England History Teachers' Association. The report of this committee¹ was published in 1901. It was then and still remains one of the most elaborate history syllabuses for secondary schools in existence. For those who teach the traditional four-year high-school course consisting of ancient, medieval and modern, English, and American history, the syllabus still has much value.

There are two syllabuses issued by the state departments of public instruction which deserve a circulation beyond the boundaries of the states issuing them.² Neither of these syllabuses conforms strictly to the fields proposed by the Committee of Seven. The chief variation from this report in both of them is in the field of European history, in which they adhere more to the report of the Committee on Social Studies, for which reason they are valuable to the teacher who desires to reorganize the field of European history in conformance with the ideas expressed in the report of this latter committee.

In the field of ancient history there are but few outlines and syllabuses which are of any great value. In fact, the number of such aids seems to be limited to three. Of these Knowlton's

¹ *A History Syllabus for Secondary Schools*. D. C. Heath & Co.

² *The Teaching of Social Studies including History*, Department of Public Instruction, Trenton, N. J., 1916; and *Syllabus for Secondary Schools—History and Civics*, prepared by the University of the State of New York; reprinted and published by New York Education Co., Albany, N. Y.

Illustrated Topics in Ancient History is by far the most useful.¹ The introductory material in Armstrong's *Syllabus and Notebook for Ancient History* is of considerable value.² Since neither of these aids is expensive, it would be well for a beginner to have access to both of them. The other syllabus in the latter half of this field is Botsford's, which appeared in 1915.³ While the teacher will not find in this work an outline which he can actually use in his classes, he will secure from a careful perusal of its contents a multitude of suggestions which he can apply in making such an outline. Furthermore, if the teacher desires a guide to his own reading in the field, he will find it in Botsford's little publication.

Serviceable syllabuses and outlines are a little more plentiful in medieval and modern European history than in ancient history. The latest ones to appear are *A Syllabus of European History*⁴ and *Syllabus for a Course in Early European History*.⁵ While the first of these is designed to accompany a particular text in the field, it may, however, serve as a useful guide to follow in using any textbook. Mr. Hoskins does not base his work on any single text, but makes constant reference to a number in the field of ancient and medieval history. A much older syllabus than the two foregoing is Trenholme's,⁶ which, like Williams's, is largely based on a single text, Robinson's *History of Western Europe*. In spite of the many changes which have occurred since 1907 in the traditional high-school course in European history, Trenholme's work is still of considerable value. In the medieval field alone, Armstrong has a syllabus similar to his *Syllabus and Notebook for Ancient History*⁷ of which mention has already been made. The general

¹ McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, 1913.

² Atkinson, Mentzer & Co., 1918.

³ *A Syllabus of Roman History*. The Macmillan Company.

⁴ Williams. American Book Company, 1918.

⁵ Hoskins. The Historical Publishing Co., Topeka, Kansas, 1919.

⁶ *A Syllabus for the History of Western Europe*. Ginn and Company, 1917.

⁷ *A Syllabus and Notebook for Medieval History*. Atkinson, Mentzer & Co., 1917.

plan of these two works is the same; in fact, they contain a very considerable amount of exactly the same material. In the field of strictly modern history there is a syllabus by Professor Hayes.¹ Since this work is so modern in its selection of topics, it should be of great assistance to those interested in a new selection of topics in modern history. Two valuable aids in a restricted portion of the field are Harding's topical outlines of the World War and its preliminaries.² Inasmuch as after the war reorganization of high-school history will remain for some time an important problem, these outlines should be of considerable assistance to teachers of modern history.

In the field of English history proper Trenholme's *An Outline of English History*,³ based on Cheyney's *Short History of England*, stands almost alone. Closely akin to it in the American field is an *Outline of American History for Use in High Schools*.⁴ In spite of the fact that this outline is based on a single text, it has value regardless of the textbook used. McKinley's *Illustrated Topics in American History*⁵ is similar in plan to Knowlton's *Illustrated Topics in Ancient History*. The value of both of these aids lies in the vast amount of varied material they contain. *A Syllabus of American History* by R. L. Schuyler⁶ contains valuable suggestions on a topical organization of the field of American history. To this brief list one other should be added. Taylor's *Outlines of American Industrial History*⁷ is a work of pronounced value to a high-school history teacher who desires to emphasize industrial life and activities.

In concluding this part of the discussion a few remarks on the ways and means of keeping up to the minute on material

¹ *A Syllabus of Modern History*. Columbia University Press, 1913.

² These outlines may be secured in a convenient form in *Collected Materials for the Study of the War*. McKinley Publishing Co., 1918.

³ Ginn and Company, 1918.

⁴ Jonas Viles. Ginn and Company, 1915.

⁵ McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, 1912.

⁶ Columbia University Press, 1915.

⁷ Kansas State Agricultural College, Manhattan, 1915.

relating to the subject one teaches seem quite apropos. Generally speaking, there are two practical and relatively inexpensive ways of doing this. One of these is to rely on the Library of Congress. For instance, if a history teacher should send one dollar to the Library of Congress, Card Section, with specifications as to the exact kind of information desired, the information would come periodically in the form of cards such as one finds in the catalogue of any library. This scheme assures one of information on all copyrighted material. Another way is for one to rely on magazines such as *The Historical Outlook*¹ and *The School Review*.² Each issue of the former of these contains a classified list of books on history and government published in the United States a month or so before the issue appears. In *The School Review* there has appeared once a year since 1917 a review of the literature relative to history and the teaching of history which appeared during the time covered by the article. These reviews cover the magazine articles as well as books, for which reason they make an excellent supplement to the information furnished by the Library of Congress and that contained in *The Historical Outlook*. If one pursues no other than these three ways of keeping up to date on the matter of history and the teaching of history in junior and senior high schools, one would have little cause to worry over the possible existence of unknown material of any great value.

ADDITIONAL READING MATTER

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- BOOK, W. F. "The High School Teacher from the Pupil's Point of View," *Pedagogical Seminary*, XII (1905), 239 ff.
- BOYCE, A. C. "Qualities of Merit in Secondary School Teachers," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, III (1912), 144 ff.

¹ McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, Pa.

² School of Education, The University of Chicago.

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- DAWSON, EDGAR. "Preparation of the High School Teacher of History," *History Teacher's Magazine*, II (1911), 197 ff.; "Certification of High School Teachers of History," *History Teacher's Magazine*, III (1912), 200 ff.
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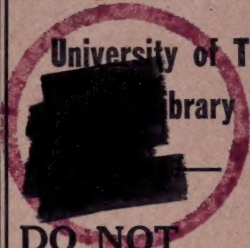


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