Trends in the Teaching of History

by

Ethel T. Kitt

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Approved: [Signature]
Major adviser [Signature] Date 9/3/33
TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER PAGES

I. INTRODUCTION - 1
   Some General Considerations - 1
   The Problem - 3
   Procedure - 4

II. A RESUME OF HISTORY INSTRUCTION IN THE UNITED STATES, 1826-1932 - 14

III. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF HISTORY TEACHING, 1826-1932 - 48
   Aims And Objectives As Expressed By History Texts - 48
   Aims And Objectives As Expressed By Historians, Educators, And Committees - 74

IV. METHODS OF INSTRUCTION, 1826-1932 - 100
   Method As Influenced By Texts - 100
   Method As Influenced By Educational Writers In Books And Periodicals - 128

V. TEACHER TRAINING, 1826-1932 - 172
   Opportunities Provided For Prospective Teachers And Teachers-In-Service.
VI. TEXTBOOK ANALYSES, 1926-1932- - - - - - - - - - 195
General Analysis- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 200
Mechanical Analysis- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 205
Text-Content Analysis- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 213
Emphasis As Indicated By Illustrations- - 227
Trends In Textbook Narrative- - - - - - - - - - - 235

VII. SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS- - 257
Conclusions- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 257
Recommendations- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 260
BIBLIOGRAPHY- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 261
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>TABLES</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.</td>
<td>I. Towns Claiming to Offer Subjects, 1837-1841</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>II. Growth in the Teaching of United States</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>History in New York</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>III. Number of Towns Teaching History in Elementary Schools of New York</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>IV. History Courses Offered in New York Academies, 1825-1860</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>V. Summary of Texts Published or Used in United States before 1861</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>VI. Percentages of Pupils Attending Schools Where History Was Taught, 1825-1850</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII.</td>
<td>VII. Percentage of Pupils Attending Schools Where Various Branches of History Were Taught, 1825-1860</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII.</td>
<td>VIII. Percentages of High Schools in North-Central States Offering Certain Social Subjects in 1860-1865 and in 1896-1900</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IX.</td>
<td>IX. Number of Periods Per Week Allocated to History in the Various Courses</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X.</td>
<td>X. Recommendations of the National Committees, 1892-1921</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XI.</td>
<td>XI. Aims and Objectives in History Teaching as Expressed by History Texts, 1826-1932</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Page</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XII. Objectives Discussed by Committees of</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIII. Objectives Discussed by Committee on History and Education for Citizenship, N. E. A., A. H. A., 1918-1921</td>
<td>89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIV. Objectives Formulated on the Basis of Opinion by Various Committees, by Students of History and by Writers in the Field of Education, 1895-1924</td>
<td>96</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XV. Aims and Objectives Expressed by Historians, Educators, and Committees, 1826-1932</td>
<td>99</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVI. &quot;Chronological Table of the History of the United States&quot;</td>
<td>105</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVII. Factors That Determine the Habits of Study of Grade Pupils</td>
<td>148</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVIII. Discursive Influence Even in Favored Homes</td>
<td>148</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIX. Methods of Teaching History</td>
<td>168</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XX. General Analysis of Texts</td>
<td>196</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXI. General Analysis of Texts (Condensed Table)</td>
<td>202</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXII. Mechanical Analysis of Texts</td>
<td>206</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXIII. Mechanical Analysis of Texts (Condensed Table)</td>
<td>212</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXIV. Text-Content Analysis</td>
<td>214</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXV. Text-Content Analysis (Condensed Table)</td>
<td>227</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXVI. Emphasis as Indicated by Illustrations</td>
<td>229</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
XXVII. Emphasis as Indicated by Illustrations

(Condensed Table) - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 230

CHARTS

1. Evolution of the Elementary-School Curriculum and Methods of Teaching - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 16

2. Comparative Growth of United States and General History - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 26

3. Percentages of Pupils in the Public High Schools of the United States Enrolled in Certain Subject Groups - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 45

4. "Teacher To Let" - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 173

5. Teacher Training in the United States by 1860 - 178

6. Composite of Mechanical Analyses of Texts, 1826-1860 - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 208

7. Composite of Mechanical Analyses of Texts, 1861-1892 - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 209

8. Composite of Mechanical Analyses of Texts, 1893-1916 - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 210

9. Composite of Mechanical Analyses of Texts, 1917-1932 - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 211

10. Text-Content Analyses, 1826-1860

Composite of Text-Content Analyses, 1826-1860 - - - 216

11. Text-Content Analyses, 1861-1892 - - - - - - - - - 217
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Text-Content Analyses, 1861-1892 cont'd.</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Composite of Text-Content Analyses, 1861-1892</td>
<td>219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Text-Content Analyses, 1893-1916</td>
<td>221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Text-Content Analyses, 1893-1916 cont'd.</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Composite of Text-Content Analyses</td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Text-Content Analyses, 1917-1932</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Text-Content Analyses, 1917-1932 cont'd.</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Composite of Text-Content Analyses</td>
<td>226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Composite of Trends as Indicated by Illustrations, 1826-1860</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Composite of Trends as Indicated by Illustrations, 1861-1892</td>
<td>232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Composite of Trends as Indicated by Illustrations, 1893-1916</td>
<td>233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Composite of Trends as Indicated by Illustrations, 1917-1932</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.

Some General Considerations.

The writer of this paper chose "Trends in the Teaching of History" as the subject because of a desire to know why pupils, as a rule, dread the study of history. Many present-day students have been questioned and the reminiscences of those who were students in the near or distant past listened to. These conversations showed that a general feeling of dislike or indifference existed regarding this study.

For many years the "why" for this has concerned the writer. It seemed that the trouble must lie either in the text or in the manner of presenting the text, or both, for certainly the happenings of life, which have made history, contain enough of human interest to fire any imagination or please any taste.

Since changes in the content of history texts and in the method of teaching them do not have a sudden beginning nor an abrupt ending but a gradual development, it seemed necessary to include a long period of years in the study.

United States history was chosen because it has been
most continuously taught since the beginning of history instruction in this country and because it was possible to make a study of it from its introduction into the curriculum to the present time. The courses in the upper elementary and secondary schools were considered because they corresponded more nearly to the courses in the academies of the early nineteenth century, which were the only schools teaching history at that time.

A brief study of the beginnings and progress of history teaching throughout the century was made in order to discover what interest it had aroused and what importance was attached to it by makers of curricula.

An extensive study of educational writings was made in order to learn the opinions of specialists on the texts, values, and methods used during the years under consideration. There was an abundance of material available since the question of education has been foremost in the minds of many of our great thinkers for years. As our civilization became increasingly complex, the social problems grew more formidable. It had long been conceded that there was no better way to direct and influence our vast growing population than through the medium of education. Just what to teach our citizens of tomorrow and how to present it to them, so they would get the best from their own life and be of the most service to society in general, was an ever changing question which challenged our best educators.
The many publications on method showed that the members of the teaching profession were dissatisfied with current practices and were trying to improve the manner of presentation. The large number of educational courses which were offered in the colleges and universities showed the demand for improvement in method. The suggestions for teachers and study helps for pupils which the textbook writer had incorporated in his book were an admission of the author's realization of the variety of interpretations which could be given to subject-matter and his desire to direct the placing of emphasis.

The Problem

The question arose concerning the extent to which history teaching had been modified to keep in touch with the changing times. Had history instruction occupied the same place in the curricula throughout the years? Had the aims and objectives as expressed by the authors of history texts, other historians, educators, and committees on history remained the same? Was the method of instruction similar during the century and, if not, what influence was exerted on this method by text-authors and educational writers in books and periodicals? Had history teachers taken a part in this educational development? Had the texts in history changed in content and emphasis?

With these and similar questions in mind it was the
writer's problem to attempt to discover whether there were changes in emphases and concepts in the teaching of history and, if so, to trace these changes through the years from 1826 to 1932.

The problem of this study then became that of attempting to discover and trace some changing emphases and concepts in the teaching of American history in grades seven to twelve inclusive. These grades were designated in many schools as junior and senior high-schools and corresponded with the academy of the nineteenth century.

**Procedure**

The preliminary preparation consisted of determining which texts had been most generally used throughout the years under consideration. The opinions of contemporary writers, later critics, and personal reminiscences of former students of history were considered. When a choice was in question between the best text-book of the period and the one most widely used, the latter was chosen, because the study was concerned with the effect upon the majority of pupils. The most difficult problem was finding anyone who had been enough interested in their old history texts to keep them. Finally, after searching through attics, barns, garages, libraries of all descriptions, and second-hand book-shops; writing to book collectors and publishers; and advertising in a Massachusetts newspaper, a sizable
collection of texts from 1826 to 1932 was procured.

The next problem was to consider how these texts had been presented to the pupils. Since teachers generally teach what is in the textbook and in the manner suggested by the author, it seemed best to determine first the nature of the material with which they had to deal and the directions given for handling it. In order to solve this problem original data were collected from two sources. First, an analysis of American history textbooks used in academies, elementary, or secondary schools for the years 1826 to 1932 was made. Next a study was made of the aims, objectives and recommendations for presentation as given in the preface and introduction of these textbooks, and others of the same period, and in history manuals and books on pedagogy.

Since a study in trends was not only that of the method of the "usual" teacher, it seemed necessary to find out what had been done, was being done, and was proposed for doing by the progressive teacher. Material for these data was found in books by recognized educational authorities, educational records and reports, journals and magazines of past dates, and current periodicals.

In obtaining the original data from the textbooks four tables were made. Table XX was for the purpose of general

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1. Only books used in the upper grades of the elementary school or Junior-high were used.
In this were considered, (1) treatment of material, whether grouped according to administrations, epochs, topics, or units; (2) divisions of groupings as, numbered paragraphs, numbered sections or chapters; (3) subdivisions as, topics or sub-topics; (4) whether there were chapter supplements as, questions, foot-notes, margin-notes, margin headings, summaries, diagrams, reading references, group or chapter dates; whether there were text supplements, as, general review questions, miscellaneous review plans, pronouncing vocabulary, chronological table, list of important dates, suggestions to teachers, bibliography of sources, United States Constitution, Declaration of Independence, table of states, table of presidents, miscellaneous data; and index.

Table XXII was made for the purpose of a mechanical analysis. In this was given the total content of the book in order to determine the proportion of the whole which was given to the component parts. A record was made of the total pages; average number of words to page; size of page; number of pages devoted to introduction and preface, table of contents, text narrative, appendices, questions, chronology, colored maps, uncolored maps, colored pictures, uncolored pictures, and miscellaneous. The amount of space covered by each of these items, except the illustrations,

2. Topics included in miscellaneous data will be found on page 198, foot-notes 31 to 41 inclusive.
3. Such items as foot-notes and source references.
was calculated to the nearest page. With the illustrations it was thought best to use several size units for measurement. The page, half, fourth and eighth were chosen. All illustrations were counted, anything less than an eighth being considered an eighth, less than a fourth an eighth, less than a half a fourth, less than a whole a half. A double page was considered as two one-page illustrations. These tabulations were added, reduced to the nearest whole page and recorded. No unit smaller than a fourth page was used for this tabulation. The tabulations when added were reduced to the nearest whole unit and recorded. The number of pages was then figured on the percentage which they were of the total content.

Table XXIV was constructed for the purpose of making a text-content analysis. In this table was considered the number of pages devoted to each of eight topical divisions, namely; origin, exploration and conquest, colonization and expansion, war, political economy, industrial economy, social economy, and biography. Under origin were listed those pages dealing with the causes leading up to the discovery of America. Exploration and conquest included the portions of text devoted to the daring deeds and trials of our explorers in the discovery and subjugation of the new world. Colonization and expansion comprised that part of the text given over to the settlement of the colonies and the expansion of the United States into more territory.
When the economic life of the settlers was spoken of, that portion of the text was tabulated under one of the three economy headings—political, social, or industrial. Under war was placed the narrative of military engagements participated in. The causes and effects of battles were, if considered on an economic basis by the author, placed in one of the economy columns. Under political economy were considered those topics which dealt with the government of the country, its political problems, both domestic and foreign. Industrial economy consisted of those parts devoted to the mechanical and industrial progress of the nation. Social economy included those pages dealing with social problems of the people, their customs, religion, education, and culture. Under biography were listed those pages which dealt with the life story of an individual.

Table XXVI was planned as a means of determining trends of emphasis as indicated by textbook illustrations. Ten classifications were chosen for this study. War, government, native peoples, exploration and conquest, science and invention, customs, industries, literature and art, and education. Most of these headings are self-explanatory. Under government were placed those illustrations which had to do with the political life of the people, whether as administrator, the place of administration or the maps and charts of political problems. Under customs were listed the pictures showing the modes and manners of the times.
In order to arrive at a statistical conclusion of this problem each textbook was carefully gone through and every illustration tabulated under the heading which it seemed to be the purpose of the author to emphasize. After these tabulations were added and placed in the proper column the proportion which each was of the total illustrations of that book was computed and placed in the percentage column. Nothing less than one per cent was considered. If less than a half it was dropped, if more than a half it was considered as a whole.

These four tables completed, the next question was how to divide the data into periods for statistical comparison. It was realized that the effort to divide history into periods was not free from certain dangers. It implied the idea (1) that great processes have a sudden beginning and come to an abrupt ending, and (2) that the limits of a period were arbitrarily fixed. In the first implication, the assumption was granted that there were no clearly defined divisions in history but a gradual evolution. Starting first in the criticism of existing conditions this criticism developed into the formulation of opinions of needed changes in text-books, objectives, and methods. These in turn gave rise to new content material, restating of aims and objectives, and experimentation with suggested methods of procedure. In the second implication, the truth was admitted that there were no real lines separating
"that period" but that imaginary lines could be drawn in an endeavor to trace and illustrate tendencies. This device, as a means of grouping data in order to make comparisons, seemed practicable and justifiable.

The next question decided was the basis of division, for this might well be conceived differently, for a variety of reasons, by any number of authorities. 1826 was decided upon as the beginning of the study because before that date little attention had been paid to the study of history as a separate subject. The closing date of this and other periods was determined by first deciding the opening year of the period to follow, which date was determined by a revival of interest in history due to some educational movement or social upheaval.

In this way the first period was decided to close in 1860 and the second period to open in 1861. History had an increased emphasis placed upon it at this time and gained in popularity as it became a favored instrument for the inculcation of patriotism and the preservation of the union. It was decided to begin the third period in 1893 because interest again centered in history as a result of the findings of the investigating committees of the National Education Association and the American Historical Association. The date of the fourth, and last, period, 1917, was determined by the renewed interest in history shown
as a result of the entry of the United States into the World War. By this time history had not only its old role of stimulating patriotism, as in Civil War times, but also a new role as one of the social sciences, with an obligation for upholding the principles of democracy for all mankind.

After the divisions were decided upon the data in each were grouped accordingly, and an effort at comparison was made.

First, a study of the place of history instruction in the United States from 1826 to 1932 was made and a trend toward independence and increasing popularity was shown. Progress had been made from its early status as an ancillary to the study of the classics to that of an independent subject considered by some as the core of the curriculum.

Second, a study of the aims and objectives for the four periods under consideration was made and it was found that most of the aims and objectives which were given in 1932 were present when history first entered the curriculum. Gradually the religious aim had been dropped, and the other aims had had a varying emphasis and interpretation according to the social and political condition of the times. The aims as given by the authors of history textbooks and by writers on educational matters were considered separately and found to have a general agreement.
according to the period in which they were written.

Third, methods of instruction were considered. A study of the methods suggested by the textbook authors was first made, then a study of methods as proposed by writers on educational matters. During the first half of the nineteenth century little of anything which could be dignified by the name of method existed. Memorization from page to page was the order of procedure. Gradually a system of instruction was worked out by which children were taught to understand and appreciate the great historical movements with their causes and effects. A trend toward an agreement on best methods of procedure and the development of a scientific method of instruction through experimentation was shown.

Fourth, a study was made of teacher training. A trend toward a broader general training and a more intensive specialized preparation was shown. The qualifications had increased from no requirements to a definite high standard, the opportunities from none to many, both for prospective teachers and teachers-in-service.

In concluding the study a textbook analysis was made in order to determine if the books were changing in content and emphasis. First, the total content of the text was considered in an effort to discover if there were trends in the content of the book and the amount of space given certain topics and supplements during the years. Next, a
study was made of the style and purpose of the narrative as indicated by the presentation of some one event throughout the years. A trend toward making the test more understandable, interesting, non-partisan, and useful in citizenship-training was seen.
CHAPTER II

A RESUME OF HISTORY INSTRUCTION IN THE UNITED STATES

First Period, 1826-1860

Before 1816 history was rarely taught in the United States and then usually in connection with some other subject.¹ Noah Webster in his educational survey of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth century made no mention of history in the school courses which included science, geography, higher mathematics, modern languages, and in some schools, needlework, drawing, and embroidery. In speaking of his school days in a letter written to Henry Barnard in 1840, Webster said,

"No history was read so far as my knowledge extends, for there was no abridged history of the United States."(2)

History, where taught, was usually given with Latin, geography, or reading. About 1786 Webster added "short notices of the geography and history of the United States" to his "Grammatical Institutes of the English Language," and, in 1788, he wrote about twenty pages of "transactions

of the United States after the Revolution" for Morse's Geography. The Boston Latin School, 1789, included "History of the Heathen Gods" in a course on the "Making of Latin." 3

There was some mention of history's having received special attention toward the close of the eighteenth century. The Episcopal Academy of Philadelphia was said to have included history in its curriculum in 1796. 4 The biographer of Lewis Cass spoke of his leaving Exeter in 1799, having made valuable progress in "Rhetoric, History, Natural and Moral Philosophy, Logic, Astronomy, and Natural Law." 4 Figure 1 shows with what little importance history was regarded in the elementary school curriculum in the first half of the nineteenth century.

The early years of the nineteenth century brought a substantial interest in history as was shown by the fact that seventeen textbooks were published between the years 1799 and 1814. 5 These textbooks were a sort of general history beginning with Adam and Eve. A few items from the table of contents of Caleb Bingham's "Historical Grammar," published in 1808, illustrates this tendency.

<table>
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</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>READING</strong>&lt;br&gt;Spelling&lt;br&gt;Writing&lt;br&gt;Catechism&lt;br&gt;BIBLE&lt;br&gt;Arithmetic</td>
<td><strong>READING</strong>&lt;br&gt;Declamation&lt;br&gt;SPELLING*&lt;br&gt;Writing&lt;br&gt;Good Behavior&lt;br&gt;Manners &amp; Morals&lt;br&gt;ARITHMETIC*</td>
<td><strong>READING</strong>&lt;br&gt;DECLAMATION&lt;br&gt;SPELLING&lt;br&gt;WRITING&lt;br&gt;Manners&lt;br&gt;Conduct&lt;br&gt;MENTAL ARITH&lt;br&gt;CIPHERING</td>
<td><strong>READING</strong>&lt;br&gt;Literary Selections&lt;br&gt;SPELLING&lt;br&gt;PENMANSHIP*&lt;br&gt;Conduct&lt;br&gt;PRIMARY ARITH*&lt;br&gt;ADVANCED ARITH*</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td><strong>Bookkeeping</strong>&lt;br&gt;Grammar&lt;br&gt;Geography&lt;br&gt;History U.S.</td>
<td><strong>Oral Language</strong>&lt;br&gt;GRAMMAR&lt;br&gt;Home Geography*&lt;br&gt;TEXT GEOGRAPHY&lt;br&gt;Pennsylvania&lt;br&gt;History U.S.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Sewing and Knitting</strong>&lt;br&gt;Object lessons</td>
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<td><strong>Object lessons</strong>&lt;br&gt;Elementary Science&lt;br&gt;Drawing*&lt;br&gt;MUSIC*&lt;br&gt;Physical Exercises</td>
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</table>

CAPITALS = Most important subjects<br>Roman = Least important subjects<br>* = New methods of teaching now employed

**FIG. 1 Evolution of the Elementary-School Curriculum and of Methods of Teaching**

"A Historical Grammar or a Chronological Abridgement of Universal History Designed Principally for the Use of Schools and Academies.(6)

Contents

General Principles of History

Part I

First Period
From the Creation of the World to the Deluge, 1656 Years.

Second Period
From the Deluge to the Calling of Abraham, 366 Years.

Third Period
From the Calling of Abraham to the Law Given by Moses, 431 Years.

Fourth Period
From the Law Given by Moses to the Taking of Troy, 347 Years.

Fifth Period
From the Taking of Troy to the Building of the Temple by Solomon, 192 Years.

Sixth Period
From the Building of the Temple of Jerusalem to the Foundation of Rome, 239 Years.

Seventh Period
From the Foundation of Rome Till the Beginning of the Reign of Cyrus, 192 Years.

Eighth Period
From Cyrus, First King of the Persians, to the Birth of Jesus Christ, 560 Years."

This same tendency of presenting Biblical as well as universal problems was shown by Mitchell,

Races of Men

Ques. 295. From whom has the whole race descended?
A. From our first parents, Adam and Eve

Ques. 297. What is the cause in the varieties in the human race?
A. It is probably owing to a difference in climate, food, and mode of life, and no doubt partly due to causes which we do not understand.

Religion

Ques. 354. How may the different forms of religion be divided?
A. Into true and false.

Ques. 355. In what does true religion consist?
A. In worshipping God according to his revealed will.

Ques. 356. In what does false religion consist?
A. In the worship of idols, and the rejection of the true God. (7)

Mary Sheldon Barnes started her American history with "The Explorations of the Men of Tyre and Sidon." 8 These books were generally tiresome and required laborious reading. "The truth is that Americans had no book about their great political events that was easy to read until 1800, when the Rev. Mason L. Weems came to their rescue with the 'Life of Washington.'" 9 We do not know that this was used as a textbook, but due to the fact that the pupils of many schools carried their own home books to school with them, and studied whatever book their limited library afforded, it followed that Parson Weems must have

been taught and enjoyed. Fisher wrote concerning him,

"He is reckless in statement, indifferent to facts and research, his books full of popular heroism, religion and morality, which you at first call trash and cant, and then, finding it extremely entertaining, declare with a laugh, as you lay down the book, what a clever rogue.

"He is a most delightful mixture of the Scriptures, Homer, Virgil, and the backwoods. Everything rages and storms, slashes and tears. In battle, Americans and English plunge their bayonets into one another's breasts and 'fall forward together faint, shrieking in death and mingling their smoking blood.'"(9)

The cherry tree episode, which is yet being told by many teachers, was invented by Weems and added to his widely read life of Washington six years after the first edition was published. This story was considered by Weems "to round out his picture of a perfect man."

"'George,' said his father, 'do you know who killed that beautiful little cherry tree yonder in the garden?'

"This was a tough question; and George staggered under it for a moment; but quickly recovered himself: and looking at his father, with the sweet face of youth brightened with the inexpressible charm of all conquering truth, he bravely cried out, 'I can't tell a lie, Pa; you know I can't tell a lie. I did it with my hatchet.'

"'Run to my arms, you dearest boy,' cried his father in transports, 'run to my arms; glad am I, George, that you killed my tree; for you have paid me for it a thousand fold. Such an

act of heroism in my son is more worth than a thousand trees, though blossomed with silver, and their fruits of purest gold.'"(10)

The history movement was given a definite encouragement, in 1827, when Massachusetts passed a mandatory statute requiring the teaching of the history of the United States in "every city, town, or district of five hundred families or householders" and "history in addition to all the foregoing branches," in "every city, town, or district containing four thousand inhabitants." This law was never strictly enforced but, within the next ten years, more schools had added "history" and history of the United States than any other subject requested by law. United States history was especially popular. More than two-thirds of the towns reporting in 1837 offered United States history.11

Table I shows the great popularity of United States history in the high schools of Massachusetts from 1837-1841. The fluctuations in the statistics from year to year corresponded with the changes in the statutes. "Through legislative enactment it gained a firm hold, and by the time of the Civil War had become a portion of the 'core' of the curriculum."12

schools reporting, fifty taught general history and thirty-nine United States history.

### TABLE I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Other History</td>
<td>29 : 94 : 78 : 93 : 62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algebra</td>
<td>3 : 84 : 69 : 93 : 104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin</td>
<td>3 : 4 : 11 : 21 : 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Philosophy</td>
<td>24 : 66 : 150 : 170 : 181</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The advance in New York was similarly rapid. In 1834 all but one of the academies reporting had added history. The gain in popularity which United States history made in the latter years of the first period was shown by the following table arranged from information from Johnson. The greater increase made by United States history was due, doubtless, to the feeling of patriotism and the desire for the preservation of the Union that swept the North at this time.

### TABLE II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Schools : General : United States History</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number Per Cent : Number Per Cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1862</td>
<td>204 : 132 : 64.7 : 169 : 62.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The growth in the elementary schools was even more

---

rapid than in the secondary schools.

### TABLE III
**NUMBER OF TOWNS TEACHING HISTORY IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Towns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1826</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1834</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1844</td>
<td>Most of schools in entire state.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the preceding data and those which are given in Table IV it was seen that there was a great variety of history courses offered in academies and secondary schools before 1860. These included General History, United States

### TABLE IV
**HISTORY COURSES OFFERED IN NEW YORK ACADEMIES, 1825-1860**

|----|----------------|-----------------------|-------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------|---------------------|------------|---------------------|------------------|------------------|

History, Roman and Greek Antiquities, Religious History, English History, and State Histories. Some of these were taught for only one or two years while others became established courses after their introduction into the curriculum. The growth in popularity of United States history was shown by comparing the great number of schools offering it in 1860 with the small number offering it in 1827 and considering the ignoring of this study before that date.

The majority of the textbooks published or used in the United States during the early part of the nineteenth century were general histories, but United States history gained in popularity and by 1860 had almost as many texts as the general history. These texts had run into more total editions, due doubtless to the great number of editions of the United States texts from 1821 to 1830.

**TABLE V**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>U.S.</th>
<th>General</th>
<th>Ancient</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Misc.</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Texts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ed.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before 1801</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3:5</td>
<td>19:1</td>
<td>1:0</td>
<td>0:1</td>
<td>1:9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1801 - 1810</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6:7</td>
<td>21:2</td>
<td>3:0</td>
<td>0:0</td>
<td>0:11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1811 - 1820</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3:13</td>
<td>30:6</td>
<td>41:5</td>
<td>49:0</td>
<td>122:0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1821 - 1830</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>111:18</td>
<td>42:13</td>
<td>29:2</td>
<td>2:5</td>
<td>190:0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1831 - 1840</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>59:15</td>
<td>69:3</td>
<td>3:2</td>
<td>2:2</td>
<td>135:0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1841 - 1850</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>45:20</td>
<td>31:16</td>
<td>42:4</td>
<td>5:9</td>
<td>134:0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1851 - 1860</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>26:23</td>
<td>38:19</td>
<td>29:12</td>
<td>14:11</td>
<td>125:0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not dated</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14:13</td>
<td>13:18</td>
<td>18:5</td>
<td>5:5</td>
<td>56:33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>267:114</td>
<td>263:78</td>
<td>170:28</td>
<td>76:33</td>
<td>39:360</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A consideration of the percentage of pupils attending schools where history was taught and where history was not taught indicated the growing popularity of this subject. In 1826 thirty-eight and eight-tenths per cent. of all the academy pupils in New York State attended schools in which history was taught. In 1860 this per cent. was increased to ninety-five. This growth is shown in Table VI.

**TABLE VI**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>History Taught</th>
<th>History Not Taught</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1825</td>
<td>38.80</td>
<td>61.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1826</td>
<td>48.00</td>
<td>52.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1827</td>
<td>91.75</td>
<td>8.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1830</td>
<td>88.30</td>
<td>11.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1832</td>
<td>86.63</td>
<td>13.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1834</td>
<td>99.40</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1847</td>
<td>94.30</td>
<td>5.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1850</td>
<td>95.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The growing importance of United States history as compared with general history was further shown by the increasing percentages of pupils attending schools where the former was taught. During the years from 1827 to 1860 United States history increased from thirty-five to eighty-eight per cent, while general history increased from fifty-six to seventy-one per cent. The other types of history taught during this period were of negligible consideration, some of them being in the curriculum but one or two years.

These facts will be more easily seen by examining Table VII.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>No History</th>
<th>General History</th>
<th>United States History</th>
<th>Roman Antiquities</th>
<th>Constitutional Law and Government</th>
<th>Ecclesiastical History</th>
<th>Biblical Antiquities</th>
<th>Chronology</th>
<th>History of New York</th>
<th>History of England</th>
<th>Greek Antiquities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1825</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1826</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1827</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1830</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1832</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1834</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>41</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1847</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1860</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The increasing interest in United States history since its small beginnings in 1827 and the decreasing interest in general history since its peak of popularity in 1834 are again shown in Chart 2, which illustrates the comparative growth in these two subjects during the first period.

During this period the study of history in the secondary schools became of interest to the colleges as the college professors found an amazing lack of history preparation on the part of their freshmen. A movement for

CHART 2. COMPARATIVE GROWTH OF UNITED STATES AND GENERAL HISTORY

history as an entrance requirement was started and by 1847 both Harvard and Michigan had added this subject to their entrance requirements. None of the other colleges took this step until after the close of the Civil War.

The inclusion of history in the courses of the normal schools showed the growing recognition of its value. History was one of the twelve studies required in a teacher training class provided in certain of the academies of New York in 1854. Russell in quoting from the Report of the Regents said, "The history of the United States is so essential that it may justly be treated as a distinct branch of study." The reports of the founding of the normal schools during the years included a mention of history as one of the branches taught. The only exception was that of Maryland, in 1865, which gave no place to history.

Summarizing this first period from 1826-1860,—history was seen to have gained an important place in the curriculum of the secondary schools of New York and Massachusetts. As these were the leading states in educational matters their approval of history meant its acceptance by the other states. In the towns and cities, where it had been introduced into the elementary schools, its popularity was even more marked. The movement to make it a college entrance requirement was started and had at least two strong

advocates, the Universities of Harvard and Michigan. It was considered a vital and necessary subject in the preparation of teachers and provision was made for it in the required course of study in the normal schools. United States history soon equalled and finally exceeded in popularity all other histories taught. This was due, no doubt, to the availability of more and better textbooks and the development of a national patriotism which preferred the study of the history of one's own country to that of another nation.

Second Period, 1861-1892

During this period American history was chiefly studied in the elementary schools and general history in the secondary schools. The courses of study were made by teachers, clergymen, and professional textbook writers, as in the first period, until the early nineties, when college professors took control of the situation. This interest of the colleges in the program of the secondary schools was brought about by the amazing lack of historical knowledge exhibited on the part of most freshmen. This evident lack of adequate preparation started a movement to demand history as an entrance requirement. The resulting college dominance influenced the trend of the aims of history teaching which had been leaning toward training for citizenship, back to a training for scholarship.
Each high school had been trying to prepare its students for citizenship according to the new patriotic ideal. History was considered one of the most adaptable subjects for this purpose. Therefore, much discussion was being given to its place in the curriculum.

"The strong nationalistic pride awakened after the Civil War by the preservation of the Union, made history and civics the media for the inculcation of patriotism and nationalism." (21)

This idea of preparation for citizenship might have been carried through if it had not been for the tremendous growth in the study of history in the colleges at this time. The colleges were increasing in number and likewise in influence. History was becoming an important subject of study. The "seminar" system had been introduced from Germany, "specialists" were being trained, and soon "chairs" of history were established. (22) All these innovations caused the tendency to have history as a college-entrance requirement develop into an established fact. Although this changed the more practical objective of preparation for life to one of preparation for college-board-examinations, it greatly increased the study of history in the secondary schools. American history was

given an added impetus about 1870 by the University of Michigan's specifying it as one of its entrance requirements. Rugg said concerning this dominance of the colleges,

"With the great growth of colleges since 1890, and their system of entrance examinations in many of the secondary subjects, the high school has become chiefly a preparatory school for college instead of a preparation for life. If one examines their courses of study to-day, one finds curricula clearly marked out as 'College Preparatory' and 'Technical Preparatory'. These courses have been definitely designed for one purpose—to prepare for college." (23)

The study of the constitution was so closely associated with the history course at this time that it seemed wise to see what changes were being made in this course.

The constitution of the United States and the constitution of the local state was usually studied in connection with the course in American history. In the eighties, the influence of Mace and Hinshdale caused the broadening of this "analysis" of the Constitution into a study of the machinery and forms of government. (24)

Another important change of this period was the passing of the old type academy and the supplanting of it by the high-school. "In 1860 there were 321 high-schools in the United States; in 1890 there were 2,526." (25) This

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23. Rugg, Earle, op. cit., p. 60.
24. Ibid., p. 59
25. Ibid. (Taken from U. S. Bureau of Ed., 1896-97, p. 468.)
shows an increase of almost 600 per cent in thirty years. This amazing increase in the educational opportunities for secondary pupils was made possible by the tremendous industrial developments of the nation after the Civil War. Public elementary education had been established before the Civil War.

In summarizing this second period, one sees a change in the control of the courses in the secondary schools. These courses of study first made by teachers, clergymen, and professional textbook writers now were dominated by college professors. The citizenship aim, much talked of since the Civil War, resolved itself into an aim to pass the college examinations. Free education for secondary pupils was becoming general; the old academy was being transplanted by the new high school; and the high schools were increasing rapidly in number.

Third Period, 1893-1916

The third period was one of rapid advancement in the amount of history taught and of decided improvement in the courses given. This was due largely to the efforts of the National Educational Association and the American Historical Association. A comparison of the courses of study offered after the influence of the national committees had been felt, with those offered during the Civil War period showed the many changes which had taken place in about
thirty years. Some of the courses were included in the curricula more extensively than before, some had a less acceptance, some new ones were added and others were dropped entirely. The greatest increase of interest was shown in the social sciences with general history, English history, and United States history following in the order named. Table VIII shows this change in courses and the varying in emphasis.

### TABLE VIII

PERCENTAGES OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN NORTH-CENTRAL STATES OFFERING CERTAIN SOCIAL SUBJECTS IN 1860-1866 AND IN 1896-1900 (26)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>1860-1866</th>
<th>1896-1900</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(20 schools)</td>
<td>(40 schools)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>1860-1865</th>
<th>1896-1900</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ancient history</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>37½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medieval history</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modern history</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States history</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English history</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French history</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General history</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universal history</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science of government</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil government</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civics</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States Constitution</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political economy</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of civilization</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A study of the work of the national committees during this period showed the great difficulties which they

encountered in an endeavor to bring to an agreement the opinions on the course of study and the grade placement of history programs. In 1892 the Committee of Ten of the N. E. A. was appointed with instructions to organize conferences to study the programs of secondary schools. The conference on history placed before the general educational public a history program for the elementary and secondary schools. This was the first time that America had been given a program which approached in completeness those which had been used in Europe for more than fifty years. This committee asked for eight consecutive years of history, four in the elementary and four in the secondary school. American history was to be taught in the seventh and in the eleventh grades. 27 As it was felt that some schools would be unable to adopt this arrangement, an alternative course of six years was suggested.

"1st. and 2nd. years. Biography and mythology.
3rd. year. American history, and civil government.
4th. year. (Beginning of high school.) Greek and Roman history, with their Oriental connections.
5th. year. English history. To be so taught as to elucidate the general movement of mediaeval and modern history.
6th. year. American history and civil government."(28)

28. Ibid., p. 135.
This program was never realized, for several reasons. The elementary school was "beyond the province" of the Committee of Ten so the consecutive study plan had to be abandoned. The committee on history was but one of nine committees considering secondary subjects and the combined hours suggested for the various courses totaled more than the maximum instruction periods deemed desirable. It was seen that history for all high school pupils in every year was impossible, so a varying amount of history for the different years was proposed. For the English course only, four years of history were required, and for the other three courses two years of required history and one year of elective were suggested. This plan will be more clearly seen by referring to the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Classical</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Scientific</th>
<th>Modern Languages</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4*</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Except in the English course, fourth year pupils were offered a choice between history and mathematics.

The problem of which history course to give in which year was of further concern. The committee had suggested, 1st. year, ancient history; 2nd. year, English history;

3rd. year, American history and government. This seemed to be the logical sequence, but what was to be done about the pupil who did not take history the third year? It would be inappropriate to have a pupil leave school without having studied about his own country. If American history was put second and English history third it left an unspanned gap between ancient and American history. If ancient history was put third the arrangement was equally inconsistent and the shifting would be most unfair to the classical course. For several years this problem was left to the decision of individual schools. The only hope of arriving at a solution seemed to have been to have the colleges reach an agreement as to their entrance requirements in history.

In 1895 this matter was considered first by the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools and the following year by a conference, representing six leading eastern universities, held at Columbia. As a result of these conferences, a list of topics was agreed upon, and the amount of time to be spent in their preparation decided in order to meet the college entrance requirements. Within a year these recommendations were accepted by Cornell, University of Pennsylvania, and Tufts College and a short time later by Dartmouth and Mount Holyoke. Harvard accepted them provisionally and by the year nineteen hundred, other colleges and universities were con-
sidering them. As a result of these recommendations, the amount of history instruction in the high schools was greatly increased.

During this same period the Committee on College Entrance Requirements of the N. E. A. had been seeking the co-operation of other organizations in an attempt to deal with the entire question. The American Historical Association responded by appointing the Committee of Seven. This committee, after studying the programs and conditions in both the United States and Europe, recommended a course of study starting in the third grade and continuing throughout the elementary and secondary school. An alternate plan was suggested for a three year high-school course. American history was placed in the last year of each school and in the last year of each of the three-year courses. The courses, recommended by this committee became generally recognized, within a few years, by both the schools and the colleges. However, a dissatisfaction as to the division of time for the different courses and to the sequence arose, and in 1907 the Committee of Five was appointed to decide if modifications were desirable. They made some slight changes, such as placing English history in the second year of secondary school and Modern

30. The proposals for the elementary school were made by Lucy M. Salmon, a member of the committee.
32. Table XXI shows the course which was proposed for each year. P. 38.
European history in the third year. In the elementary school civics was to be added to the history study which was to be "chiefly biography". The difference in the courses of study recommended by these committees may be better understood by reference to Table X.

The Committee of Eight recommended a program for the elementary schools which was as comprehensive as the ones proposed by the Committee of Seven and Five for the secondary school. This committee made suggestions on modes of treatment and also made a full syllabus for an eight-year course including references to books. Special suggestions for the teaching of civics from the fifth grade on through the eighth were also made. The first two grades were to have stories of Indian life and stories connected with national holidays, such as Thanksgiving day and Washington's birthday. This program from the third grade on is shown in the course of study recommended by the Committee of Eight, Table X. It will be seen that there were several points of agreement between this course of study and the one suggested by a member of the Committee of Seven.

The Committee of the Social Studies appointed by the N. E. A., in 1916, was the only committee which was composed largely of teachers. In fact, the only other committee which had any teachers on it was the Committee of Eight, in spite of the fact that this curriculum was being made
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of</th>
<th>Committee</th>
<th>Third</th>
<th>Fourth</th>
<th>Fifth</th>
<th>Sixth</th>
<th>Seventh</th>
<th>Eighth</th>
<th>Ninth</th>
<th>Tenth</th>
<th>Eleventh</th>
<th>Twelfth</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Courses suggested by one member of Committee. Grades 5 - 8.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Committee:</td>
<td>4 Teachers</td>
<td>2 Teachers</td>
<td>2 Teachers</td>
<td>2 Teachers</td>
<td>2 Teachers</td>
<td>2 Teachers</td>
<td>2 Teachers</td>
<td>2 Teachers</td>
<td>2 Teachers</td>
<td>2 Teachers</td>
<td>2 Teachers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| N. S. A. = National Education Association. |
| A. H. A. = American Historical Association. |

33. Information concerning American Political Science Association was omitted as history was not considered by them. |

34. This table taken from Twenty-Second Yearbook of N. S. S. S., pp. 62-63.
for the use of teachers. Rugg, in speaking of this dominance of the school curriculum by college professors of history and government, said,

"- - - no sooner were these reports published than specialists in subject matter issued textbooks which elaborated, systematized, and organized the facts suggested for study by the Committee's syllabi."

He added that these specialists were qualified for this task so far as scholarship, thorough training, and a broad perspective of the social sciences was concerned but that there was one thing that counterbalanced all the other qualifications,-

"- - - the fact that they have written them without contact with the elementary or high-school classes for which they were intended."

There was a great disagreement in grade placement, which is at once evident by referring to Table X. Rugg said this was because these professors had never followed the steps of scientific procedure in curriculum-making. He said their procedure had been group conferences, sending out question blanks requesting suggestions from school administrators and teachers, and a little personal investigation of what was taught in the schools.

33. Rugg, Earle, op. cit., p. 64.
"In no case have they written a course and taught it themselves under carefully controlled conditions, observing the teaching of it, measuring the results of its teaching by objective tests, and comparing it with other types of courses, finally revising it once, twice, or three times in the light of what one, two, or three years of actual classroom teaching shows to be suitable material for each grade."(34)

The "four block system" recommended by the Committee of Seven and later approved by the Committee of Five, with some minor changes, was the course of study generally accepted by the four-year high school during this period.

"A survey of 600 high schools in 1914 substantiates this statement; it shows almost all of them to be following this four-block scheme: 510 offered Ancient History; 456 European History; 348 English History; and 473 American History."(35)

The course most used in the elementary school was very similar to the one recommended by the Committee of Eight.36

About 1912 or 1914 a broader conception of what citizenship was appeared and the American schools turned their interest to the social sciences. The study of pure history was cut down so as to leave more time for community civics. The Committee of 1916 brought about several

35. Ibid., p. 64. Rugg criticized these texts because he said that, in the main, they were not suited to the needs of children.
36. Ibid., p. 65.
changes. It recommended that ancient and medieval history should be combined and taught in one year instead of two, and that a twelfth-grade course should be given in "Problems of Democracy." It gave an increased emphasis to civics and the other social studies by giving them time in each of the seventh, eighth and ninth grades. This great departure from the traditional historical courses and the emphasizing of the social sciences is shown in Table X.

It seemed doubtful that such an iconoclastic program would be generally accepted. It will be seen by again referring to the table mentioned above that a new program recommended by a Committee of both the N. E. A. and A. H. A. in 1918-1921 included almost as much history as that of the Committee of Seven.

In summarizing the third period,—it was seen that a rapid advancement was made in the amount of history taught and the type of course included in the curriculum. The former was caused by (1) the interest in history created by committee recommendations and (2) the increasing of college entrance requirements; the latter was caused by the efforts of the committees to arrange courses which were appropriate to the improved educational status of the schools and comparable to history courses long given in Europe.

Many recommendations were made by committees of the N. E. A., A. H. A., and the Associations of Colleges and
Preparatory Schools. There was an agreement as to the advisability of increasing the years of history but the question of grade placement was never fully agreed upon. The "four block system" recommended by the Committee of Seven and changed slightly by the Committee of Five was the one generally accepted by the secondary schools, and the program recommended by the Committee of Eight by the elementary schools.

A tendency toward merging history into a social science group was seen at the close of the period. This plan lessened the time given to pure history by dividing it among all the social sciences.

Fourth Period, 1917-1932

The World War stimulated an interest in the social studies. An increased emphasis was given to citizenship training as a result of America's entering the World War in 1917. A part of the war "programs" of the United States Food Administration and the United States Bureau of Education were the "Lessons in Community and National Life" written by various teachers and specialists of the social sciences under the direction of Professors O. H. Judd and L. C. Marshall.

"These lessons were an attempt to illustrate by descriptions of important community and national activities what conservation meant and to give pupils a background of fundamental
political, social, and economic institutions. The concentration and integration of modern business is explained to pupils by describing in three different lessons how it actually happened in some of our "key" industries, such as steel, railroads, and meat packing. Historical material is included to give the pupils the necessary background of modern community life."

These "Lessons" had been widely used in our schools as supplementary reading matter and they had increased the trend toward the new social-science combination by their interesting new subject matter and their simple concrete method of presentation. The possibility of the combined social science courses becoming a fixture in our school-curriculum seemed to depend upon the availability of suitable textbooks.

"With a large proportion of our elementary-school teachers having at most only a high-school education or a few weeks of normal-school training in addition, and with teachers in the average high school (of 100 or 250 pupils) forced to teach several different subjects, we cannot expect to find teachers ready to 'try' new courses unless a detailed textbook can be placed in their hands." (38)

The influence of the movement for civics as part of the history course was shown in the "Report of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship," Table X. It will be noticed that the committee had given part of

38. Ibid., p. 72.
the sixth year and all of the ninth and twelfth years to this study. But also, it will be noted that this committee gave less time to the social studies than was recommended by the Social Studies Committee of the N. E. A., 1914-1916, which went to prove that the American Historical Association was not favorable to a program which omitted or merged history to any extent. This scheme of having the new social studies take part of the time originally given to history alone was much discussed during this period. Authorities were divided upon the advisability of the plan. (This question is considered more fully in the fourth period of the chapter on method as influenced by writers.)

Chart 4 shows a comparison of the number of secondary pupils taking certain courses during the years 1910, 1915, 1922. It was interesting to notice that the number of pupils taking social subjects between the years 1910-1922, in the high schools, increased, while those taking all of the other subjects except practical arts had a decrease. This was probably due to several reasons. (1) The impetus given history and other social subjects during the World War, (2) the feeling that history could help in the training for citizenship, and (3) the inclusion of many new subjects in the social science courses.

In summarizing this fourth period, one sees a
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Group</th>
<th>1910</th>
<th>1915</th>
<th>1922</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. English</td>
<td>76.8%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Foreign Language</td>
<td>55.0%</td>
<td>72.2%</td>
<td>84.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Mathematics</td>
<td>64.4%</td>
<td>76.9%</td>
<td>89.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Science</td>
<td>64.4%</td>
<td>65.7%</td>
<td>82.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Social Subjects</td>
<td>66.5%</td>
<td>70.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Practical Arts</td>
<td>71.9%</td>
<td>52.7%</td>
<td>84.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Chart 3. Percentages of Pupils in the Public High Schools of the United States Enrolled in Certain Subject Groups (39)**

continuation of committee dominance. A definite trend toward training for participation in life was shown. The expansion and differentiation of the social sciences was seen to be taking place. Pure history was decreasing in its time allotment in the curriculum as the other social sciences were increasing in importance and demanding more time.

Summary of the Growth of History

In this chapter an attempt has been made to show the growth of history teaching in the United States throughout the four periods under consideration between the years 1826 and 1932.

First, it gained its place in the curriculum because it was considered an aid in the important study of Latin, also because it was thought to be an additional accomplishment for a member of polite society. Later its scholarly advantage asserted itself and its mental discipline and transfer value were counted as of much worth. The facts, in themselves, became regarded as essential and the cramming of a multitude of them ensued. Later the value of facts as interpreting the past and still later their value as an interpreter of the present was seen. The "training for citizenship" ideal seemed to have been present throughout all these years but the expansion of the concept progressed from one of rote memory of the history and con-
stitution of the United States to a study of many courses in social sciences and the affording of opportunities for pupils to participate in school activities similar to those which they would have to encounter in situations in adult life.

The study of history or another of the social sciences was placed in every year of the elementary and secondary schools. The programs were being made by committee procedure, instead of by the teachers, preachers, and textbook writers of early days.
In attempting to discover whether there were trends in the aims and objectives of history teaching, a study was first made of the aims and objectives as given by the authors of representative history texts during the years 1826-1932. This long span of years was divided into four periods, as in the preceding chapter, for the purpose of grouping the available data.

First Period, 1826-1860

The textbook writers of the early nineteenth century seem to have had a tolerable agreement in aims. These were well expressed by Goodrich in his introductory page.

"What are the uses and advantages of History?
1. History sets before us striking instances of virtue, enterprise, courage, generosity, patriotism; and by a natural principle of emulation, incites us to copy such notable examples. History also presents us with pictures of the vicious ultimately overtaken by misery and shame, and thus solemnly warns us against vice.

2. History, to use the words of Professor Tytler, is the school of politics. That is, it opens the hidden springs of human affairs; the cause of the rise, grandeur, revolution and fall of empires; it points out the influence which
that government reciprocally exerts upon the manners of a people; it illustrates the blessings of political union, and the miseries of faction; the dangers of unbridled liberty, and the mischiefs of despotic power.

"Observation. In a free country, where every man may be called upon to discharge important duties, either by his vote, or the administration of office, it is the business of all to be more or less acquainted with the science of politics. Nothing can better instruct us in this, than the study of history.

"3. History displays the dealings of God with mankind. It calls upon us often to regard with awe, his darker judgments, and again it awakens the liveliest emotions of gratitude, for his kind and benignant dispensations. It cultivates a sense of dependence on him; strengthens our confidence in his benevolence; and impresses us with a conviction of his justice.

"4. Besides these advantages, the study of History, if properly conducted, offers others, of inferior importance, indeed, but still they are not to be disregarded. It chastens the imagination; improves the taste; furnishes matter for reflection; enlarges the range of thought; strengthens and disciplines the mind."(1)

It was evident that Goodrich considered the moral, patriotic, and religious aims of greatest importance and the providing for leisure and disciplining of the mind of slight concern. The patriotic aim was largely a political one having the avowed purpose of training in the "science of politics" in anticipation of an obligation "to discharge important duties". His references to history as a "school of politics" was usual during the first half of the

century and showed the custom of using this subject as an instrument of propaganda for the continuation of the "blessings of political union" and of protection against the "mischiefs of despotic power."

Although Taylor implied all the aims given in Goodrich he definitely stated but two. In the first he said that he wished to contribute his mite for the present and future generations by,

"- - - - making them have a proper appreciation of those blessings which have descended by the grace of God to the posterity of the pilgrims."

In the second he had the very practical desire,

"- - - - to convey information about new states and territories, their soil and production- - - - for those who wish to emigrate."(2)

Mitchell, another of the leading textbook writers of the time, showed the esteem which was accorded learning as a social and moral asset.

"To know these things is very important and will give all who are acquainted with them an advantage over those who do not possess such knowledge. This will be a satisfaction to themselves and to their parents and prove that they have attended well to their studies."(3)

Worcester, who included a history of the United States

in a volume of Ancient and Modern History published first in 1826 and again in a revised form in 1849, elaborated on some of the aims which Goodrich had considered of "inferior importance", added others and explained each in detail.

The part of each paragraph which best illustrated the interpretation of his meaning was selected.

"Uses of History

"1. History is a narrative of past events. The study of it is attractive both to the young and to the old, to the unreflecting and the philosophical mind. It combines amusement of the deepest interest; the exercise and improvement of the best faculties of man; and the acquisition of the most important species of knowledge.

"2. History, considered merely as a source of amusement, has great advantages over novels and romances, the perusal of which too often debilitates the mind by inflaming the imagination, and corrupts the heart by infusing what may justly be regarded as moral poison.

"3. - - - - It affords a melancholy view of human nature, governed by the baser passions; and is to a lamentable extent, little else than a register of human crime and calamity, of war and suffering.

"4. A higher use of history is, to improve the understanding and strengthen the judgment. It has been styled philosophy teaching by example or moral philosophy exemplified by the lives and actions of men.

"5. - - - - It serves to free the mind from many narrow and hurtful prejudices; - - - -.

"6. History may be regarded as the school of politics, and, as such, some knowledge of it is indispensable to rulers and statesmen; it is also highly important to every citizen of a republic, in order to enable him to perform, in a manner
honorable to himself and useful to the community, 
the duties of a freeman.

"7. History shows us past ages, triumphs 
over time, and presents to our view the various 
revolutions which have taken place in the world.

"8. It tends to strengthen the sentiments of 
virtue. In its faithful delineations, vice al­ 
ways appears odious, and virtue not only desir­ 
able and productive of happiness, but also favor­ 
able to true honor and solid glory.

"9. True history has numberless relations 
and uses as an exhibition of the conduct of 
Divine Providence; - - - -.

"10. A knowledge of history has a tendency 
to render us contented with our condition in 
life, by the views which it exhibits of the in­ 
stability of human affairs."(4)

It was noticed that Worcester added three aims and 
changed the emphasis given by Goodrich on others. Those 
added were, history as a record of past events (1) and 
(7), history as a means of satisfying morbid curiosi­ 
ty (3), and history as an antidote to discontentment with 
life (10). Religion was given slight notice and the 
training for citizenship was considered of minor impor­ 
tance in comparison with many other objectives.

Besides the authors quoted a study was made of more 
than a dozen others, who had written history texts during 
the early nineteenth century, and whose aims were discussed 
by Russell.5 The objectives remained much the same, with

4. Worcester, Joseph A., Elements of History, Ancient and 
Modern, pp. 1-2.
5. Russell, William F., "The Early Teaching of History in 
Secondary Schools," History Teacher's Magazine, 
5: 203-208.
one notable exception. A historian, before 1840, advocated history as a means of overcoming international prejudices and furthering the cause of international peace.

"It is not our part to forget but to forgive. And while we remember the injuries inflicted and attempted by the government of Great Britain, let us bear in mind the many many blessings we owe to England and to Englishmen."  

The stressing of the moral, religious, and patriotic aims seemed universal during this period. The moral training which history was supposed to give was a powerful argument in its favor, because of the puritanical ideas of the people. For the same and other reasons religious values were considered of paramount importance. Besides the parental approval of religious as well as moral training the teacher and writer of the text was often a preacher. Such was the preference for a history which was also an interpretation of the acts of Providence that authors frequently cited the religious portions of their text in a plea for the text's adoption. The Bible was used as a reader in many schools. The patriotic aim was always held before the reader as the advantages of being informed upon political questions, both from the individual and the national standpoint, were presented. The training for

7. Ibid., p. 204.
citizenship interpretation gained as the conception of education as a function of state developed. Providing for leisure was also an important objective of the period. Some authors, as Worcester, gave it a high rating; others, like Goodrich, considered it of minor importance. But, since the novels and light literature of the day were not considered fit reading for the young people any book which would safely occupy the spare time of the youth was considered of worth. Toward the close of the period the disciplinary aim was becoming one of the chief values of education, because of the increasing belief in the transfer of mental training.

In summarizing the preceding data it was seen that the aims and objectives considered in this period and named in the order of their most general acceptance were:

1. Moral training
2. Religious training
3. Patriotism
4. Leisure
5. Training for citizenship
6. Mental discipline
7. Understanding of past events
8. Cultivation of judgment
9. Decrease prejudice
10. Exercise influence on national affairs
11. Increase understanding
12. Make content with lot in life
13. Satisfy morbid instinct
14. International understanding

8. In reviewing this period a record was kept of the aims and objectives given by each author with the emphasis accorded each. From this record a tabulation was made and the rank of each aim estimated.
The moral and religious training were of paramount importance in those early years and the opportunity of having a school-study help the home and church in the performance of that duty was regarded with much favor. The patriotic aim followed closely the first two in weight since the period was so near the recent war of 1812. The first three aims were given an excessive emphasis, the next seven but small notice, and the last four the barest mention.

Second Period, 1860-1892

Swinton, Anderson, and Scott were advocates of fact mastery and the mental discipline which was supposed to result from the process of learning many details concerning events which had transpired during a given time.

Doyle, an Englishman writing a history of the United States, almost on the hundredth anniversary of our declaration of independence, attempted to smooth over some of the misunderstandings between the two countries. He was doing more than trying to create a spirit of tolerance; he was endeavoring to nourish real fellowship. He was one of the first to make an effort to counteract the narrow and

9. Swinton, William, _School History of the United States_.
10. Anderson, John J., _A Grammar School History of the United States_.
11. Scott, David B., _Harper's School History of the United States_.

provincial spirit of our youthful nation. Quackenbos stressed the patriotic aim more than any of his predecessors. He avoided the discussion of disturbing political or religious problems and concentrated on an effort to display historical happenings in a "simple, clear, accurate, and interesting manner."

"He has tried throughout to be fair and national. He has neither introduced offensive allusions, nor invidiously attempted to bias the minds of the young on controverted questions connected with politics or religion." (13)

His effort to make his text interesting, in order to prepare his readers for future intellectual enjoyment, was a unique departure from the usual task-setting practice of so much to be learned or suffer the consequences. The moral training was not forgotten. He furnished his readers with many "models of worth" in the biographies of famous men. He endeavored to arouse sympathy for the Red Man whose "melancholy doom is hurrying to extinction." His aim to help education in its great influence on national affairs was shown by the last paragraph in his book.

"If there is one thing, on which more than all others, America may pride herself and found high hopes of stability for her glorious institutions, it is her system of common schools.

She offers the advantages of education to the young without money and without price, convinced that their enlightenment is her best safeguard. She seeks, as Webster has said, 'by general instruction to turn the strong current of feeling and opinion, as well as the censures of the law and the denunciations of religion, against immorality and crime.' That she may succeed in thus making her institutions eternal, is the prayer of every friend of liberty."(14)

Ridpath had as his avowed purpose, "to make boys and girls love the inspiring story". He felt that he would have accomplished much if he started or furthered a desire for more historical reading.15

The California Board of Education aimed to give the youth of their state a deeper interest in the welfare of their state and nation and encourage them to contribute in some degree to the establishment of its permanence through their love for it.16

Eggleston had as his chief objective the stimulation of interest in the domestic and social life of the early people. He told, in an interesting way, about the manner of their every day living and the effects of inventions upon this crude life. Little was said of the wars they had fought, but the kind of arms carried and the modes of attack and defense used were illustrated both by picture and

description. The objective was to fill the pupil with an appreciation of the changes which had been and were taking place and to instill in him a desire to become a part of this progression.17

Sheldon-Barnes gave, as the primary aim, historical-mindedness. The cultivation of judgment and reasoning and the training of the imagination were given as contributory aims.

"- - - to enable the citizens (as the pupils will become) to form judgments of the historical sort, which can only be based upon contemporary sources.

"The use of the source has (1) a dramatic advantage, also (2) gives historic training from the very start. In using the sources the pupil must do his own feeling and thinking, no one tells him Drake was a pirate."(18)

The aims in this period were seen to vary greatly. Some authors seemed to think nothing of value but the accumulation of a multitude of facts, while others endeavored to stimulate an appreciation of the progress of civilization and foster an inquiry into the causes of it.

A summary of this period showed that the aims most emphasized by the authors considered from 1861-1892 were,

Mental discipline held first place during this time. The theory of the transfer of training was at its height and the fact that history was packed with such quantities of numbers, events, dates, episodes, etc. made it an ideal subject with which to enlarge and cultivate the mind. The mastery of facts was really a supplementary aim of mental discipline but due to the great regard in which the memorizing of many facts was held, had also a high independent value. The religious aim was seen to wane; the patriotic aim increased; the international aim had at least one advocate, as in the first period; and the general aim of citizenship was groping for expression. An interest in the domestic life of the early people and an effort to develop judgment, reasoning, and an inquiring attitude was shown.
Third Period, 1893-1916

The third period showed a lack of attention to the religious aim and a more general and impersonal interpretation of the moral aim. One of the first authors of this period was Fiske, whose text was written as a result of the demand "for a book from a professional hand instead of the mere compilations formerly in use." He rebelled against presenting innumerable facts and attempted to select only those which would "show the grander features of a people's origin, rise, progress, and vicissitudes." He gave as the aims of instruction, (1) the stimulation of thought, and (2) excellence in reproduction. In enlarging upon these aims he said,

"The pupil must be encouraged to express himself freely, his inadequate expression must be tenderly dealt with, and, in general, his mind must not be burdened by anything that would prevent right thinking, as, for instance, by a struggle to repeat from memory.

"His aim should be to use his own language freely, to recite promptly and fluently and accurately, and to do all this with a good voice and a pleasing manner."(20)

Fiske was shown as a pioneer in the attitude that the school had an independent part to play in the development of the child. The intellectual life was the responsibility  

20. Ibid., Introduction, pp. XX, XXI.
of the school, not the religious or moral life which had been so much emphasized by the preacher-author.

McMaster, who has been spoken of as one of the most progressive writers of the time, gave as the chief aim of history the understanding of the economic life of the people. He emphasized, (1) the struggle for a government, (2) the struggle for our neutral rights, (3) the struggle for our commercial independence, and (4) the era of industrial development from the peace of 1815. Seven years later he published a seven volume history in which people was the chief theme.

"--- describes the dress, occupations, amusements, literary cantons of times; notes the change of manners and morals, traces growth of human spirit which abolished punishment for debt, reformed the discipline of prisons and jails, destroyed slavery and lessened the misery of dumb brutes." (23)

Although his objectives were not definitely stated like those of most of the authors up to this time, they were clearly implied and were classified under the following headings.

1. Understanding of institutions

2. Appreciation of state and society
3. Stimulation of thought
4. Group membership
5. Preparation for intellectual enjoyment
6. Historical mindedness
7. Moral training
8. Cultivate judgment, reasoning

Montgomery's purpose "to present in a clear, connected, and forcible manner the important events in the history of our country" and his manner of doing it in the old chronological way lead to the conclusion that his chief objective was the training of the mind by the arduous task of the systematizing of facts. 24

Sparks aimed at an appreciation of society.

"The intention has been to collect the local history of the American people in one volume, trusting that its perusal will inculcate additional reverence, not alone for American statesmen but also for the plain people, whose names perish, but whose work remains in the structure of the great republic." 25

James and Sanford likewise emphasized the human activity side and showed the importance of a study of the past as an interpretation of the present. Their aim was,
"-- -- to give the main features of the development of our nation, to explain the America of to-day, its civilization and its traditions." (26)

They gave especial weight to the fact that the position which the United States held today, among the great nations of the world, was primarily due to the achievements of men and women in political, industrial, social, educational, and religious fields.

This was quite an advance over the old histories that seemed to think that the most important influences in our past national life were the battles we had fought, the numbers taking part on opposing sides, and the number killed, wounded, or made prisoners in each engagement.

Mace, one of the most widely used text authors of the period, attempted to connect historical events and past conditions with the present, as the pupil knew it, thus making history more understandable and practical.

"-- -- an attempt has been made to have the narrative vivid in order that the pupil may not escape the impression that American History is an interesting movement, and that, whether in co-operation or in collision, men are always struggling to attain great ends. This quality seizes upon the human and dramatic feelings of the child and holds his interest in the subject. As a result the people who inhabit the world of history are made akin to those who are in action in the real world around him. -- -- To impress great historical scenes upon the mind of the

young is as important as to paint them on canvas. As a further stimulus to the sympathetic and constructive imagination, and as an appeal to the higher tastes, ten full-page illustrations in color have been introduced."(27)

He also spoke of history as not only a means of stimulating understanding but also of strengthening the memory by the laws of association.

A summary of the third period showed that the aims definitely stated or implied during the years 1893-1916 and ranked according to the emphasis given them were,

1. Understanding of institutions,
2. Appreciation of state and society,
3. Appreciation of common people,
4. Cultivation of judgment, reasoning,
5. Good citizenship,
6. Stimulate thought,
7. Understanding of causes of events,
8. Training in imagination,
9. Group membership,
10. Medium for literary expression,
11. Training in oral expression,
12. Mental discipline,

It was noticed that the understandings which were considered of importance to good citizenship were emphasized greatly. This showed development of the intellectual and social aims as an independent responsibility of the study of history rather than the former dependent role it

played in aiding the church and home in their religious and moral training. The emphasis on the study of the past for the purpose of bringing about an understanding of the present and the appreciation of the part taken by the common people in the making of our great nation were objectives not stressed in the early days. The mental discipline objective was almost lost sight of but remained as a worthy aim to two of the authors.

Fourth Period, 1917-1932

The entrance of this country into the World War gave an added incentive for developing the citizenship aim into one of practical use.

Hart, in the several histories published since nineteen hundred, was a leader in the movement to place before the boys and girls the political, social, and industrial problems which they would probably have to face. His contention was that the social life, opening of the frontier, growth of mechanical devices and improvement of business were more important than the personal narrative part of history. His plan to increase the interest in history through correlation with other subjects was being carried on by many of our foremost educators along their own lines at

this time. The value that he attached to the encouragement of children to read stories with a historical background was furthered by these aims, which were given in his American History Told by Contemporaries.

"(1) To open up texts of rare or quaint writings which shall be authoritative, so far as they go.

(2) To make the contemporary writers tell their own story of the events of American history and the aspirations of Americans from the foundations of the colonies to the present time."

The writing of such histories as these by Hart and similar ones by authors like McMaster, Channing, and McLaughlin made possible the increasingly popular objective to broaden the view and increase the understanding through extensive collateral reading.

Farrand published a United States history text, at the close of the World War, dedicated, "To the Allies in the Hope of a Better Understanding." That courtesy showed the value which was attributed by some authors to a spirit of international co-operation. He spoke of the trend in the

29. Rugg, Harold and others were working on a fusion course in the social sciences;

Hill, H. C., University of Chicago, was doing extensive work in the correlation of English and History.

30. Unlike Mary Sheldon, he admitted that these writers were prejudiced, as they saw but their side of what was going on. The great advantage was in the dramatic appeal which made the story live.
concept of history thus,

"For over thirty years a new spirit has been gradually making its way into the study and interpretation of American history and taking other than political and military events into consideration."(31)

The following year Guitteau, in much the same spirit, made a determined effort to throw a truer light on foreign relations.

"The teacher should draw closer the bonds of common sympathy and understanding which have recently united our people to these democracies and to the newly liberated people of Europe."(32)

In order to accomplish this purpose he advocated new values in the history text, values that would lead to an international understanding.

"Momentous events of the last five years have demonstrated conclusively that our history textbooks must be written from a new viewpoint. The story of our national life should not be told as a narrative distinct from the rest of the world. -- -- -- special emphasis has been placed upon the relations of the United States to other countries, in order that the young citizens who study it may realize more fully the importance of our world responsibilities."(33)

Guitteau gave as the dominant purpose in present-day teach-

33. Ibid.
ing of history and government—

"- - - - the preparation of pupils for intelligent, helpful citizenship through the study of our country's history, its ideals, and institutions."(34)

Gordy had two outstanding purposes.

"(1) - - - - to help the boys and girls of our schools to discover America as it is to-day.
(2) - - - - to develop in the pupil a spirit of cooperation with others in patriotic service."(35)

In explanation of the first purpose, he said that he wished to make clear the great influence which the westward movement had been in American history. How it had modified our economic and political life and made the American type of character distinctive and even unique in the world.

Beard and Bagley gave as their chief objective the preparation of children for citizenship through an understanding of the ideals, institutions, achievements, and problems of our country.

"America has been made by the labors, sacrifices, and ideals of millions of men, women, and children, unhonored and unsung in the ordinary

books. That is the essence of democracy. The fate of the nation lies in the hands of their sons and daughters who study its history in the public schools. They are the makers of history as well as the students of it." (36)

Haworth laid emphasis on the understanding of the present as the important aim in history teaching.

"It is clear that the time has come when greater emphasis than hitherto must be laid on the period since the Civil War. More of our problems have arisen since that time. The same problems do not bother us which bothered Lincoln." (37)

The consideration of economic questions, especially the political ones, was stressed. Emphasis was also given to the social and industrial questions, but the author guarded against swinging too far in that direction.

"The business of government is of prime importance and it is essential our citizens should understand our past political history."

He also showed his belief in stimulating an appreciation of the men who have made history, "History is made by men and not by abstractions." (38)

Muzzey endeavored (1) to balance the social, political,

38. Ibid., Preface.
military, and economic forces in our history, and (2) to foster an understanding of and friendship with Great Britain.39

Bassett considered the understanding of political institutions the most important objective of history teaching.

"Political institutions are the most conscious expression of the national will. Social and economic conditions and the actions of leading men give color and contour to the figure and decide whether it be attractive or unattractive, vivid or unimpressive."(40)

Board and Beard had as their chief aim the creating of effective citizenship by stimulating habits of analysis, comparison, association, reflection, and generalization thus enlarging as well as informing the mind.

"The effectiveness of their citizenship will be measured by the excellence of their judgment as well as the fullness of their information."(41)

In a later edition, Beard and Beard had as added objectives the emphasis of the social and industrial aspects of our history, and a study of the place of our country in the world.41

40. Bassett, John Spencer, A Short History of the United States, Preface.
among world powers.

"This new book widens the scope to include American culture in the broadest sense; thought as well as commerce, science as well as politics and art as well as industry. Mankind does not live by politics alone nor by bread alone but also by things of the spirit which form ideals, inspire love of beauty and ennoble action."(42)

A summary of the fourth period showed that the following aims were given during the years from 1917-1932:

1. Training for citizenship,
2. International understanding,
3. Understanding of institutions,
4. Understanding of present,
5. Appreciation of state and society,
6. Historical mindedness,
7. Cultivation of judgment, reasoning,
8. Appreciation of common people,
9. Understanding of causes of events,
10. Broaden the view,
11. Stimulate thought,
12. Group membership,
13. Understanding of past,
14. Co-operation in patriotic service,
15. Increase information,
16. Understanding of social and industrial problems,
17. Realization of being makers of history,
18. Moral training.

It was shown that training for citizenship had the unanimous support of all the authors considered. The understanding of foreign relations, or in other words, the

42. Beard and Beard, History of the United States (1930), Preface.
international aim, was of next importance. Friendliness toward and co-operation with other English-speaking nations was especially emphasized. Moral training was not so obviously expressed as in the earlier periods but existed nevertheless. The understanding of the present through the study of the past, which had been mentioned in the third period gained significance. The comprehending of social and industrial problems, the appreciation of the part played in the making of history by the ordinary citizen and the realization of the fact that the children themselves were and would continue to be makers-of-history were new interpretations.

Summary of four periods, 1826-1932

In reviewing the aims and objectives as given by the authors of the history texts mentioned in this chapter, a record was kept of the frequencies of reference and the weight attached to each aim. Table XI, on the following page, was constructed from this information.

A study of the aims which were given by writers of history texts, when history first became an independent subject in the curriculum, showed that all the aims mentioned during the four periods could have been grouped under the fourteen original classifications. A comparison of the aims and objectives of that first list (page 54) with those in Table XI showed, in the latter, an increase in number and
### Table XI

**AIMS AND OBJECTIVES IN HISTORY TEACHING AS EXPRESSED BY HISTORY TEXTS 1826-1932**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Times mentioned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Understanding of institutions</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Appreciation of state and society</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Moral training</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Cultivation of judgment, reasoning</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Good citizenship</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Training in imagination</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Preparation for intellectual enjoyment (leisure)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Mental discipline</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Understanding of causes of events</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Group membership</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Responsibility of individual</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Understanding of foreign relations</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Systematizing facts</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Stimulate thought</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Historical mindedness</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Decrease prejudice</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Patriotism</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Religious training</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Social efficiency</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Counteract a narrow and provincial spirit</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Appreciation of ordinary citizen</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Increase information</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Understanding of social and industrial problems</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Exercise an influence on national affairs</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Appreciate being makers of history</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Teach facts used in reading, conversation, etc.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Training in oral expression</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Satisfy morbid instinct</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Increase personal contentment</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A shift in emphasis. These changes were caused largely by the growing differentiation of the purposes of the original objectives and the advent of the modern conception of history as a guide to social interpretation. Some of the objectives had few advocates and were short-lived, such as training in oral expression, satisfy morbid
instinct, and increase personal contentment. The religious training which was so important in the early years had entirely disappeared by the close of the second period, 1892. This was the only chief aim which did not continue throughout; the others were modified or enlarged upon, but their original meaning continued to some extent. Moral training and good citizenship had the most consistent emphasis throughout the century.

Aims and Objectives Expressed by Historians, Educators, and Committees, 1826-1932

The aims and objectives as given by the writers of books and articles on educational matters relating to the social studies, especially history, and the reports of committees investigating and recommending changes in history courses were next considered.

There were many definitions of the aims of education but they usually agreed on "complete living" which "means to be as useful as possible, and to be happy". There was a disagreement among educators as to the extent to which history furthered this general objective but the fact that it might be made of use was conceded. It was also decided that history must have practical aims and be so presented as to make it of value to the life of a child if it was to do its

part in completing living.

The following quotation expressed this sentiment concisely,

"This objective is that of inducting the child into the life of society and of training him in the use of the instrumentalities of civilization."(44)

First Period, 1826-1860

In the early years of the nineteenth century there were many aims set forth by writers of texts but there seemed to be no other educational writers in this country who concerned themselves with the matter. A contemporary of this period wrote, concerning the Boston schools in 1800, that the intellectual aim was the one which represented the alpha and omega of endeavor so far as the pupil was concerned.

"The highest motive, and most permanently held out, with its portentious instrument kept in full view, was to be the best scholar under the fear of punishment."(45)

We may say that the purpose of the teaching of history during the early years of the first period was to help the pupil understand the classics. Later the informational

value of historical facts was considered as worth while.46

The value of history as propaganda was seen at the ap­

proach of the Civil War and the patriotic aim was empha­

sized.

Second Period, 1861-1892

Just before the opening of this period the question of

the value of the older classical training and the newer

scientific studies was brought to a sharp issue by an es­

say published in the Westminster Review by Herbert Spen­

ner, one of England's greatest scholars. The scientific

and industrial advancements had produced important changes

in living conditions both in this country and abroad. The

question of which type of training would be of most use

both for intellectual discipline and as a preparation for

living was hotly argued by the sponsors of each. The ad­
vocates of the newer studies contended that the content

material of the sciences was of more importance than the

method and drill of the classics and provided a more suit­
able preparation for intelligent living. In Spencer's

essay on "What Knowledge is of Most Worth?", he expressed

these ideas and declared that the purpose of education was

to "prepare us for complete living."47

"How to Live?— that is the essential question for us. Not how to live in the mere material sense only, but in the widest sense. And this being the great thing needful for us to learn is, by consequence, the great thing which education has to teach. To prepare us for complete living is the function which education has to discharge; and the only rational mode of judging of an educational course is to judge in what degree it discharges such function."(48)

A study of this essay and the controversy between the older and newer philosophy of education lead to the conclusion that Spencer's influence did much to ultimately free history from its old place as an aid to the classics and give it a position of independence as one of the studies which prepared for living. However, it was some years before any discernible amount of interest was shown in the objectives of history by writers other than authors of history texts. These authors stated the aims, or uses, and elaborated on the possibilities of the text for the purpose of advertising the book to the public, therefore aims were a big selling feature. Educational writers discussed aims as a goal of accomplishment for the pupil and teacher. In the early years there was no goal other than to be the best scholar and this attainment was determined by the number of pages which could be recited from memory.

Between 1886 and 1890, students returning from Jena}

brought back the Herbartian theory of a newer and truer educational psychology in the aims of history teaching. The beginning of the acceptance of these ideas in this country was caused by the publication of De Garmo's Essentials of Method in 1889. In a few years other methodologists were advocating these objectives. In particular Herbart gave emphasis to that part of the educational development which comes from without, the environment working on the child. A new emphasis was put on the moral aim in instruction and a new social point of view was taken in the teaching of history. The Herbartians argued for character building as the direct aim rather than patriotism, because a student who has a properly trained character will naturally be patriotic. The chief purpose of all education was to develop the personal character and to prepare for social usefulness and history was especially suited to accomplish that purpose.

In reviewing the years from 1861-1892 an increased interest in aims, due to the Herbartian influence, was shown in the latter part of the period. The beginning of this interest had also come from over-seas, following the publication of the philosophy of Spencer. It was seen that

50. McMurry, Charles, General Methods, 1892.
   McMurry, Charles and McMurry, Frank, Method in Recitation, 1897.
the patriotic aim of the years near the Civil War was giving way to the broader aim of character building.

Third Period, 1893-1916

With the exception of the interest taken in aims and objectives by pioneers like De Garmo, and McDermott, the question did not seem to have been of great concern to anyone other than textbook writers, until the advent of conferences and committee investigations. The first of these conferences was held at Madison, Wisconsin, in 1892. It was composed of ten members appointed by the National Education Association. This committee reported, in 1893, that the chief objective of history teaching was the training of the mind and the consequent development of judgment. A medium for literary expression and a means of moral training were given as lesser aims.52

The Committee of Seven, 1898, working under the auspices of the American Historical Association, advised the introduction of such studies as would connect the home and school and the community and school. This was the beginning of the investigation for civic values in history. The function of government was stressed instead of the form. The trend was away from the deductive methods of the past. They stressed good citizenship, held some of the values named by the Committee of Ten and added eight other aims.

which gave them a grand total of thirteen. 63

Dewey's educational philosophy did much to further this new value in history. Believing that the public school was the chief remedy for the social ills of organized society, he said that the schools should be so changed as to make it a miniature of society itself. He gave as the aim of education,

"Social efficiency and not mere knowledge. This social efficiency to be produced through participation in the activities of an institution of society—the school." (64)

About this time Dr. Baar, of the Progymnasium of Malmedy, wrote concerning the impression an American history course made on an European.

"The aim of the study of history in the United States is more than in monarchical states a political one. It is to prepare the young for a self-active participation in the life of the state, by giving them the requisite historical knowledge and by training them in the American spirit." (65)

Bourne, in 1902, gave as his aims, knowledge of environment, patriotism, love of truth, judgment, imagination developed, use of books, and historical-mindedness. He explained how each aim could be attained and seemed to

---

63. Report of Committee of Seven.
place equal emphasis on each. 56

McMurry, in 1906, made moral character the "clear and conscious aim of school education." He subordinated school studies and discipline, mental training and conduct to this aim. 57

In 1914, Jackson gave as the single aim of history teaching,

"- - - - the task of putting a student in true touch with his time, to develop in him as a permanent possession the historical viewpoint, by which he will see our modern institutions - - - - as a living progressive whole." 58

Although the aims quoted for this period were a small part of the aims which could have been given it was believed that they were representative of the general opinion of educational writers of the time.

The following list shows that even among such a small number of writers a great variety of aims prevailed. Good citizenship headed the list, but was closely followed by social efficiency, development of moral character, and historical mindedness. It was possible that the two who named social efficiency may have intended that as

their interpretation for good citizenship, if so that left but one of those six authorities who yet maintained that history should not be called upon to step out of its scholarly role.

Good citizenship
Social efficiency
Development of moral character
Historical mindedness
Understanding of institutions

Knowledge of environment
Patriotism
Cultivation of judgment
Development of imagination
Training in use of books

While such authorities as those mentioned doubtless helped to formulate certain new objectives and re-direct the emphasis on the older ones, the real influence was exerted by committee recommendations. Bourne was a member of the Committee of Eight, appointed by the American Historical Association in 1908. They considered the chief aim of history teaching and studying to be, the understanding of institutions. This was one of the objectives of the Committee of 1898, as were the other four objectives chosen. A tendency to have fewer and more definite aims was shown from this time on.

The Committee on Social Studies investigating for the National Education Association in 1914-1916, decided that the chief aim should be to improve the citizenship of the

60. Table XII.
land by developing in the pupil a constructive attitude in
the consideration of all social problems. This committee
said,

"Social studies differ from other studies
in social content rather than in social aim.
--- because, the keynote of all modern educa-
tion is social efficiency."(61)

Like the Committee of 1893, they wished to counteract the
narrow and provincial spirit and lead the interests of the
pupils beyond the confines of the community. They gave as
a specific aim,

"High national ideals and an intelligent and
genuine loyalty to them."(62)

Robinson wrote, concerning the conception of history to
be followed according to the recommendations of this com-
mittee,

"History, too, must answer the test of good
citizenship. The old chronicler who recorded
the deeds of kings and warriors and neglected
the labors of the common man is dead. The great
palaces and cathedrals and pyramids are often
but the empty shells of a parasitic growth on
the working group. The labors and plans of the
multitudes are more important than the pleasures
and dreams of the few."(63)

The decreasing in the number of aims and the increas-

Report of Committee on Social Studies, 1916.
62. Ibid., p. 67.
63. Report of Committee on Social Studies.
ing in the emphasis placed upon "training for citizenship" by the investigating committees of the National Education Association and American Historical Association, during the years from 1893 to 1916, may be seen by observing Table XII, page 86. It will be noticed that the number of aims increased from nine in 1893 to the high peak of thirteen in 1898. In 1908 but five were discussed and this small number was reduced to four by the Committee on Social studies in 1914-1916. The lack of agreement as to objectives was noticeable, no single one being discussed by all. Good citizenship came close to achieving that honor but was neglected by the committee of 1908. Out of the nineteen objectives discussed by the four committees one was considered three times, ten were considered two times and eight had but one sponsor each. A comparison of the aims of the committee of 1914-1916 with those of the other three will show a definite trend toward a training for citizenship. The scholarly and cultural aims of the first three committees had been discarded for a purely social aim as was shown by the objectives chosen--good citizenship, counteract a narrow and provincial spirit, social efficiency, and responsibility of the individual.

This great change in aims was probably due to two causes. First, the fact that history was considered, by this committee, in a group with other social sciences and second, by the increased interest in citizenship
| Committee: N.E.A. Committee of Ten, 1893-1916 | Date | | Committee: A.H.A. | Date | | Committee: A.H.A. Committee of Seven, 1893-1916 | Date | | Committee: A.H.A. Committee of Eight, 1893-1916 | Date | | Committee: N.E.A. Committee on Secondary Education, 1893-1916 | Date | | Objective | 1895 | 1898 | 1903 | 1906 |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Broaden the mind. | x | x | x | x |
| Preparation for intellectual enjoyment. | x | x | x | x |
| Exercise influence on national affairs. | x | x | x | x |
| Counteract a narrow and provincial spirit. | x | x | x | x |
| Good citizenship. | x | x | x | x |
| Medium for literary expression. | x | x | x | x |
| Moral training. | x | x | x | x |
| Ability to generalize. | x | x | x | x |
| Teach facts used in reading. | x | x | x | x |
| Understanding of institutions. | x | x | x | x |
| Appreciation of change. | x | x | x | x |
| Tolerance. | x | x | x | x |
| Historical mindedness. | x | x | x | x |
| Systematizing facts. | x | x | x | x |
| Training in handling books. | x | x | x | x |
| Training of the imagination. | x | x | x | x |
| Training in oral expression. | x | x | x | x |
| Group membership. | x | x | x | x |
| Social efficiency. | x | x | x | x |
| Responsibility of individual. | x | x | x | x |

64. Information from committee proceedings.
training felt at this time due to our possible entry into the World War.

A well known history professor writing at the close of this period, concerning the aims of history, discussed the great diversity of opinion as to the objectives. He said that almost from the start the advocates of placing history in the curriculum had based their arguments upon a variety of grounds. The values which were then being talked of were present when history first entered the curriculum. The difference had been largely in the emphasis placed on the various aims and the method of obtaining them. The religious aim had had a gradual decline, and the other objectives a growing differentiation.65

"The influence of Herbert Spencer and the teachings of the theory of evolution have caused the growth of the modern conception of history as a guide to social interpretation."(66)

Summarizing, beginning with 1893 an increasing interest in aims was shown. This was due primarily to the arousing of public opinion by the reports of investigating committees and secondarily to the, by now, established practice of formulating objectives by writers on educational matters. A wide variety of aims was seen to exist

66. Ibid., p. 208.
but there was a tendency toward decreasing the number and increasing the emphasis upon some certain one. Good citizenship seemed to be the most stressed aim both by the committees and the individual writers.*

Fourth Period, 1917-1932

The influence of our entrance into the World War was seen upon every phase of educational life. History was felt to be peculiarly adapted to the training of our future citizens for the task of carrying on the principles for which we were fighting. Therefore, renewed interest was taken in formulating and emphasizing aims and objectives. This interest continued and gave rise to a new aim of international fellowship and understanding.

"There is a new interest in the teaching and study of history since the World War. The American mind has been turned to international affairs and particular attention centered upon our increasing political, social, intellectual, and commercial relations with other nations."(67)

The period from 1917-1932 was marked by much interest

* A comparison of the rank of good-citizenship, as expressed by educational writers (page 82) and as decided by national committees, Table XII (page 85), with its rank in Table XIV (page 96) will show an interesting variation of opinion. The lowering in standing in the latter table was probably due to the wider field of opinion which included "students of history", who were apt to scoff at the social-civic aim.

in aims. There was a difference of opinion as to what these aims should be but a general agreement as to the necessity of having and following them.

Johnson stressed the importance of aims and said it was impossible to teach history successfully without worthy aims, for one must have some goal which he was endeavoring to reach.

"The aims of instruction determine for any subject the materials to be selected and the manner of dealing with them."(68)

His idea that there was a trend toward an international understanding was shown by his opinion that history should give to the student impressions of what society has been and is, how society works and what the causes and consequences of social action were.69 If this value was realized history should,

"—— make him in general an intelligent well-disposed citizen of the world as it is, by making him a citizen of the ages."(70)

Following the World War the National Education Association and the American Historical Association jointly appointed a committee to make a survey of the history and

68. Johnson, Henry, Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools, pp. 75-76.
69. Ibid., p. 64.
70. Ibid., p. 55.
other social science courses.\textsuperscript{71} At the close of this investigation, which took place from 1918-1921, the chief aim of the social science courses was given as "training for citizenship." Moral training, the appreciation of change, and tolerance were again included in the objectives after having been dropped, by the committees, for a period of twenty years. The only entirely new value considered was that of group membership.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE XIII</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OBJECTIVES DISCUSSED BY COMMITTEE ON HISTORY AND EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP, N.E.A., A.H.A., 1918-1921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good citizenship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appreciation of change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical mindedness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broaden the mind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group membership</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

McMurry, about this time, stressed the ethical aim.

"History is thus pre-eminently a moral study and moral practice. To give a vivid and intense realization of social duties and obligations is the essence of the best history instruction."\textsuperscript{73}

He criticized the "patriotism" aim of history and said that history should endeavor to clarify and purify the sentiment of patriotism.

\textsuperscript{71} Committee on History and Education for Citizenship, N.E.A., A.H.A., 1918-1921.
\textsuperscript{72} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{73} McMurry, Charles A., Special Method in History, p. 17.
"Children should be made more intelligent about our country and more sensitive to its true honor and dignity." (74)

Parker, in 1922, said the ultimate objective of history was,

"The understanding of present-day institutions." (75)

Part II of the Twenty-Second Yearbook of the N.S.S.E. was devoted to the problems of the social studies, especially history. McMurry, in discussing proposed reorganizations, said that writers generally agreed that citizenship was the true aim. The former objectives of "broad information, learning, and scholarship" were being discarded and unworthy. 76

Hatch stressed the citizenship objective, and said it must be achieved through,

"Inspiration, information, participation; these are the three aims to be constantly kept in mind in the training of our young citizens." 77

Dawson, in 1924, said that the aim and objective of the teaching of history should be the increasing of social

efficiency. He wanted to see "an increase of service appearing as the result of schooling". He gave as the specific aim,

"High national ideals and an intelligent and genuine loyalty to them."

He criticized the scholastic aim which was so prevalent during the nineteenth century and was still held to by some in the twentieth century.

"Our system of free schools is due to statesmen not to schoolmasters. Franklin, Washington, Adams, Jefferson, etc. were not schoolmasters. Horace Mann was a lawyer and congressman. -- -- -- The purpose of history and the social studies is civic not scholastic." (78)

The following year, Harry Elmer Barnes, professor of historical sociology at Smith College, together with other authorities from different colleges criticized the present emphasis of history courses and agreed that the social sciences possessed something more than a mere esoteric and scholarly significance. The social aim should be evident in colleges of high learning as well as in more elementary schools. 79

Barnes' strong feeling against the impractical, too

scholarly, treatment of history was again shown in a later publication.

"The newer type of historian holds that the purpose of history is to give the present generation such a complete and reliable picture of the past that it will be able to arrive at an intelligent comprehension of how and why the present state of civilization came about."(80)

In writing concerning trends in the teaching of history Kimmel said that the tendency to redefine and reformulate objectives for instruction was the result of several factors.

"1. The constant changes in our social, economic, and industrial life are accompanied by changes in cultural surroundings and are reflected in our schools.
   2. Advances in professional literature, content materials, training of teachers, new instructional procedures, more accurate knowledge of the learning process.
   3. Present conception of secondary schools as educational opportunities for all the children of all the people.
   4. The tendency toward placing social studies as the core of the secondary school curriculum."(81).

He gave a list of the five general objectives most often included in current curricular discussions of aims.

"1. To gain historical information.
2. To learn how to study history.
3. To develop a questioning attitude.
4. To gain an understanding of institutions, problems, and movements.
5. To gain an appreciation of the way in which historians establish the authenticity of historical facts."(82)

He said that curriculum-makers were attempting to state objectives for each course and specific objectives for each unit. These objectives were stated in definite terms and the teachers instructed what learning exercises to use to help the pupil meet these specific objectives.83 It was interesting to notice that except in the objective, "to gain an understanding of institutions-- ----" Kimmel gave no recognition to the social civic aims that were so much discussed at this time.

Wirth stated that the chief objective of history was the training for citizenship in the fullest meaning of the term. The four values or goals of achievement he classified as,

"1. An understanding of the realities of the past."

83. In some courses (St. Louis and other cities) the objectives were printed on the left side of the page directly opposite the procedures to be utilized in attaining them.

In other courses a minimum list of objectives to be attained by all pupils, followed by a more comprehensive list to be met by pupils of greater ability, was given the teacher.
2. A questioning attitude toward the alleged facts of history.
3. The ability to discriminate between propaganda and fact.
4. The habit of looking at both sides of the question." (84)

Howard C. Hill said that the main goal in the teaching of history and civics was to develop intelligent, useful, right-minded citizens. In order to do this the teacher must have as objectives,

"1. To develop social attitudes and social conduct.
   2. To inculcate an understanding of social environment in character, needs, and problems." (85)

Wilson, of Harvard, wrote of the experimentation which was being done in the social studies in an endeavor to develop the pupils as citizens, rather than as scholars. 86 Krey, of the University of Minnesota, wrote of the increasing importance of education for participation in society. He said that history was especially adapted for this purpose and that all pupils should be given as much instruction for effective membership in adult society as time al-

84. Wirth, Fremont F., "Ultimate Objectives and Goals of Achievement for History in the Public Schools," Historical Outlook, 19: 117-119.
Mary G. Kelty, supervisor and instructor in the State Teacher's College of Oshkosh, Wisconsin, gave as the ultimate objectives of history teaching, understanding of present-day institutions, attitudes of historical-mindedness and tolerance, cultivation of interests and tastes in reading. She made an interesting study of objectives formulated by various committees, by students of history, and by writers in the field of education from 1893 to 1924. Thirty authorities were considered, nineteen objectives named by them, and as wide range of opinions seen. (Table XIV) The lack of agreement was startling. Moral training ranked first with but two-thirds of the whole number considering it. Good citizenship was mentioned by only a few over a third. Speaking of this variety in opinion, Kelty said,

"There are no scientifically established objectives that are generally accepted by educators such as may be found, for example, in spelling, although numerous studies have been made in the history field." (89)

Johnson justified this variation of expert opinion by saying that a subject which was called upon to be so many different things for different purposes could not

87. Krey, A. C., "Thirty Years after the Committee of Seven," Historical Outlook, 20: 65.
89. Ibid., p. 350.
TABLE XIV
OBJECTIVES FORMULATED ON THE BASIS OF OPINION
BY VARIOUS COMMITTEES, BY STUDENTS OF HISTORY, AND BY WRITERS IN THE FIELD OF
EDUCATION, 1895-1924 (90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Moral training</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Understanding of institutions</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Historical mindedness</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Cultivate judgment, reasoning</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Preparation for intellectual enjoyment</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Appreciation of state and society</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Training in imagination</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Good citizenship</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Teach facts used in reading, conversation, etc.</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Tolerance</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Systematizing facts</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Patriotism</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Social efficiency</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Counteract a narrow and provincial spirit</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Medium for literary expression</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Exercising influence on national affairs</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Group membership</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Responsibility of the individual</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Training in oral expression</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This tabulation was arranged from information given in an article by Mary G. Kelty. Thirty authorities were considered.

It is now a truthful record and explanation of past conditions and events, now purely imaginative literature, now applied sociology and practical ethics." (91)

The objectives discussed with the number of authorities choosing each is shown in Table XIV above.

Concerning the changing values of history Inglis...

91. Johnson, op. cit., p. 64.
"History as a subject of study in the secondary school has passed through three fairly definite stages and entered on its fourth stage. During the earliest period history was studied primarily as ancillary to the study of the classics. That stage was followed by a second period when history was studied largely as an informational subject. Later still history was studied with emphasis on its sociological values with special reference to the activities of present-day life as participated in by the ordinary man or woman."(92)

Summary—A review of the fourth period showed that the years 1916-1952 were marked by an extensive interest in aims and objectives. A classification of those aims given by the writers, other than committees, was made under the following headings. These were then listed according to the number of authorities mentioning them and the importance which was attached to each.

1. Good citizenship
2. Social efficiency
3. Development of moral character
4. Historical mindedness
5. Understanding of institutions
6. Understanding of international problems
7. Understanding of past
8. Understanding of present through past
9. Cultivate judgment
10. Develop questioning attitude
11. Development of imagination
12. Training in use of books
13. Cultivation of interests and tastes in reading
14. Tolerance
15. Loyalty to national ideals
16. Historical information
17. Learn how to study through past

A tendency toward the broad ultimate aim of good citizenship and the choosing of specific aims which would help in reaching that goal was shown. The emphasizing of the new international aim was seen. Criticisms of the purely scholarly and narrowly patriotic aims were continued and intensified by most of the authorities.

Summarizing the four periods from 1826 to 1932,—the following trends were shown. A growing interest in aims and objectives, which were not discussed by writers other than textbook authors until late in the nineteenth century and which, between the years 1893 and 1932, had become one of the leading educational questions; a tendency toward training for citizenship as the broad aim of history; a continuance of the value of the ethical aim; a lessening in the popularity of the scholarly and patriotic aims.

Table XV, on the following page, illustrates the lack of agreement as to the purposes of history which existed throughout the century. A comparison of this table with Table XI, page 73, will show that the authors of history texts had a similar diversity of opinion but that their aims coincided with those of the historians, educators, and committees in all except the religious value, which was not recognized by any of the authorities considered in this chapter.
TABLE XV
AIMS AND OBJECTIVES EXPRESSED BY HISTORIANS, EDUCATORS, AND COMMITTEES, 1826-1932

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Historians and Educators*</th>
<th>National Committees**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rank mentioned</td>
<td>Times mentioned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Good citizenship</td>
<td>1. Good citizenship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Social efficiency</td>
<td>2. Historical mindedness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Understanding of</td>
<td>2. Broaden the mind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>institutions</td>
<td>3. Counteract a narrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Historical mindedness</td>
<td>3. Understanding of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Understanding of</td>
<td>present through past</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present through past</td>
<td>3. Understanding of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Develop questioning</td>
<td>3. Appreciation of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>attitude toward</td>
<td>3. Tolerance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alleged facts</td>
<td>3. Systematizing facts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Understanding of</td>
<td>3. Training in handling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>international problems</td>
<td>institutions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 4. Patriotism             | 2. Training the imagina-
| 3. Counteract a narrow    | tion                   |
| 5. Development of         | 3. Ability to generalize|
| imagination               | 3. Teach facts used in |
| 6. Understanding of past  | 1. Preparation for in-
| 1. Training in use of     | tellectual enjoyment   |
| books                     | 1. Medium for literary|
| 6. Cultivation of inter-
| ests and tastes in reading |
| 6. Loyalty to national    | 1. Exercise influence on|
| ideals                    | national affairs       |
| 6. Historical information | 1. Expression          |
| 6. Learn how to study     | 1. Training in oral    |

* 22 authorities considered.
** 5 committees considered.
CHAPTER IV

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION, 1826-1932

Method, as Influenced by Text

The next question which arose in the writer's mind was, how did the teacher use these varied texts? The best mode of procedure to solve this problem seemed to be a study of the lesson plans, especially the suggestions for presentation made to the teacher by the author.

First Period, 1826-1860

In the most widely used text of the early 19th century the following definite "rules" for using the book were given.

"1. The General Division should first be very thoroughly committed to memory.
2. That portion of the work which is in larger type, embraces the leading subjects of the 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 a pupil until the second or third time going through the book." 1

The "General Division" consisted of one or two paragraphs about each of the "Eleven Periods" into which the

author had divided the history of the United States from 1492 to 1820. The length of these periods was determined by the accessions to the throne of England, wars, or presidential administrations.

"The Third Period will extend from the Accession of William and Mary to the throne of England, 1689, to the declaration of the war by England against France called 'the French and Indian War,' 1756, and is remarkable for the three wars of King William, Queen Anne, and George II.

"The Fourth Period will extend from the Declaration of war by England against France, 1756, to the commencement of hostilities by Great Britain against the American Colonies, in the battle of Lexington, 1775, and is distinguished for the French and Indian War.

"The Seventh Period will extend from the Inauguration of President Washington, 1789, to the Inauguration of John Adams, as President of the United States, 1797. This period is distinguished for Washington's Administration."(2)

After these Eleven Periods were "very thoroughly committed to memory" the youth was to memorize the portion of the work "which is in larger type." This part comprised approximately 80% of the 296 page text. Small wonder that the teacher was admonished not to make a severe examination of the pupil until the second or third time going through the book! A typical passage, of the many thousands to be memorized, was.

"Fortunately for the Americans, as it seemed, M. de Ternay arrived at Rhode Island, July 10th, from France, with a squadron of seven sail of the line, five frigates, and five smaller armed vessels, with several transports, and six thousand men, all under command of Lieutenant General Count de Rochambeau."(3)

The great number of factual questions asked and the author's lack of confidence in the teacher's ability either to make or answer them was illustrated by the following representative group selected at random from twenty pages of similar ones at the close of the book.

"GENERAL QUESTIONS ON PERIOD X

What wars occurred during this period? (see. 12, 45.)

What were some of the most important naval engagements? (see. 7, 15, 18, 19, 20, 23, 28, 29, 30, 31, 36, 37, 41, 48.)—some of the battles by land? (see. 17, 22, 26, 32, 34, 38, 39, 41, 43.)—What states were admitted to the Union? (see. 10, 51.)"(4)

Taylor omitted any directions for the teaching of his text. A consideration of the pages of closely printed matter showed the probability that no plan other than that of memorization was ever attempted. The first paragraph

4. Ibid., p. 19 (Questions in back of book.) The system of numbering the sections was usual in this period. A section commonly consisted of one paragraph, but occasionally extended to two or three. By this device of numbering both the teacher and pupil were assured of the exact facts to be remembered.
The discovery of America by Columbus, gave a new impulse to that bold spirit of adventure which characterized the hardy age in which he lived. Although several men of rank and fortune were concerned in the companies which had been formed in England for colonising America, their funds appear to have been very limited and their first efforts were extremely feeble. The first expedition for the southern colony consisted of one vessel of 100 tons, and two barks, with 106 men, destined to remain in the country. The command of this small fleet was given to Captain Newport, who sailed from the Thames the 19th. of December, 1606.- - - - (5)

Worcester did not write a separate history of the United States but included the study of this country with that of France, England, and the European States in his "Ancient and Modern History". He was one of the foremost writers of the period, also the author of a dictionary, which seemed to rate any literary person very high in the early days, so it seemed certain that his methods of instruction were followed by the teachers who probably had studied his books and who were teaching American history texts which gave little or no suggestions for procedure. The system of fixing dates by means of a chronological table was thought to be a great improvement over the method of depending entirely upon the memory of the date as included in the page; therefore, in 1849, he added this feature to his 1826

D. Taylor, C. B., Universal History of the United States, p. 13. The story of the ancestry of Columbus, intimate details of his life, and his discovery of America were told in the twelve preceding introductory pages.
Another innovation of Worcester's 1489 edition was the inclusion of a "Chart of History."

"1. This Chart affords means of facilitating the study of History similar to what are afforded by maps in the study of Geography. It supposed time to be flowing, in a stream, from the left hand to the right; and represents, at one view, the principal States and Empires which have existed in the world, together with their origin, revolutions, decline and fall.

"2. Thus it appears that Egypt dates from 2188 B.C.; the Calling of Abraham, 1921; the foundation of Rome, 753 B.C.; that Macedonia was annexed to the Roman Empire 168 B.C.; that the Heruli conquered Italy, and put an end to the Western Roman Empire, in the year 476 after Christ; and that the Turks put an end to the Eastern Empire in 1453."(7)

The fact that he advocated intensive study rather than extensive reading was shown by the following comment.

"The outlines of history may be acquired with incomparably greater facility by the use of

This text was used in Kemper Family School, Boonville, Mo., before the Civil War and was in use in the same school, Kemper Military School, at least until the late nineties. It was in use in the Monticello Seminary for Girls (Godfrey, Ill.) in 1900.
(The "chart" was unfortunately torn from the text.)
## TABLE XVI

**CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF THE HISTORY OF THE U. STATES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A.D.</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1600</td>
<td>16: Virginia settled by the English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17: New York settled by the Dutch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18: Massachusetts settled by English Puritans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20: New Jersey settled by the Dutch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21: Delaware settled by Swedes and Finns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22: Maine settled by English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23: Maryland settled by Irish Catholics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17th</td>
<td>35: Connecticut settled by English Puritans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36: Rhode Island settled by English under Roger Williams.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>37: Confederation of the Colonies of New England for mutual defense.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>42: North Carolina settled by the English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>43: New York surrendered by the Dutch to the English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>44: The Colonies of Connecticut and New Haven united.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>45: South Carolina settled by the English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46: Pennsylvania settled by English Quakers under William Penn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47: The Colonies of Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay united.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18th</td>
<td>55: Georgia settled by the English under General Oglethorpe.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>57: The Revolutionary War begins: Peace restored in 1783.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>58: Declaration of the INDEPENDENCE of the United States.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>60: George Washington, 1st President of the U. States.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>61: Vermont admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>62: Kentucky admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>63: Tennessee admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>64: South Carolina admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>65: North Carolina admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>66: Virginia admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>67: Maryland admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>68: South Carolina admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>69: North Carolina admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>70: Virginia admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>71: South Carolina admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>72: Georgia admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>73: Delaware admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>74: New Jersey admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>75: New York admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>76: Massachusetts admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>77: Connecticut admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>78: Rhode Island admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>79: New Hampshire admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>80: Pennsylvania admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>81: Maryland admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>82: Delaware admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>83: New Jersey admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>84: South Carolina admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>85: Georgia admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>86: North Carolina admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>87: Virginia admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>88: South Carolina admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>89: Georgia admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>90: New Hampshire admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>91: Vermont admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>92: Kentucky admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>93: Tennessee admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>94: South Carolina admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>95: Georgia admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>96: New Hampshire admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>97: South Carolina admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>98: Georgia admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>99: New Hampshire admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100: South Carolina admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>101: Georgia admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>102: New Hampshire admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>103: South Carolina admitted into the Union as a State.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* This table copied from Worcester's Ancient and Modern History, p. 351.

** The practice of grouping under administrations will be noticed.
Charts and Tables, than by the perusal of volumes, independently of such aid; and, what is of great importance, the information thus obtained will be so impressed on the mind, as to be much more durable than if acquired by any other method."

The sixty-five pages of closely printed questions, at the close of the book, could have left no doubt in the teacher’s mind as to what facts were to be imprinted upon the youthful memory.

Summary. From these three representatives, of the few American history texts which were in use during this period, the conclusion has been reached that the method as influenced by texts must have been one of memorization by pages of events and dates. The information in the text was not considered the important part. Its help in understanding the classics and the social advantage which would result from the declamation of its passages were outcomes which the teacher was supposed to produce.

Second Period, 1861-1892

Swinton was very proud of his new method of "Topical Reviews" and asked the teacher to "examine the one on page 22." The first two items read,

"In 1492 Columbus discovered the West Indies. In 1494 (or 1497) the Cabots discovered North America at Cape Breton."

The questions on these topics were,—

"Give the date and fact of Columbus's discovery.
Give the date and fact of the Cabot's discovery."

Similar questions filled six pages of review on a chapter twenty-one pages long. This chapter had already had ninety-two questions asked about it in the foot-note question method which Swinton was one of the first to use. This method consisted of placing the numbered question at the bottom of the page on which was found the like numbered paragraph containing the answer which the author wished given. In explanation of his departure from the old memoriter system Swinton said, "Constructed for definite results in recitation and containing a new method of topical reviews."

Anderson, without realizing that his idea was one of correlation, which was to be an active issue fifty years later, strongly emphasized the importance of place location. He said, "A knowledge of history can never be acquired so as to make the acquisition permanent and useful unless at the same time, the geography of the narrative is well understood." The time location was considered of like weight. The teacher was warned against requiring the pupils to

learn dates unassociated with the narrative or employing "any system of mnemonics which requires the use of facts or statements not belonging to the history." In order that there should be no doubt as to which dates the pupils should memorise, a complete Chronological Recapitulation followed each brief section. Complete and detailed questions were given at the bottom of the page, each with a number corresponding to the number of the paragraph above in which the answer was found. This same scheme was followed in the many pages of test questions given at the close of the book. Finally Anderson said, "The author would suggest to his fellow teachers, that this book may be used just as it is written."

The same desire for facts and dates and the evident feeling on the part of the author that no originality nor initiative should be expected nor allowed on the part of the teacher was evidenced by a similar arrangement of subject matter by Scott. A few questions, chosen at random will illustrate this tendency.

"9. Who ascended the St. Lawrence in 1608? What post did he establish? What year was this? What noticeable thing did Champlain do in 1609?" (11)

The inimitable Quaekenbos, whose texts were the accepted ones from the Atlantic to the Pacific from the

II. Scott, David B., A School History of the United States, p. 22.
middle to the close of the nineteenth century, seems to have been one of the first to realize the importance of interesting his youthful readers. He said, in the preface to his 1857 edition and repeated verbatim in the editions of 1872 and 1884 that his great effort was to interest his readers and trusted "that the volume now offered to the young may be the means of inspiring them with a taste for general historical reading." This certainly was a commendable ambition, but let us note some of the passages and see if our taste for historical reading would have been stimulated by them. Dates and numbers seem to have been of paramount importance.

"For two hours the battle raged furiously. At last the British were driven from the field, with the loss of their artillery and baggage. A few hours after, a detachment which had been sent to the aid of Baum, shared the same fate. In these engagements, the British had 207 killed, and about 600 taken prisoners; the American loss amounted to 200 in killed and wounded. Four brass cannon and ammunition wagons, 900 swords, and 1,000 stands of arms were secured by the victors."(13)

"The Mexican loss at Cerro Gordo was 1,000 men in killed and wounded, 3,000 prisoners (including five generals), and 43 pieces of artillery. The total loss on the part of the Americans was 431."(14)

The many questions which were found at the bottom of

each page and which were answered in the statements just above were equally numerical in character.

"Ques. 318. What movement was made by the British, September 16th, 1776? Whither had the main body of the American army retreated? How was their rear-guard saved? What took place on the morning of September 16th? What was the loss on both sides?"

In regard to the siege of Yorktown,

"Ques. 402. "When did the surrender take place? What loss was sustained on each side during the siege? How many Americans and French took part in the siege?"

Occasionally a question which would seem inconsequential and amusing to the present day reader, but which was doubtless propounded in all seriousness by the teacher of the past decade, relieved the tedium of the "when, where, how many" triumvirate. For instance, among the questions concerning Scott's invasion of Mexico was found,

"What became of Santa Anna? What was done with his wooden leg?"

This was followed by the ever-to-be-expected question which came like a refrain, "What was the loss on each side?" 15

We can well imagine that final question being the nemesis of many a youthful pursuer of knowledge. It may

partly account for the few who have kept this textbook of the many who studied it or, more accurately speaking, memorized it.\textsuperscript{16}

After making a study of the two texts, the one published in 1872, the other in 1884, which differed only in the number of pages added to cover the additional years, the writer of this paper decided that Mr. Quackenbos fell far short of his worthy ambition to have his text act as a stimulant for further historical reading. This same desire seemed to be more or less of an elusive objective sought by most of the historical writers from this time on.

Mary Sheldon-Barnes presented an entirely different method of teaching history. She gave a mass of source material and inserted in the midst of it "such questions and problems as the historian or citizen must always be asking himself." She went to the opposite extreme and left most of the initiative to the teacher.

"Have the fresh mind of the pupil come into the closest possible sympathy with the thought and feeling of the time by giving him types from the sources as songs of the Civil War, letters of former slaves, etc."\textsuperscript{(17)}

\textsuperscript{16} The writer found this the most difficult text to obtain. No one seemed to have kept it. More than a year was spent in an effort to locate a copy in a private or public library, in an attic or second hand bookshop. Finally two copies, of different dates, were procured as the result of advertising in an eastern collector's magazine.

\textsuperscript{17} Sheldon-Barnes, Mary, and Barnes, Earl, \textit{Sheldon's American History}, Preface.
The slave letters were invariably pathetic and sympathy stirring but the author offset this apparent slur at the south by pictures of slave quarters which were so prosperous looking that they would do credit to an industrial town of today. The homes of the slaves and the scenes of their every day life were so festive in appearance that the school child must have been torn between hatred of the south for their ill treatment of the letter-writing-slave and envy of the little pictured negro and his "mammy and pappy" for the care-free good times they were having. It would have taken a most unusual teacher to have made a coherent whole from the many fragments of this author's texts and to have determined which of the illustrations were typical and which represented an isolated case.

Philip Van Ness Myers, the "old standby" from 1887 to, at least, 1925, recognized the advisability of having the teacher go beyond the text.

"My effort has been to lodge germs in the mind, not to transplant into it fully developed ideas. Consequently, while the text is designed for memorizing by the pupil, it is also adapted to being made the basis of easy amplification by illustration and comment on the part of the teacher."(18)

The "memorizing" method was not mentioned in the two later

editions of Myers texts, 1906 and 1920. Instead, this quotation was given, "Historical facts should not be a burden to the memory but an illumination of the soul." The shifting emphasis from events to movements was likewise shown in this introductory statement, "The real history of the human race is the history of tendencies which are perceived by the mind, and not of events which are discovered by the senses."

Eggleston had a history far beyond his time. He tried, "to make a genuine history instead of certain well worn fables which have served more than one generation of American school children." He aimed at correctness and clearness. His text was topical, not epochal, thus showing cause and effect. He gave great attention to the domestic and social life of the people. He considered the modes of attack and defense in war rather than the succession of events; the progress of civilization marked by inventions and change in modes of living. He made an effort to apply the Pestalozzian principle of teaching through the eye by illustrating his text with many artistic drawings and a system of picture maps. These illustrations were made under the author's supervision and were meant to be essential

   Myers, Philip Van Ness, Mediaeval and Modern History, Preface.
aids to the pupil rather than mere decorations. The object of most of these pictures was to suggest to the pupil a vivid conception of the narrative although some of the pictures conveyed information additional to that in the text.  He was the first to use marginal titles, thus making means of reference easier.

The California history had "this text only" method. The stress of the political was particularly noticeable. The strict study of the narrative was augmented by skeleton outlines and blank forms of review. Examples of the type of outlines and review forms used are shown below.

"Outline of Paragraph 167. - Colonial governments divided into three classes; charter - people electing governor; proprietary - owner appointing governor; royal - king appointing governor. At first, charter government, three colonies; proprietary, eight; royal, one; changed to charter, two; proprietary, three, royal, seven. In all colonies, people elect legislature, with power of taxation."

"Outline other paragraphs in a similar way."(22)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&quot;REVIEWS&quot;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Reasons for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protective Tariff, 1828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. What section</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What statesmen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Opposed by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. What section</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. What statesmen</td>
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<td>Democratic</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Origin</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Principles</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Leaders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Republican</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Origin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Principles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Leaders</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

21. This idea of visual edu. has been gaining favor each yr.
23. Ibid., p. 245.
The teacher with strict discipline as to brevity and form and possessing a political turn of mind would have been the most successful with this text.

Summarizing the second period,—a trend was seen toward having the text taught more directly by the memorizing of factual answers or questions instead of indirectly by committing pages. The informational value of historical events was stressed. Dates had lost none of their importance but the habit of grouping events more closely about them was practiced. The beginning of the effort to make the books interesting through illustrations and a less laborious recital was shown. Although the mental discipline idea was not directly spoken of, yet the memorization requirement of many facts devoid of interest and practical use, indicated the belief that this difficult performance would ultimately prove of worth.

Third Period, 1893-1916

Fiske showed progressive ideas in method.

"In the teaching of history the pupil's mind should not be treated as a mere lifeless receptacle for facts; the main thing is to arouse interest and stimulate his faculties to healthful exercise."(24)

Contrary to the generally accepted chronological method,

24. Fiske, John, A History of the United States. To the Teacher, XIX, XXI.
he maintained that the best grouping was that which brought out "the true relation of cause and effect." Concerning memorizing, "It is desirable to have at command the more important facts of history but the most precious things may be missed by one who is chiefly employed in memorizing it."

Montgomery adhered to the one-text type of instruction as advocated by the California Board of Education. This book had more facts to be learned and a more extensive system of outlines to be worked out than found in the text of Fiske. Explanatory foot notes gave definiteness to the instruction. Memory of many dates was insisted upon. Those not to be committed were enclosed in brackets. No choice of what to do, nor what to leave undone, was left to the teacher.25

MoMaster, like Eggleston, was ahead of his time. With the publication of his "History of the People of the United States" in 1883, and continuing and developing in later publications, a new spirit was shown to be gradually making its way into the study and interpretation of American history. A feeling that the study of economic development was equally as important as the consideration of political and military events was gaining favor as

Hart gave five suggestions for a simple system of study and teaching. A condensed account of these follows: (1) The textbook should be carefully read and studied by the pupils, so that they may have a sense of the movement and proportion of the history of their country and may know a body of useful facts. (2) Class exercises must be based upon the textbook with such methods of question, "quizz," "fluencts," "cards," and the like as the teacher may feel inclined to use. (3) Reading outside the textbook is requisite for any good course in history. The reading references are intended to serve both teacher and pupil. (4) Written work should be done, such as essays, reports, judgment questions, or written recitations. (5) Geography and map work, both oral and written, are important.

Mace wrote the most readable history text of the early twentieth century. His style was simple and direct. He avoided strange words and involved sentences. The illustrations were adequate and attractive. Pictures in color were a new and delightful feature. There was a decided

advancement in the matter of date memorization. The greater number were not even to be called for in recitation, simply to be observed by the pupil. Study questions were given, but these were not to take the place of the teacher's original questions, only to be used as supplementary assignments. Much collateral reading was suggested.

The continuity of the narrative was not broken by the insertion of outlines and questions. In the appendix were placed the study questions and collateral reading suggestions, the latter grouped under the headings,—History, Sources, and Fiction. The questions showed a marked progress towards thought stimulation. A few will illustrate this tendency.

"(27-38.) 1. Prove that Raleigh's work was not without results. 2. State the purposes of the Company, the king, and the settlers in planting Jamestown. What conclusions can you draw? 3. What contradiction in the charter? 4-7. Why did not the first manufactures pay as well as the raising of tobacco? 8. Explain the effect of raising tobacco on (a) population, (b) occupations, (c) classes of laborers."(28)

Summarizing—the third period showed a rebellion against the study of history for its informational value. The disciplinary importance which had been suggested in the second period had an increasing emphasis until the

late nineties. A new spirit was shown at this time and
the more progressive authors advocated the study of eco-
nomic development rather than the memorizing of political
and military events. Many methods of procedure were being
suggested and the teachers were evidently expected not
only to teach something of worth but also to arouse an in-
terest in books other than the text.

Fourth Period, 1917-1932

Thirteen years after his "Essentials in American His-
tory" Hart published another history in order "to give up-
per grades a book embodying a broadly national point of
view and stressing topics which have been too little
stressed."29 These topics included the European back-
ground, the various sections of our country and the social
and industrial conditions of the colonies and the later
United States. Wars were treated as intense experiences of
the American people. Military and naval movements were
subordinated to the effects, on the people, of raising
armies and carrying on struggles. About one-third of the
book was given to making boys and girls understand politi-
cal problems which they were likely to have to face.
Helpful suggestions to the teachers included a list of
essay subjects to be used to connect work in English with

29. Hart, Albert Bushnell, School History of the United
States, Introduction.
that in history.  

Each chapter was concluded by an extensive list of references bearing on topics in the text. Sources were cited, illustrative fiction was suggested and famous pictures were mentioned. Instead of the usual factual questions, topics answerable from the references in the chapter were given as:

(1) Objections to the "Kitchen Cabinet." (S. 216)
(2) Instances of removals of officials by Jackson. (S. 216)
(3) Career of Nicholas Biddle. (S. 217)

After the chapter had been thoroughly covered by these, which we might call minimal requirement questions, a second group was given labeled, "Topics for Further Search." These were somewhat more difficult than the first group.

(14) Why were the qualifications for voters made easier? (S. 214). (15) Why were judges elected instead of appointed? (S. 214) — — — (16) Give contemporary accounts of Webster's ideas on the Constitution. (S. 220) (31)

There now seemed to be a decided emphasis on the

30. This was the first movement, made by a history text writer, for correlation of history with any subject other than Geography.

31. Hart, School History of the United States, Sec. 214-220.
"human activities" side of history. The important place that the United States occupied among the great nations was attributed to the achievements of men and women in political, industrial, social, educational, and religious fields. Farrand said,

"When the traditional, or conventional, point of view is once departed from the most conspicuous, as well as the most significant feature of American history becomes the expansion of a few thousand colonists, scattered along the Atlantic coast in the early seventeenth century, into a population of over one hundred millions occupying the whole central portion of the North American continent." (32)

The new history attempted to explain how these people had developed distinctive traits and institutions and had become known as Americans. A spirit of internationalism was fostered which contrasted sharply with the national propaganda which had been filling the American history texts up to this time.

Gordy took great pains to organize the events in logical groups, or unities. He also preserved the chronological sequence in a large measure. He gave the two outstanding purposes of his book as,

(1) To help the boys and girls of our schools to discover America as it is today, and (2) To

develop in the pupil a spirit of co-operation with others in patriotic service. (33)

He gave particular prominence to the "westward movement" because he regarded it as the most powerful force in American life, the force which had modified our economic and political life and made the American type of character distinctive and unique. Many suggestions were made for both student and teacher, in order to make history "dynamic and vital in the classroom." A great effort was made to have the pupil interpret the facts of the text in terms of his own life and experience. At the close of each chapter, questions, suggestions, problems, or projects were given for this purpose. Much collateral reading was urged.

A few of the suggestions and problems for the pupil will illustrate the author's plan of provoking thought and connecting past history with present experiences of the pupil.

"1. Trace on your map the advance of Western settlement and note the causes helping to bring about the marvellous expansion.
2. How did increasing population and immigration cause westward growth?
3. Discuss the reservation system and why it has failed. Imagine yourself an Indian chief and tell your objections to it.
4. Resolved, That an Indian state should have been established. Debate this question.

5. Why is there opposition to the coming of Chinese and Japanese immigrants to the United States? What is your attitude on this question?"(24)

Beard criticized the course of instruction being given in American History, because of its repetition. He said that the same subject matter was being given to the child at three different periods, first, in the primary grades, a condensed narrative, with emphasis on biographies and anecdotes, next, in the seventh and eighth grades, an advanced text which was "generally speaking, an expansion of the elementary book by the addition of forty or fifty thousand words," and finally, in the high school, fuller accounts of the same events and characters were given. He said that this repetition was made necessary by the belief that "Children retain little as they pass along the route," as evidently it has been assumed that children do not obtain permanent possessions from their study of history in the grade schools. He concluded with, "If mathematicians followed the same method, high school texts on algebra and geometry would include the multiplication table and fractions."35 This certainly was a challenge to history text writers and to existing methods of historical instruction. In this text Beard omitted "time

honored" stories of exploration, biographies, and all
descriptions of battles. He made a distinctly topical,
not a narrative, history. One which would be of "real
help to boys and girls on the threshold of life's serious
responsibilities."36

Just seven years later Beard came out with an enlarged
and revised edition of this same history. In this he
showed more than before his preference for the one cycle
treatment of historical matter. It was interesting to
note the small amount of space which was given in the pre­
face of this later edition to defend this method of pre­
sentation as opposed to the four pages required in the
previous one. He said, "It is no longer necessary to re­
peat the argument for this type of textbook. The former
opposition to it has almost disappeared."37

Mussey also aimed "not to tell over once more the
old story in the old way," but to give emphasis to those
factors in our national development which seemed most vital
from the standpoint of the present. 38 His contribution to
the new history was, like Beard's, one of omissions. His
special features were, (1) the full discussion of the

37. Beard, Charles A., and Beard, Mary R., History of
the United States (1930), Preface.
38. Mussey, David Saville, An American History, 1925
dition, Preface.
federal power in connection with the Constitution, (2) the recognition of the influence of economic factors on our sectional rivalries and political theories, and the extensive consideration of our country since the Civil War and Reconstruction. 39

A consideration of Muzzey's plan of review, which was typical of the later histories, showed the great amount of progress which had been made in the method of thought stimulation. At the close of each chapter Muzzey gave a long list of references. This was followed by topics for special reports, each topic with its list of references.


Then came the review questions, each one a challenge to the thinking ability of the pupil.

"Questions for Review
1. Outline the political career of Roosevelt up to the time he became president.
2. Why did Wall Street prefer Hanna to Roosevelt in 1904?

40. Ibid., p. 558.
3. What clause in the Constitution gives Congress the power to regulate railroads?
4. Why was the Northern Securities case important?
5. Why did the public sympathize largely with the miners in the coal strike of 1902?
6. What measures made Roosevelt popular in his first administration? ...(41)

At the close of the book was a topical analysis of the text. The topics were given alphabetically, each followed by the number of the page or pages upon which the matter had been discussed. A list of a few of these topics will show the type of material which was considered.

Agriculture:
Arts and Inventions:
Civil Service Reform:
Currency and Finance:
Democracy, Development of:
Disunion, Threats of:
Education:
Foreign Relations: 42

Summarizing—the texts of the fourth period were seen to have less formal suggestions to teachers but the references, questions, research topics, etc. were filled with ideas which the teacher was no doubt expected to follow. The adequate presentation and development of the large movements about which the material was grouped would require a teacher with extensive and intensive content-knowledge and a well-trained professional skill.

41. Muzzey, David Saville, op. cit., p. 559. Compare this topical review with one given by Swinton, p. 106.
42. Ibid., p. 714.
It was shown that the sociological values were the ones to be stressed, especially the activities of the present as lived by the ordinary man and woman.

Summary of Method, as Influenced by Text, 1826-1932

A summary of the method of teaching as influenced by texts from 1826 to 1932 showed a trend toward a more scientific procedure. (1) There was a progression from a no-method plan of memorization of pages to a definite method of instruction which resulted in the understanding of vast movements. (2) A progression from the plan of having the teacher stay within the book and follow the explicit directions of the author to expecting him to be equipped with extensive professional knowledge and skill obtained from outside sources. (3) A progression from no helps in the texts to many, such as references of various kinds, review plans, correlated readings, illustrations, etc.
Method—as Influenced by Educational Writers in Books and Periodicals

It was found that the term "method" was defined in a great variety of ways but a general agreement as to the meaning was shown. Dewey said, "Method is a statement of the way the subject matter of an experience develops most effectively and fruitfully."43 Chapman and Counts gave as their definition, "Method is nothing more than a form of procedure; it is the manner in which the individual uses the material at his disposal to produce or attain some end."44 Kelty said, "Method is merely a technique, an ordered way of doing."45

First Period, 1826-1860

There was little said of method, outside of textbooks, in the early nineteenth century. The authors of the history texts gave explicit directions for their use and no one seemed to concern himself further about the matter. These authors were either professional writers of many kinds of school books, ranging from blue-back spellers to dictionaries, ministers of the gospel, or, as in the case

43. Dewey, John, Democracy and Education, p. 211.
of Weems, a peddler. Their method or lack of method, as explained in the first part of this chapter, was one largely of memorization. Dr. Webster, in the reminiscences of his school days, spoke of the "whack-back method" and Henry K. Oliver said he was taught according to the "no-system" of the day. Therefore it will be seen that there was little incentive for anyone, other than the author of the text, to make an attempt to elucidate the "method of procedure."

Second Period, 1861-1892

Beginning of Interest in Method

The second period saw the commencing of more purposeful teaching. The awakening of national consciousness at the time of the Civil War laid the foundation for the realization that history meant more than pages to be memorized and facts to be crammed. The teachers had been trained in a school of rote learning and knew nothing but the "from page to page" method so it was some time before these budding ideas produced any fruitful practice. Reissner in writing concerning the teaching procedure of the early eighties said,

46. Webster, Noah, "Schools as They Were Sixty Years Ago," Barnard's American Journal of Education, 26: 197.
"Lessons in history were assigned page by page and the recitation consisted of a topical recitation upon the assignment of or answers to mechanical questions upon the text, the teacher acting as impartial umpire between the pupils and the textbook which lay open before her."(48)

In 1880, two small books on method were published. One was intended as an aid to teachers and pupils in the method of teaching and studying by topics.

"The Topic Method of instruction is fast coming into general use. The old rote plan is dying out. The textbook which is made up of questions and answers, and the teacher who merely asks these questions and expects the pupils to answer them is passing."(49)

The other publication was an extensive chronology designed to fix on the memory specific dates and events.50

In 1883, Heath's Pedagogical Library issued several volumes which did much to arouse interest in methods of teaching history. The first volume was prefaced with:

"Our aim has been to show how to give life and reality to history - - - - I mean the culture of the imagination, the quickening of the sympathies, the elevation of the moral nature, the forming of mental habits of observation, comparison and reflection, and finally an increased interest in history and general literature."(51)

49. Lindi, G. Dallas, Normal Outlines of the Common School Branches, Introduction.
51. Hall, G. Stanley, Editor, Methods of Teaching History. Preface.
Through all of these volumes, there could be seen an endeavor to put life and action into the prevailing methods which were spoken of as "a mere bundle of dry bones."  

About ten years later, Mary Sheldon Barnes made an innovation in history texts and teaching. She published a manual which was to be used in conjunction with her American History published the previous year. In this manual she said,

"1. These studies deal with historic records at first hand, as the geologists deal with fossils, the botanist with plants.  
2. Use these sources not as interesting illustrations, but as a means of genuine historical study." (54)

Her method demanded of the pupil independent thought, feeling, and expression, instead of asking him to read and repeat the opinions, sentiments and words of others. Much knowledge and initiative were required of the teacher as the text was not tied together by a continuous narrative. Unity had to be achieved by a choice of topics, a chronological arrangement, and a study of the inner relations of cause and effect. Concerning this, she said,

"When you have done all of this it is not a narrative that you have, it is a drama, the

52. Adams, O. K., Methods of Teaching History, p.: 203-213.  
interaction of life in the deeds and words and passions of its various actors. This drama unfolds itself before us in never-ending play of action, whose meaning and relations we must interpret for ourselves as the drama plays along from act to act." (55)

In reviewing the second period, a lack of anything which could be dignified by the name of method was seen until some years after the Civil War. Progressive educational thoughts were advanced but they were slow of fulfillment. About 1880 the first books on a directed procedure were published. All of these advocated the topical method as opposed to the prevailing practice of the memory and question-and-answer method of instruction. In the last year of this period the source method was advocated. This was an innovation which must have been very interesting but not generally practical because of the difficulty in finding a teacher competent to carry on such a course and since sufficient first-hand information to check the sources given would be hard to obtain. 56

Third Period, 1893-1916

Improvement in Method

The beginning of committee domination brought about a marked improvement in method. The first of these com-

55. Barnes, Mary Sheldon, op. cit., Introduction.
56. The originator of this method was a history-text author and a teacher of history in Wellesley, (Mary Sheldon Barnes).
committee meetings, in Madison, Wisconsin, 1892, gave a decided impetus to the question of method. The committee reporting on history teaching recommended,

"(1) study by topics, (2) correlation with English, with ancient and modern languages, with topography and political geography, (3) extensive outside reading with as large a collection of reference books as the means of the school would allow."(57)

A survey made at this time showed that the approved method of instruction was being carried on by only a small number of schools.

"Outside Reading of topical work does not appear in more than one-fifth of the grammar schools and is imperfect in these. In high-schools and academies, in 135 cases examined, all had recitations, 69 used some kind of reference books, 26 used oral topics, 47 used written topics, 55 written lessons, 82 some kind of geographical instruction, 68 any kind of map drawing."(58)

Mary Sheldon Barnes, the first advocate of source study, published a new book on method shortly after the Madison Conference. The directions were more definite and practical than in her previous work. In the chapter on developing the historical method she said,

"(1) choose history which develops from local and contemporary needs, (2) teach that

58. Ibid., p. 186.
history from the sources, (3) train pupils to form own judgments, and to recognize these judgments as necessarily partial- - - -"(59)

Channing and Hart also considered a study of sources essential as, "The primary necessity is to know the truth."
The method of teaching which they advocated was,

"(1) training in the use of original records, through extracts from the sources, (2) training in the handling of secondary works, by the use of several parallel textbooks which are to be compared with standard authors, (3) practice in writing of contemporary events, thus giving experience in recording what one hears or sees."(60)

They said that the function of the teacher was not to enforce study but to arrange and organize material outside of the textbook and to apply it where it would enlarge the text and stimulate the pupils.61

Five years after the Madison Conference the Committee of Seven reported that there seemed to be some improvement in history teaching and that some agreement existed among teachers as to a method of procedure.62

About the same time Mace, in his book on methods, said.

69. Barnes, Mary Sheldon, Studies in Historical Method.
61. Ibid., p. 22.
"History in its organized or scientific form is an ideal toward which all work in the subject ought to be directed. — — — History should not be considered as a 'record' that leads to assigning lessons by paragraphs or pages." (63)

De Garmo held that the universal law of all correct instruction was that the general must be preceded by the particular.

"To develop true general notions concerning political or social or ethical affairs is far more difficult than to do so in the realms of mathematics and the physical universe."

The necessary stages of rational methods were given,

"1. Apperception of individual notions.  
2. Preparation  
3. Presentation  
4. Law of successive clearness  
5. The series." (64)

Dewey, in writing concerning the educational situation at this time, spoke of the great changes which had come about, the old methods and standards which had been crowded out by new resources and instrumentalities and the number of new opportunities which existed. He said that our present difficulty was not from a lack of means but from a multiplication of means which were beyond our present power of use and administration.

63. Mace, William H., Method in History, Introduction  
64. De Garmo, Charles The Essentials of Method, p. 81.
"We have got away from the inherited and customary; we have not come into complete possession and command of the present. Unification, organization, harmony. It proves how integrally the school is bound up with the entire movement of modern life." (65)

Dewey considered there was a great waste in education from the standpoint of the child as he could not utilize what he got in school outside of school or what he got outside of school in school. He said that method should be directed toward utilizing the child's activities and relating the school to life. 66

Cubberly agreed with Dewey that "school should be life not a preparation for living", and that the changes in the conception of the school had made a scientific method of instruction imperative. 67

Mace, one of our most widely read history-manual writers at this time urged the connecting of historical events and conditions with life as the pupil knew it, thus making history a more practical subject. 68

McMurry likewise was an advocate of presenting history in such a way as to meet the needs of the children in adjusting them to life. His "don'ts" for teachers were much read, some of his critics said they were better than

his "do's." These "don'ts" follow as they were typical of the prevailing trend.

"Exclude, (1) anything like a full chronology. 2. a brief systematic survey of the whole world 3. genealogies 4. periods of no value to young children 5. the extensive study of wars and military campaigns 6. generalised philosophical statements 7. contemporary history."(69)

Hinsdale believed in the importance of teaching facts and insuring the remembrance of them by a definite plan of arrangement.

"The main thing the teacher in primary school has to do is to teach facts and so largely in secondary school. - - - Historical facts should be grouped or organized. 1. Time or chronological relation. 2. Place or geographical relation. 3. Cause and effect, or causal relation."70

Bourne gave an excellent plan for work which must have been of great help to the teachers in this period.

"Have work of whole term outlined in advance. Have questions on total amount of supplementary reading, it's character and the detailed references. Take into account the written work, tests, cultivation of certain kinds of ability in pupils, possibly the number of attempts at study of original sources. Have class room reflect historical idea by books and pictures (each with some definite work to do). Use maps, prints, excursions; correlation with other studies; and

70. Hinsdale, B. A., How to Study and Teach History.
topics, (difficult if history not so construct-
ed). Be able to select facts, organize and in-
terpret them, so they will be worth while."(71)

In 1909 De Garmo published his epic making work on Principles of Education. In the volume on Processes of Instruction he gave insight and efficiency as the two supreme results to be secured by the best methods of instruction.

"To gain insight the student must be incit-
ed to think; to gain efficiency he must be stimu-
lated to do. His practice must be saturated
with thought; his thought made rich and concrete
by his practice."(72)

De Garmo was a strong advocate of the heuristic method as he believed that a student should be placed in the atti-
tude of a discoverer and set to finding out things for himself.

"It is fitting that we require the discovery
of cause and effect and of law by original think-
ing, at least in some cases rather than to give
them by authority, whether this authority be re-
enforced by efforts at verification on the part
of the student or not."(73)

The Herbartians, whose educational theory was popu-
larised by De Garmo, exerted a great influence upon the

73. Ibid., pp. 178-179.
technique of teaching through their insistence upon the
central position of meanings in the learning process.
They made an attack upon the prevalent system of studying a
book page by page with any fact as important as another.
Reisner, in speaking of the Herbartian psychology and
character building and the system of "Learning as Think-
ing", said,

"Subject-matter of instruction should con­
sist of 'methodical unities', as thought units;
or units of instruction. A lesson should not
consist of 'from page 90 to page 96' but 'To­
morrow we shall try to find out what conditions
of American life from 1783 to 1789 led to the
adoption of a stronger frame of government than
the Articles of the Confederation." (74)

As the result of the constructive criticism of the edu­
cators quoted, and many others, new plans in methodology
were beginning to develop and be experimented with at the
close of this period. The most important of these were
the problem and project method and the laboratory plan.
The latter was worked out during this period but not tried
as a whole until after the World War. Helen Parkhurst
said, regarding this laboratory plan (it was later called
the Dalton plan),

"From its inception, the laboratory plan,
as I continued to call it even after perfecting
it in 1915, aimed at the entire reorganization
of school life. My idea was to substitute for

74. Reisner, Edward H. The Evolution of the Common
Schools, p. 470.
the top-heavy machinery actually in use a simple reconstruction of school procedure under which the pupils would enjoy more freedom as well as an environment better adapted to the different sections of their studies in which each instructor should be a specialist. Above all I wanted to equalize the pupil’s individual difficulties and to provide the same opportunity for advancement to the slow as to the bright child. By 1913 we had worked out the laboratory plan so as to partially eliminate the time table, but it was not until 1915 that we were able to get rid of it entirely. In 1915 we began by organizing the pupils into groups with a free choice of laboratories. That was in itself a great innovation, though they were still obliged to remain in isolated groups. It took me two years more to work out the full interaction of groups upon each other.”(76)

The experiments with this plan ceased in 1915, as Helen Parkhurst went to Italy to study the new Montessori method which was being talked of at that time. She assisted Dr. Montessori in carrying out this plan of instruction in California for a few years and did not return to her own experimenting until 1919, which will be discussed in the next part of this chapter.

In spite of the many fine books on educational problems published during this period history teaching seemed to have lagged far behind the progress of the times.

After the report of the Committee of Five on the unsatisfactory conditions of history instruction there seemed to be a great number of constructive criticisms and sug-

gestive methods of improvement published. McMurry gave and
discussed the various points of controversy in the method
of teaching and showed the gulf between theory and prac-
tice.

"Schoolmastering is a fine art and the
approach to it should be through scientific
method. Scientific method should be the demon­
stration of the complete union between theory
and practice."(76)

Hill said that the failure in the history courses
was due chiefly to two factors, texts and teachers. He
said that they tried to cover too much space and have too
many topics. He suggested type studies as a remedy.

"Select a few important appropriate topics
having interpretive value, expand these types by
comparison in such a way as to give meaning and
organization to the whole field of study."(77)

Professor Robinson, in making his report on the condition
of the social studies in secondary education, said,

"One of our chief troubles in teaching his­
tory comes from the old idea that history is a
record of past events; whereas our real purpose
nowadays is to present past conditions, explain
them so far as we can and compare them with our
own."

In speaking of the teacher difficulty he said,—

76. McMurry, Charles A., Conflicting Principles in Teach­
ing, pp. 247-248.
77. Hill, Howard O., "The Teaching of History by Type
"As for the teacher, no satisfactory results may be obtained until he learns to outrun the textbook and becomes really familiar, through reading or university instruction, with the institutions he proposes to deal with. Teachers should learn to deal with their subject topically, and should not be contented with reading historical manuals, which are usually poor places to go for information in regard to conditions and institutions." (78)

A review of the third period, 1893-1916, showed a progressive theory, helpful methods of procedure, and constructive criticisms of existing conditions, but the reports on the prevailing practices proved that the ideal was far from realized. The topical method was being more emphatically stressed but there was evidence it was not generally used. The source method was enlarged upon and strengthened by the addition of correlated references. The habit of assigning lessons by paragraphs or pages was discouraged. The principle of working from the known to the unknown or from the particular to the general was suggested. The heuristic method of study was advised for certain problems. These efforts on the part of educators showed a trend toward a more systematic method of instruction, and a desire to make of history a pleasing, practical subject in the learning of which a student could live his experiences instead of memorizing them.

78. Report of Committee on Social Studies, pp. 42, 43.
Fourth Period, 1917-1932

Scientific Procedure in Method

After the entrance of the United States into the World War there was an increased tendency to use history as an instrument to train pupils in citizenship. This tendency was similar to the one shown at the time of our Civil War and was evidence of the public opinion that history might be of real help when our government institutions were threatened or when some crisis caused thinking citizens to inquire into a prevention of the recurrence of the danger. That history had an important part to play in the changing social conditions was generally conceded. Some authorities were trying to make it a part of a social-science group; others wished it to remain a separate subject. 79 Since this was an era of efficiency, the question of what was the best method to use in order to produce the most effective results was of increasing concern. Many plans were being thought of and experimented with prior to the Great War. These were given definite encouragement after the conflict while the people's minds were filled with the danger through which they had passed and which they thought could best be averted by a proper education of future citizens.

The idea of turning the school into a laboratory of

79. Harold Rugg was one of the great advocates of a fusion course. Judd disapproved of the plan.
life's experiences had been growing since the educational philosophy of Dewey had suggested that history must be lived in order to be understood. The most thoroughly worked out of these ideas, built on the philosophy of Dewey, became a reality during the early years of this fourth period. The early experiments with it were discussed on pages 139-140 of this chapter but the plan was not given a real trial until it was introduced into the Dalton, Massachusetts, High School in 1919.

The originator of this plan explained it in the following manner,

"Briefly summarized, the aim of the Dalton Plan is a synthetic aim. It suggests a simple and economic way by means of which the school as a whole can function as a community. The conditions under which the pupils live and work are the chief factors of their environment, and a favourable environment is one which provides opportunities for spiritual as well as mental growth. It is the social experience accompanying the tasks, not the tasks themselves, which stimulates and furthers both these kinds of growth. Thus the Dalton Plan lays emphasis upon the importance of the child's living while he does his work and the manner in which he acts as a member of society, rather than upon the subjects of his curriculum. It is the sum total of these twin experiences which determines his character and his knowledge."

schools of this country. An English teacher, Miss Belle Bennie, visited the Dalton High-school and was so impressed with the progressive educational plan that she carried the idea back to England with her. That it was enthusiastically received by the children and parents is shown by a letter written to the Evening Post which says,

"The Dalton Plan is a decided novelty. Its adoption in England before we New Yorkers even heard about it shows how much more popular is the subject of education over there than here. As a parent of two children I wish to urge a more widespread acquaintance with the methods worked out by the Dalton Plan. It diagnoses the child's dislike for his studies as not due to the studies themselves, but to the methods used in teaching them. It does not start out with the belief that the child has an innate dislike for study. - - - He is learning by trying. He is not struggling under constant direction and restraint. He is part of the real life of the world, sharing its problems, realizing the emptiness of idleness, and enjoying the rewards of industry. - - -"

Many modifications of this plan were in use, the best known of these being the Winnetka Plan. In the Winnetka plan the assignments were completely individualized. The subjects were worked out in the form of "tasks" which each pupil must perform. Each "task" or "goal" was planned in such a way that pupils received necessary directions for proceeding alone. When the goal was reached the pupil took a self-test to see if he was ready for the teacher's test.

Advancement in one subject was not conditioned upon advance in another. 82

Scores of progressive class-room teachers were experimentating on new types of material and new methods of presentation. 83 Kilpatrick in 1918 was sponsoring the project method. He said, in recommending it,

"- - - - wholehearted purposeful activity in a social situation, as the topical unit of school procedure, is the best guarantee of the utilization of the child's native capacities now too frequently wasted."(84)

He said that the equipment and children should be managed in such a way as to "enlist childhood and youth in wholehearted, purposeful activities." He warned the teacher against a too great teacher-activity. They should help children to help themselves. 85 He spoke of the "wide and narrow method" and distinguished them in this way,

"- - - - the wider problem of method has to do with all the responses children make as they work, and its concern is to help children build the total of these responses into the best possible whole. The narrow method concerns itself with how the children shall best learn this or that specific thing, generally named in advance."(86)

83. Rugg, Earle, "How the Current Courses in History Came to be What They Are," Twenty-Second Yearbook N.S.S.E., Part II, p. 52.
85. Ibid., p. 129.
The individual differences of children were becoming a matter of concern to educators. The result of this concern was shown in the junior high-school movement, which was endeavoring to fit the school to the needs of the child. The two innovations in procedure which were especially emphasized were supervised study and the methods of teaching through the project and the problem. 87

Parker gave a most helpful chapter on the benefits of supervised study. In his opening statement he said,

"The supervision of individual students who are studying silently at their desks should replace a considerable part of the time now spent on recitations and home study." 88

He gave the result of an investigation of the effect of home conditions upon the study habits of 393 children. A reference to the tables on the following page will show that the children from the less favored homes had the poorer study habits and that these children neglected their home-preparation of lessons more than those from the better class of homes. In commenting on the disturbing influences which prevented satisfactory home work, Parker said,

88. Parker, Samuel Chester, Methods of Teaching in High Schools, p. 391 (The 1922 edition is the same as 1918 edition).
TABLE XVII
FACTORS THAT DETERMINE THE HABITS OF STUDY OF GRADE PUPILS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students having:</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>habits of study of first, or best quality</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>habits of study of second quality</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>40.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>habits of study of third, or poorest quality</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 100 | 100 | 100 |

TABLE XVIII
DISCOURSIVE INFLUENCE: EVEN IN FAVORRED HOMES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distribution of students assigned home study:</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Rank</td>
<td>Second Rank</td>
<td>Third Rank</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Even when the home environments are of fairly good grade, and the students able to master the lessons unaided, the activity of

89. Parker, S. O., op. cit., p. 396.
studying must compete with many other tendencies and with distractions that result in divided attention and consequent waste of time and energy." 90

Concerning the special technique of supervising study which should be mastered by teachers, Parker said,

"a. Skill in determining the character of the progress being made by students while they are studying.

b. Skill in stimulating and aiding this progress by means of questions and suggestions without assisting too much." (91)

He gave the specific aims of history instruction and the method of accomplishing these aims as outlined by G. E. Rickard.

"The Specific Aims of History Instruction

A. To develop the pupil's ability to answer questions based on

1. Acquisition of the proper concepts of new and technical terms.

2. Mastery of the subject matter of the text.

3. Interpretation of source material.

4. Abstracting collateral reading and connecting it with the outline of the text.

B. To develop the pupil's ability to act by

1. Arranging logical outlines and abstracts of the subject matter of the text.

2. Arranging tabulations of time sequence of events and persons, grouped according to some convenient unit, as decades or centuries.

3. Drawing maps which shall more or less closely approximate some ideal which the instructor has previously analyzed into its elements.


91. Ibid., p. 391.
4. Collecting material on a given topic, organizing it logically, citing references, and preparing bibliographies."(92)

In 1923 the question of whether the social studies were living up to expectations held for them was considered of sufficient importance to be taken up by the National Society for the Study of Education, and two-thirds of their Twenty-Second Yearbook were given over to the discussion of the matter. The conclusion was reached that the social studies were not succeeding in their mission and many criticisms of their content and teaching procedure were made.

"In two particulars are the social studies in need of definite change; first in the character of the material which they set before the children, and second in the provision for first-hand participation in individual and group activities.

"Knowledge about the issues of contemporary life and how they came to be what they are could be translated into tendencies to act intelligently upon them, provided the machinery of the social studies is properly organized."(93)

McMurtry, writing in this same year, 1928, spoke, on the other hand, with great optimism of the progress in method.

92. Parker, S. C., op. cit., pp. 412-415. (From an outline made by G. E. Richland, to be used in supervised study of history.)

"The chief interest of writers at the present time is in the method to be followed in selecting subject matter, rather than the subject matter itself. This interest in procedure marks one of our greatest advances in education in recent years. For years we have been making curricula--and now we are inquiring how it ought to be done. Slow--but people have always been slow in appreciation of method. The Scientific Method was a very late discovery in the history of the race." (94)

In speaking of the points of general agreement he discussed three of the most significant.

1. The revolt against encyclopedic education.
2. The acceptance of the problem as the unit of subject matter.
3. The demand for activities or practice." 95

The proposals which were being made in regard to the method of selecting subject matter for the curricula were interesting in a study of teaching-method as they indicated the future trends of procedure. McMurry listed the current proposals under three headings.

1. Disregard for past efforts. (The first step is to cast aside the rubbish of the past.)
2. The blending of history, geography, and civics. (Some are for, some against this plan.)
3. The recognition of society as the source of values." (96)

This "recognition of society as the source of values"

95. Ibid., p. 295.
96. Ibid., p. 299.
and the place of the pupil in that society were two of the
great changes in the concepts of education during the last
forty years. These changes have had great influence upon
methods of instruction during the period under considera-
tion.

C. O. Ball, director of junior education in San
Antonio, wrote in 1929:

"Teachers of the past have thought too much
in the terms of their subjects and not enough of
the effect their teaching is going to have on
the lives of the boys and girls. The essential
thing in teaching the social studies is not the
impacting of knowledge, but development of de-
sirable attitudes toward, and understanding of,
the institutions and conditions of modern life.
Courses of study in social studies have been
based in the past upon subject matter found in
textbooks. --- This situation must be re-
versed. The child, the citizen, must be the
first consideration, the subject matter taught
must be selected because it will serve a defi-
nite purpose in producing predetermined affects
in his life. General and specific objectives
obtainable by children must be set up. Special
methods of teaching are necessary to make such a
plan successful, (1) an adequate library suited
to the varying needs of children; (2) a teaching
procedure based on a sympathetic understanding
of child needs; (3) a procedure making use of
some kind of directed study technique which will
change the child from a lesson learner to a seek-
er after knowledge and the teacher from a task-
master to a sympathetic guide and leader." (97)

Many educators were considering means of pupil par-
ticipation in history classes and were making suggestions

97. Ball, C. C., "Social Studies in the San Antonio Junior
for carrying out activity projects. A North Dakota principal in presenting such a scheme said that teachers need
to have a large number of plans for activities with which
to guide and stimulate the imagination and thinking of
the pupils.

"If history is a social study and if the
social studies are to train for living in real-
life situations the pupil must be more than a
passive hearer and repeater of text-book phrases.
If to learn is 'to acquire new ways of behaving'
then it is questionable whether under the teach-
er activity method of recitation learning has
not been a pretty one-sided affair."(98)

Dewey, speaking of pupil participation in his "Democ-
-racy and Education," published first in 1916 and again in
1929, said,

"Processes of instruction are unified in
the degree in which they center in the production
of good habits of thinking --- The essen-
tials of method are therefore identical with

98. Johnson, A. W., "Pupil Participation in History
the essentials of reflection. They are first
that the pupil have a genuine situation of ex-
perience—that there be a continuous activity in
which he is interested for its own sake; second-
ly, that a genuine problem develop within the
situation as a stimulus to thought; third that
he possess the information and make the observa-
tions."(100)

Everything for the good of the child seemed to have been
considered during this period. The correlating of his
various studies in order to give him a real grip on life's
perplexities was being discussed with a new energy.

The idea of correlation was not a new one but was
having an increased consideration during this period.
Mitchell, in 1861, spoke of the importance of studying
geography in order to understand history.101 In 1886
Freeman said, "Geography and Chronology have been called
the two eyes of history and assuredly without them history
would be blind work indeed."102 The principles of cor-
relation, chiefly through the influence of the Herbertians
began to be employed in the United States about 1889 and
by 1890 occupied a leading place in educational discus-
sions. De Carmo, to whom we are largely indebted for popu-
larizing the Herbartian principles, spoke of history as the
"when" and geography as the "why".103 McMurry told of the

101. Mitchell, S. Augustus, Mitchell's School Geography,
Introduction.
103. De Carmo, Charles, Principles of Secondary Education,
p. 307.
mutual advantages of studying history with geography and literature. Of the more recent writers Howard C. Hill was probably the most outstanding exponent of the correlation of history and English and Harold Rugg of the merging of history, geography and civics into a single social science course.

The ideal of correlation was attractive but there were many practical difficulties in the way of its realization. Either the whole mass of knowledge, which was considered worth while to the school course, had to be reorganized without reference to the existing artificial lines of special subjects or one subject had to be chosen as the center or core about which to group materials from other subjects. No doubt, an informal type of correlation will continue on the part of well-informed progressive teachers, until a formal scientific plan has been worked out by the various experimental processes going on now. Johnson gave an excellent definition of the term and differentiated clearly the two types.

"The correlation of school studies means a treatment in which knowledge or discipline from one subject is brought into connection with knowledge or discipline derived from other subjects. It is of two kinds; (1) the incidental

104. McMurry, Charles A., Special Method in History.
105. This was first done by Ziller, a follower of Herbart, who chose history as the core subject.
correlation which springs from a broad view of any subject and is suggested for the illumination of the subject itself, and (2) the systematic correlation which seeks in varying degrees to unify the curriculum."(106)

"Incidental correlation is correlation of the kind discussed by the Committee of Seven. Ideal conditions will prevail when teachers in one field of work are able to take advantage of what their pupils are doing in another; when the teacher of Latin or Greek will call the attention of his pupils, as they read Caesar or Xenophon, to the facts which they have learned in their history classes."(107)

"Systematic correlation not only looks to the individual teacher to take advantage in each field of what pupils are doing in other fields, but plans definitely in advance to have pupils constantly dealing in each field with material bearing upon material in other fields."(108)

The fourth period seems to have been an era of experimentation in methods.

There were many different kinds used in the teaching of history at that time. One writer classified them under ten headings,

"1. Textbook recitation, question and answer.
2. Combination of recitation and lecture, emphasis on recitation.
3. Combination of recitation and lecture, emphasis on lecture.
4. Special reports on topics previously assigned.
5. Review and drill.
6. Test.

107. Ibid., p. 389. (Quotation from Report of Committee of Seven, p. 30.)
108. Ibid., p. 391.
7. Individual recitation
8. Socialized recitation
9. Laboratory recitation
10. Project method."

After explaining and criticizing the last four methods she gave Morrison's "Unit System" as combining the best points of all. This "Unit System", or "Mastery Technique", as it was usually called, was the most discussed method of the period.

To Dr. H. C. Morrison, of the University of Chicago, goes the credit of having worked out this admirable method of procedure. In speaking of the unit in history, he said,

"It becomes, then, the task of the teacher of history to discover the significant historical movements which can most appropriately be made the teaching units at a given level of the intellectual development of the pupil. That is the problem of the historian. The teaching problem hangs upon the selection of the units, upon the critical insight which distinguishes the teaching unit from mere topical collections of incidents and masses of historical material which cannot be focussed upon any particular understanding. Both the curricular and the teaching problems should be approached from the standpoint of experimentation. A provisional unitary organization is set up, carefully criticized, and then tried out. Under experimental conditions, defects which were not a priori evident will assuredly appear."(110)

In the School Review of 1921, Morrison discussed the

mastery technique as applied to history. He said that the courses should be organized in blocks or units, each of them capable of mastery in terms of understanding or capacities of appreciation.

"In a course in modern history a certain unit is the Industrial Revolution and the objective is the understanding of the Industrial Revolution. A history unit to be understood contrasts sharply with a series of historical events to be memorized."(111)

In speaking of the evaluation of the unit he said,

"The pedagogical test of a unit, as we have seen, is that it must be a comprehensive and significant aspect of the environment, or of an organized science, capable of being understood rather than capable of being remembered."(112)

The following diagram was given as illustrative of the technique for teaching the unit.

![Diagram](image)

113. Ibid., p. 191.
Hill, in discussing the three most widely used methods of teaching, said that the tendency was increasingly toward the organization of subject matter in large units. The first method which he discussed was the daily assignment which he called the "traditional method". This was the conventional method in which the pupils were assigned lessons to prepare, usually out of the classroom, and report on them the following day. He next considered individualized instruction. He said that of the various methods of this procedure in use in different parts of the country the Dalton Plan was the best known. He described such a plan in use in a Philadelphia High School for girls. Each pupil was given an assignment sheet covering a month's work. There was both required and elective work. The latter was expected of all who desired to secure more than the minimum grade. Last he explained the mastery technique which he designated as the latest and "probably the best" of the methods. 114 (As this mastery technique or "unit plan" was considered rather fully in the preceding pages no further discussion of it will be given here.)

Kelty compared the learning of history through the day-by-day recitation to one trying to pick up a handful of loose heads, "they slip through the fingers." She said that her general technique followed principles enumerated

by Dr. Morrison, with two marked divergencies. (1) Use of minimal essentials, (2) Use of subpresentations. She gave an entire course of study in American History for the upper elementary grades, with detailed explanations for administering it.\footnote{115}

Bailey gave an illustration of a similar course for senior-high-school history. He called it "A new Approach to American History". Instead of a text, the pupils were given guide sheets with references at the end of each unit.\footnote{116}

Swindler also gave examples of a practical unit plan and the results of two class experiments, one in which the unit plan was used and one in which it was not used. He gave the guiding principles especially emphasized for social studies and showed how those principles might be given practical application.\footnote{117} Kimmel in speaking of the various unit organizations, contract methods, etc. said, "Regardless of essential differences of the different plans, all have one element in common, a more rigid selection and closer organization of subject-matter in terms of the more significant movements in history and in terms of the pupils' approach to the study of those movements. The outstanding movements of history, the prin-
...iples and motives which dominated the movements, and the effects produced on subsequent events and trends in history are the essential elements of the unit."(118)

Karl Douglass, author of what was probably the most widely used textbook in the field of secondary methods gave special emphasis to the problem and project methods. In differentiating the two he said,

"Just when a problem becomes a project it is hard to say. In the completion of projects there are usually encountered several problems, arising at various points in the procedure. Stormsrand, in a recent book, suggests that as long as a problem is solved on a strictly mental plane, or on a symbolic plane, it is yet but a problem, and that it becomes a project only when it is solved 'in the realm of the real, the material, the physical, the practical.' Thinking out how to lay out a garden is to this way of thinking but a problem, even though the plans be symbolized by drawings. When the garden is actually planted it becomes a project.

"This distinction may not be commonly accepted, but it is serviceable in that it shows the very close resemblance of problems and projects. The project is but a problem carried to actual, practical completion."(119)

He defined project teaching in the following terse manner,

"The project as used in teaching is a unit of activity carried on by the learner in a natural...

and lifelike manner, and in a spirit of purpose to accomplish a definite, attractive and seemingly attainable goal."(120)

The socialized recitation was another method advocated by Douglass. He said it would not only increase the pupil's desire for participation but would also stimulate a feeling of responsibility. He gave a thorough explanation of the advantages of this method, of the different types of socialized procedures, the values to be realized and the technique to be followed in carrying out the plans. He warned against the danger of imitating the organization and methods of other teachers and said that one must get at the underlying principles and adapt the procedure to the subject matter and the children being taught. Many suggestions were given both for the formal and informal types of socialized recitations.121

Besides the experimental work which was being done in the various methods of instruction, experiments were being carried on in other fields in an effort to diagnose pupil difficulties and plan for overcoming them. Various devices were being planned to make the acquiring of knowledge more pleasing and more lasting. Scientific tests were being prepared for use in teaching, diagnosing, and testing the effectiveness of the teaching process.

120. Douglass, Karl, op. cit., p. 325.
121. Ibid., pp. 241-294.
It was customary for the teacher to make a study of the student's ability to learn, of his previous knowledge of the subject, and of his interest in the subject before she definitely decided on the material to be included in the unit.122

The study-recitation was another example of the trend of fitting the work to the child. Experimentation had shown that the poorer student did much better work when supervised. Hence, a "directed learning process" was becoming the established custom.123 The lesson assignment was becoming a matter for careful consideration at this time. The fact that it had been under a fire of criticism was shown by the following quotation.

"In other words the 'pernicious sources of waste and lack of interest' is really the aimless, vague and otherwise ineffective assignment. Such ineffective assignments are most commonly due to four easily removable causes; namely, the teacher's failure (1) to plan the advance lesson so as to know how to assign it, (2) to allow sufficient time for the assignment in class, (3) to appreciate the necessity for explicit directions, and (4) to provide for the needs of the individual pupils when these are noticeably different from the needs of the majority."(124)

Experimenting was being done with the difficulty which children were having with word-meaning in history

123. Ibid., pp. 120-137.
124. Ibid., pp. 149-150.
courses. One writer said,

"History is in the absurd position of presenting a difficult and complicated subject in a vaguely known and half understood terminol­gy."(125)

Another writer suggested that the teacher, at the beginning of the year, should give some vocabulary and reading tests so as to anticipate and correct the troubles ahead of the pupil. He centered attention upon the many word-understanding problems which confronted the child and named several books and pamphlets which would materially aid the teacher in assisting the child to overcome these handicaps.126

Different types of historical knowledge which lent themselves more easily to the remembering and forgetting processes were being considered.127 Teaching aids and activities were being suggested.128 Means of enlisting the various learning processes were being experimented with in an effort to facilitate history instruction and

stimulate pupil interest.129, 130

The construction of scientific tests was considered by some educators to be the most forward step in the field of teaching. Krey said of this movement,

"The most immediately significant work now under way is that of the construction of tests. - - - - The task of constructing efficient tests which will actually measure the values sought and do so in the most economical fashion is a difficult one." (131)

Symonds, writing in 1927, said that some experimental work had been begun about forty years before in the elementary schools, but that it was not until after the World War that the newer methods of objective measurement were generally used in the construction of examinations on secondary and higher levels. "The movement has gained momentum since 1920 and now a sizable body of material and technique is available."132 He gave in Chapter IX a list of helpful tests to aid the teacher of the social sciences and in Chapter XXV a discussion of the use of the informal test in conjunction with the standardized test.

132. Symonds, Percival M., Measurement in Secondary Education, Ch. I.
Ruch and Rice have done much to further the advancement of scientific testing. They not only have made many experimental tests but they have encouraged others to do likewise. In a publication of 1950 they gave a collection of examinations to which they had awarded prizes in a national contest in the construction of objective and new-type examinations during the years 1927-1928. An investigation made by them of the professional training of the teachers winning prizes showed that those teachers who won had had special training in the technique of objective test construction. The significance of this finding was that objective test building is a science and that definite study and practice are essential to achieve satisfactory results.\textsuperscript{133} In a book on tests by Ruch in 1929, many excellent suggestions were given for constructing these tests; also selected complete examinations.\textsuperscript{134}

There seemed to be a tendency in this period to discuss "current trends". Zimmel listed them as,

\begin{quote}
1. A tendency to redefine and reformulate objectives for instruction.
2. The selection and organization of subject matter in terms of units or larger divisions of content materials.
3. The presentation of history courses in terms of movements, principles, and understandings rather than as events, episodes, personali-
\end{quote}

\begin{footnotesize}
134. Ruch, G. M., The Objective or New-Type Examination.
\end{footnotesize}
ties, and narratives.

4. A closer correlation between the courses in history in order to conform with current world conditions and to further amicable international relations.

5. The organization of learning exercises and activities as integral parts of instruction in history."(135)

The same year, 1929, the head of the department of social studies in a Kentucky junior high-school gave as the tendencies of the modern world,

"1. The merger idea or system.
2. Socialization of the masses.
3. Need of the adolescent child.
4. Practicability of training.
5. Science, (the age of exploration in religion, medicine, food supply, prehistoric life, work and psychology.)"(135)

In 1931 a questionnaire was sent out in an endeavor to determine what were the difficulties in history teaching. 1417 teachers from thirty-eight states and the District of Columbia replied. A variety of methods was seen to prevail with the questions and answer method heading the list. A brief summary of all the methods used either singly or in combination will illustrate the prevailing practice. (See Table XIII, next page).

1041 of the 1417 teachers, or 74.1 per cent, reported

TABLE XIX
METHODS OF TEACHING HISTORY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method used</th>
<th>Number of Teachers Using</th>
<th>Per Cent Using</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Question and answer</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>59.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Socialised</td>
<td>423</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Problem project</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Supervised study</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Lecture</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Laboratory</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Type Study</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

that students try to remember rather than understand. The author commented on this last statement,

"Probably the 840 teachers who used the question and answer method asked a type of question that called for remembering rather than understanding."

The School Review of May, 1930, gave a list of outstanding books relating to secondary education which were considered of most worth in the training of teachers. The names and rating of these books were determined by sending letters to twenty-six prominent professors requesting them to name the textbooks which they considered outstanding in each of five designated fields. The books in this list that relate to methods are given with the intention of showing the recency of publication of the most

137. Wirth, Fremont P., "Classroom Difficulties in the Teaching of History," Historical Outlook, 22: 115-117
used books and in the hope that this list may be of help either to some teacher-in-service, or to a prospective teacher, in a survey of what was being done in this field of secondary education. The names of the publishers have been omitted but may be secured by referring to the article mentioned.

"Books Dealing with Methods of Teaching in the High School"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Date of Publication</th>
<th>Times Mentioned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Douglass, Karl R.,</td>
<td>Modern Methods in High School Teaching</td>
<td>1926</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Waples, Douglas</td>
<td>Procedures in High School Teaching</td>
<td>1924</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Parker, Samuel C.,</td>
<td>Methods of Teaching in High Schools</td>
<td>1920</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Colvin, Stephen Sheldon,</td>
<td>An Introduction to High School Teaching</td>
<td>1917</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Monroe, Walter S.,</td>
<td>Directing Learning in the High School</td>
<td>1927</td>
<td>4&quot;(139)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fact that all the books mentioned except Dewey's Democracy and Education had been published since the World War lead to the conclusion that a new educational era had started since that momentous event. Dewey, by right, belonged in the new era as his philosophy had always been ahead of his time. The books most frequently mentioned in three fields, (1) principles and organization of secondary
education, (2) psychology, and (3) the junior high-school were published in 1927. Of the books dealing with methods of teaching, the 1926 publication was considered the best by the greater number, and in the philosophy of education, the 1924 text was so considered.

By arranging the books mentioned opposite the year of publication it was seen that seven of the books chosen were published in 1927, three each in the years 1920, 1924, and 1925, two each in the years 1916 and 1926, and one in each of the following years: 1917, 1918, 1921, and 1923. If one considers the opinions of these professors as representative of the general opinion of educators the books on secondary education of most use in the training of teachers have been written since the entrance of this country into the World War. Dewey's book published in 1916 and re-published again in 1929 is the only exception and as he has been a path-finder in the field of education we might surmise that he anticipated the change which our entrance into the war would precipitate.

In summarizing this fourth period, 1917-1932, one perceived an era of scientific development in all the teaching procedures. The citizenship aim of the period was seen to be having a practical response from the many branches of method. The child as an individual part of the great structure of society was the center of interest.
He was being considered in the light of, (1) his environment, (2) his learning ability, (3) his learning inclinations and (4) his future place in the society of which he was by natural inheritance an integral part. Plans and devices were being perfected for facilitating this learning and adjusting process. Scientific tests were being made for the purpose of diagnosing difficulties and checking the results of present procedures.

In summarizing the four periods in method as influenced by educational writers in books and periodicals, 1826-1932, the conclusion was reached that educational specialists in the field of history had done much to improve the method of teaching. Their criticisms, suggestions, and experimentations had changed the method of instruction from one of memorization of disconnected facts and events to the understanding of principles and movements. They had encouraged the scientific method of diagnosing pupil difficulties, devising means for overcoming these difficulties, and testing the results of the teaching process.
A study of teacher training during the periods under consideration was made in an effort to determine the trends, if any, in the requirements of the profession, the opportunities for the fulfillment of these requirements, and the extent to which the teacher was meeting the standards set for attainment.

First Period, 1826-1860

Dr. Noah Webster, one of our best known early textbook writers, wrote to Henry Barnard concerning the condition of the schools in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. He said that the teaching condition was terrible. Often ignorant or vicious men were employed. Convicts who had been exported for their crimes were purchased and used as private tutors. Anyone who could read and write could teach.¹ (Figure 4 is illustrative of the custom of the time)

The Boston schools were no better off than others, according to an early Bostonian and a contemporary of

¹. Webster, Noah, "Schools as They Were Sixty Years Ago," Barnard's American Journal of Education, 26: 197.
To Be DISPOSED of,
A Likely Servant Mans Time for 4 Years
who is very well Qualified for a clerk or to teach
a school, he Reads, Writes, Understands Arithmetick and
Accompts very well, Enquire of the Printer hereof.

Fig. 4. Advertisement for a Teacher to Let
(From the American Weekly Mercury, Philadelphia 1735)

Dr. Webster.

"The instructors were of the whack-back school, who, with the whip 'mend the gross mistakes of nature, and put life into dull matter.' There was never an attempt made on the part of the teacher to awaken a love of learning.

"Looking back upon it, under present light, I consider my training and that of my comrades, as a continuous series of blunders, a good many of them on our part and a good many more and greater, on the part of our teachers; though I ought to say they taught according to the system, or the no-system, of their day."(2)

During the first quarter of the nineteenth century the growing dissatisfaction with existing conditions developed into a determination to improve those conditions. The time between the realization of the need for teacher-preparation and the actual providing of means for this purpose was cared for, in a way, by the churches. A contemporary of this period wrote:

"- - - - this work of training has only been done by certain churches, who have honorably taken upon themselves the important duty, which should have been done by the profession, or by the country, or by the universities."(3)

The first teacher-training school in the United States

was opened privately in 1825 by the Reverend Samuel R. Hall, who conducted the school in addition to his work as a minister. Consequently, the school moved about as did its master. It was seven years in Vermont, seven in Massachusetts and three in New Hampshire. This self-appointed teacher of teachers had no professional book to guide him but relied entirely upon his experience as a teacher to tell his pupils how to organize and manage a school. In order to make his ideas clear he wrote out a series of "Lectures on Schoolkeeping," which were published in 1829. This was the first professional book in English issued in America for teachers. 4

In 1827 Governor Clinton of New York realizing the wretched condition of the schools, recommended the establishment of "a central school in each county for the education of teachers." That year the legislature appropriated the money and the first state aid school for teacher training was started. 5

According to Governor Clinton's message to the legislature there was an urgent need for teacher-training.

"In the first place, there is no provision made for the education of competent instructors. Of the eight thousand now employed in this state, too many are destitute of the requisite quali-

5. Ibid., p. 751.
fictions, and perhaps no considerable number
are able to teach beyond rudimental instruction.
- - - - Perhaps one-fourth of our population is
annually instructed in our common schools; and
ought the minds and morals of the rising, and
perhaps the destinies of all future generations,
to be entrusted to the guardianship of incompe-
tence?"(6)

The first state normal school was opened in the town
hall at Lexington, Massachusetts, July 3, 1839, with one
teacher and three students. By the close of the year
Massachusetts had established two more state normals.
Their success was largely due to the support of Horace
Mann. In speaking at the dedication of the first building
erected for normal school purposes in the United States,
1846, he expressed his belief in the importance of such an
institution.7

"I believe the Normal school to be a new
instrumentality in the advancement of the race.
I believe that without them free schools them-
selves would be shorn of their strength and their
healing power, and would at length become mere
charity-schools, and thus die out in fact and in
form. - - - - Coiled up in this institution, as
in a spring, there is a vigor whose uncoiling
may wheel the spheres."(8)

Training for teachers in service was started at the
same time as the normal schools. In 1839, Henry Barnard

6. Cubberley, Ellwood P., Readings in History of Edu-
cation, p. 627.
organized a four-to six-weeks summer course, called "Teachers' Institute," in Connecticut. By 1860 similar courses had been started in fifteen of the states. Also by this date, eleven state normal schools had been established in eight of the states and a few private schools were still engaged in this important work. The location of the normal schools and the date of the first introduction of the teachers' institute into the various states is shown in Figure 5, which follows. It will be interesting to observe the place of prominence held by Massachusetts. Four state normals and a teachers' institute.

The next question which presented itself was the extent to which the teachers were benefited by these many provisions. Judging from current articles of the day, the lack of professional training on the part of the teachers was deplorable. The normal schools were being taken advantage of by only a small proportion of the teachers.

"The higher members of the profession either could not or would not avail themselves of the training provided there and have rested satisfied with, at the best, an arts curriculum, without an hour spent in becoming scientifically acquainted with the principles of the art they have to practice. The lower part of the profession have, from poverty, or other causes, been prevented from attending these schools."

A summary of this period, 1826-1860, showed that the

Fig. 6. Teacher-Training in the United States by 1860

A few private training-schools also existed, though less than half a dozen in all.

early nineteenth century, devoid of any means of teacher training, was awakening to a realisation of this need. The churches attempted to help the situation and finally the state realized its responsibility and established normal schools, courses in academies, and teachers' institutes. The majority of the teachers did not take advantage of the many opportunities afforded them so the period closed with the status of the teaching profession far below the expectations of the time.

Second Period, 1861-1892

In spite of the negligence on the part of the teachers, in availing themselves of the professional training provided, the establishment of normal schools continued and increased especially after 1870. There was nothing done for the special training of the high school teacher until about 1890.11

The universities did not take up the study of education until the seventies. A few lectures on pedagogy had been given since 1832 but the University of Michigan was the first to have a department of teaching in 1870. The first permanent chair was created in 1875 when a Professorship of Philosophy and Education was established in the University of Iowa. In 1881 a Department of Pedagogy was created at the University of Wisconsin. Similar

departments were started at the University of North Carolina and at John Hopkins University in 1884. The slowness of this movement was shown by the fact that up to 1890 there had been less than a dozen chairs established in all the colleges of the United States.12

The next question to be considered was—was teaching, especially in the teaching of history, improving as a result of these increasing opportunities for advancement?

In a much spoken of book on methods, published in 1883, the editor said that history was chosen as the subject for the first volume because after much observation in the school-rooms of many of the larger cities in the eastern part of our country, he was convinced that no subject so widely taught was, on the whole, taught so poorly. He advocated having special teachers who would go from room to room or from one school-house to another and give instruction in history alone.13

"The high educational value of history is too great to be left to teachers who merely hear recitations keeping the finger on the place in the text-book and only asking the questions conveniently printed for them in the margin or in the back of the book,—teachers too, who know that their present method is a good illustration of how history ought not to be taught, and who would do better if opportunity were afforded to them."(14)

The fact that the teacher was not up to the standard expected of her, either from the lack of or the neglect of opportunity was further shown by the articles and books written during this period with suggestions for improvement.15

Further proof of the history teacher's inefficiency was shown by the report of the Madison Conference, which considered history one of the poorest taught subjects and the teachers to be mostly to blame for this condition. One experienced member of the conference recommended that history should be omitted altogether from the school programs. He said it was being made disagreeable to the student and was producing indefinite and, in many cases, wrong ideas. The ideal, which had been set up, for the teacher of history was not being attained.16

However, in the face of all these discouraging results, history was retained and new suggestions were made.

"Above all the teacher must keep up with the times in books, methods, lines of thought, and interest, -- -- -- she must realize that the world is always passing on, and that, like Alice in Wonderland, she must run as fast as she can to keep where she is -- -- --. She must keep herself in connection with the great teachers of her time."(17)

15. Go liar. V. 0. Advlo e !o an Inexperiencd Teacher of History.
Summarizing,—the period from 1861-1892 was marked by an increase in the demand for better teachers and in the establishment of more schools for their training. The idea of specialization was launched and late in the period, plans for carrying it out were made. Criticism of the teacher continued as she failed to keep up with the progress of the times. Plans for the improvement of the profession were being made by the committees and conferences on education.

Third Period, 1893-1916

During this period a determination was shown on the part of the committees to compel the teachers to take advantage of the training facilities provided. They advised that the supply of suitable candidates was such that no school board should put up with incompetent teachers. They added that it would be as sensible for a deaf and dumb person to teach reading, or a Cherokee to teach Latin, as for one to teach history who had had no special training in his subject. They recommended,—

"That in all schools it is desirable that history should be taught by teachers who have not only a fondness for historical study, but who also have paid special attention to effective methods of imparting instruction."(18)

In 1896 Channing and Hart added their plea to that of the

committees for adequate special training. They suggested graduate schools as the most satisfactory agency because the normal school was "apt to be superficial". They said that the colleges were the better fitted to give this training if they gave it in connection with suitable courses in pedagogics.19

With the report of the Committee of Seven, 1898, it was seen that while some improvement in teacher training had been made since the Madison Conference yet much was to be desired.

"It is still not very unusual to find that history is taught -- -- -- by persons who do not profess either to be prepared or to take interest in the subject."(20)

Two incidents were cited to illustrate this state of affairs. In one school the teaching of history was turned over to the director of athletics, not because he knew history but in order to fill up his time. In another school, when an examiner asked why a certain teacher was asked to teach history when she knew no history was told, "because she did not know anything else."

In speaking of the importance of having a well equipped history teacher,

20. Report of Committee of Seven, p. 86.
"It requires not only wide information and accurate knowledge, but a capacity to awaken enthusiasm and to bring out the inner meanings of a great subject."(21)

The Committee of Five went on with the investigation of history teaching. They emphasized the fact that the most important factor in the success of the subject was the teacher. They added that the schools were taking history more seriously than they had even ten years ago, and that superintendents and school trustees were beginning to see how difficult it was to get history taught as it should be taught.

"The poorly equipped teacher may nullify the results to be derived from the best texts."(22)

Each of the committees reporting on history made proposals for teacher improvement. The requirements were being raised and made more definite. The need of both a Letters and Arts course and a course in the College of Education was shown. In speaking of the question as to whether scholarship or a science of education was more essential, McMurry said that the teacher must provide for both and unite harmoniously the two elements.23

With the schools of higher learning doing so much to further the cause of education, it was unfortunate that a disagreement between some of the colleges as to what should comprise the preparation of the teacher existed. The controversy between the advocates of scholarship and the advocates of method had done much to confuse progress in the teaching profession. In speaking of this difference of opinions Dewey said,

"The present divorce between scholarship and method is as harmful upon one side as upon the other, as detrimental to the best interests of higher academic instruction as to the training of teachers." (24)

The University of Missouri was representative of an adequate system of preparation which was arranged by many of the universities at that time, through the co-operation of the History Department with the Department of Education.  Proof that the history teacher continued to be under the fire of disapproval was shown in the statement of how this practical system of professional training came about. A survey was made of university graduates, teaching history in the state. It was found they were either deficient in regard to training in method or lacking in a

scholarly knowledge of history or in both. So a specific training was decided upon. The standard was high but the reward was a life certificate to teach in the schools of Missouri.26

During this period many books and articles on method were written which were no doubt of great service to the teacher who made use of them. Hart, in 1912, gave a bibliography of bibliographies, conference reports, books, essays, and selected periodical articles which had been written in the United States on methods of teaching history before and inclusive of 1911. A study of the dates of publication showed that four times as many contributions had been made on this subject between the years 1893-1911 as had been made during all the preceding years.27 The great increase in number indicated a growing interest in teaching procedure. This interest was further shown by the great number of normal schools which had been established by 1910. In fifty years the number had grown from eleven to two hundred.28

But in spite of all that had been done for the help of the teacher, Dr. Robinson expressed as his opinion in

1916 that the lack of adequate teacher-training was the greatest obstacle in the way of the vitalization of the social studies.

Summarizing, during the years 1893-1916 an increasing provision was being made for teacher-training. The normal schools increased greatly in number and the universities paid greater attention to specialized training. The national educational societies added their insistence to that of the professional schools for a higher type of teaching. An increasing number of publications on teaching problems were available. Yet— at the close of the period the teacher was spoken of as "the greatest obstacle"!

Fourth Period, 1917-1932

The entrance of this country into the World War re-emphasized the continual changes in social conditions, and the importance of history as an instrument for molding the sentiment of our embryo citizens. The weaknesses of history teaching were again attacked in an endeavor to promote the realization of the objectives. When Kimmel, chairman of the committee on current information of the National Council for the Social Studies, reported on his findings, the history teacher again came in for a large part of the blame.
"The teachers are handicapped by a lack of proper preparation — and probably by a more or less vague idea of what they are trying to do, and a still vaguer idea of how to go about doing what they think they are trying to do." (29)

Surveys were made to determine the amount of training the teacher had received. A deplorable lack of training in the subjects taught was found. Only about half of the teachers had taken any special method courses and a much smaller number had received professional training in the subjects they were teaching. 30

Another survey was made to discover (1) the proportion of teachers teaching those subjects in which they had made special preparation, (2) the combination of subjects taught by one teacher, and (3) the major subjects chosen during the years of training. An analysis of the data upon these important questions showed that but a small percentage of teachers were assigned on the basis of training, that the subjects taught often had no relation to each other, and that many prospective teachers majored in subjects which were not even taught in high schools. 31

A number of studies were made regarding the requirements for the certification of special teachers of

30. Ibid., pp. 90-91.
history. It was found that many teachers had insufficient academic training as well as an amazing lack of professional preparation, but this was being remedied by the close of the period. Different states had different requirements but all who discussed the matter agreed that the standard must be raised. The University of Wisconsin and the University of Missouri had the highest standards of those studied.32

The question of enforcing the new requirements seemed to be a problem which had caused trouble. New York was solving it by withholding an increase of salary to those who did not rise to the new standard.33 Certain places in Arizona had bonuses for those who exceeded the standard.

A general feeling that the attitude of some of the colleges of higher learning towards a science of pedagogy was partly responsible for the inefficiency of teaching was held.

Ellis, Elmer, "Graduate Work for High School Teachers of the Social Studies," School and Society, 34: 322-323;
Parkinson, B. L., "The Professional Preparation of Junior and Senior High School Teachers of History---," N.E.A. Journal, 67: 636;
"The supercilious attitude of many teachers, especially in our higher institutions, towards the study of methods of teaching would be justified only on the assumption that the art of teaching cannot be learned, or else that it is such a simple procedure that any individual of reasonable intelligence could, in a short period of trial and error, learn all that is to be known concerning its conduct. 'Teachers are born, not made' is a comfortable doctrine, but like so many doctrines of a similar nature that confirm us in evil practice, it suffers from the great demerit of being in error!" (34)

An increasing consideration was being given to those who were teaching. Summer schools, institutes, and extension courses were growing in number and in diversity of courses. A reference to a list of summer schools which were held throughout the United States and in the City of Mexico, in 1929, and a consideration of the desirable features mentioned regarding the academic, climatic, and social advantages of each lead to the conclusion that the teachers were being given a vast amount of help by the different states and communities in order to enable them to solve their teaching problems. (35)

The question of teacher-training was being discussed in the national society year-books and in the historical magazines by many of the foremost educational writers of

the day. 36

Our most outstanding textbook writers, whether dealing with the principles, methods, or philosophy of education, always gave some discussion to teacher-preparation and teacher-initiative, for it seemed to be the consensus of opinion that the teacher had to be raised to a higher standard in every way if objectives sought were to be gained.

Douglass, the author of probably the best book of the period on methods for the secondary school 37 said in this connection,

"The main duty of the teacher, in this new type of school, is not primarily the imparting of information or the drilling of pupils in its mastery, important even as these may be, but rather to awaken new interests, to stimulate pupils to new educational activity, to extend appreciation in new directions, to connect the work of the school with life in a better way, to widen the horizons of ambitious youths, to stimulate them to develop for themselves larger and better ideals for life service, to awaken guiding moral impulses, to train for effective self-direction, and to prepare for socialized living in our complex social and economic and political life. Social and citizenship aims have thus been added to the older knowledge aims of the school." (38)

36. 18th Yearbook "S.S.E., Part I;
22nd Yearbook "S.S.E., Part II;
School and Society, 34: 381-397;
History Teacher's Magazine, 5: 178-179; and others.
38. Ibid., p. IX, Introduction (By Editor, Ellwood F. Cubberly).
Johnson said in the last words of his well known book—

"Incompetent teachers have a right to adjust themselves to the standards of sound instruction or to seek more congenial occupation."

The current periodicals were filled with excellent suggestions which must have been helpful to the teacher if intelligently studied, assimilated and practiced. These ranged from general principles of procedure to specific plans for daily lessons.

General Principles*

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<thead>
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<tr>
<td>Wilson, Howard S.</td>
<td>Mathews, Maxine.</td>
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</table>


* Full reference may be found in the Bibliography.
Summarizing, in this last period, 1917-1931, many difficulties were seen to exist. Surveys showed lack of training in subjects taught; a small percentage of teachers teaching those subjects in which they had special training; the combination of subjects taught poor; major subjects chosen which were not taught in high school; a varying standard of requirements for certification in the different states; a dis-inclination on the part of many teachers to meet those requirements unless forced; and friction between the College of Letters and Arts and the College of Education concerning the preparation of the teacher.

It was seen that those difficulties were being overcome by higher and more definite certification requirements, an effort to have trustees or principals place the teachers according to subject preparation and give careful consideration to the combination of subjects taught, an endeavor to influence the would-be-teacher to major in the subjects she intended to teach, a tendency to force teachers to self-improvement by salary schedule method, and a movement to encourage co-operation between the academic colleges of the institutions of higher learning and the college of education.

Summary of Four Periods

Considering the data in this chapter, the conclusion
has been reached that there were trends in teacher-training, especially the training of the teacher of history. Those trends were toward greater efficiency and specialization. History teachers who, in the early nineteenth century, had no training by the middle of the century were having a general preparation, and by the close of the century were beginning to have a specialized training.

There was a trend in their professional preparation toward defining the objectives sought; systematizing the college programs so as to attain those objectives; seeking positions for which preparation had been made; endeavoring to teach allied subjects; and continually improving subject knowledge and professional technique while in service.

The educators were demanding more adequately prepared teachers and increasing the facilities for this training.

A spirit of understanding and co-operation was growing between the department of history and the college of education in many of our foremost institutions of higher learning. But even with all those tendencies toward improvement the criticism of the teacher for her failure to keep up with the standard of the period continued throughout the century.
CHAPTER VI

TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS, 1826-1932

This chapter deals with the analyses of twenty-six textbooks chosen as representative of the four periods under consideration, from 1826 to 1932. An effort was made to procure at least eight of the most widely used texts for each period. After much difficulty and the discarding of many books, the ones given in Table XX, page 196, were decided upon as having been most generally taught. This decision was based partly upon the discussions of the most popular texts during certain years as given in Barnard's American Journal of Education, in the History Teacher's Magazine, and in the Historical Outlook, and partly upon the opinions of former and present school-teachers expressed either in reply to letters or in interviews. It was impossible to secure more than two complete American history texts for the first period, but from authoritative information these two were found to be typical of the prevailing type of text-books used before 1860.\(^1\) Since there were not many texts published at that

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<td>Eggleston</td>
<td>1888</td>
<td>220</td>
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<td>Sheldon-Barnes and Barnes</td>
<td>1891</td>
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</table>

*Foot-note explanations follow on next page.*
FOOT-NOTE EXPLANATIONS FOR TABLE XX

Foot-Note

1. Questions as foot-notes, with number of question and number of paragraph corresponding.

2. Question in form of brief summary statement.

3. Questions on references only.

4. Lengthy, "General Reflections."

5. Brief, concise statements.

6. Chronological statements.

7. A review or resume of chapter.

8. Summary of unit.

9. Also, twelve pages of authorities.

10. A lengthy appendix with study questions.

11. Historical fiction references; research topics; questions for debate; projects.

12. Text practically filled with dates.

13. Chapter and period dates in table of contents.

14. At close of each unit.

15. Chronological review of facts of chapter.


17. Tables and diagrams.

18. Tables at end of each chapter to be filled in with definite dates or facts.

19. Fourteen pages of diagrams for slate and blackboard.

20. Topical analysis diagrams.

Foot-
Note

22. Topical syllabus.

23. Review of important historical events arranged by administrations.

24. Part of index.

25. Few in foot-notes.

26. Not a separate list but as topical outline at close of each epoch.

27. 207 important dates.

28. 73 italicized dates to be remembered.

29. 28 important dates.

30. Few important dates at close of each review unit.

31. Washington's farewell address.

32. Meaning of names of states and territories; lists of books on state history; lists of books, poems, and songs on epochs of American history; history of the calendar for the reckoning of dates.

33. Population of U. S. from 1790-1900; population of free and slave states 1790-1860; representation in Congress for free and slave states 1790-1893.

34. Relative area of states and Europe; population of cities over 100,000 in 1900.

35. Population 1900; number of representatives 1905; proclamation of emancipation; joint resolution for intervention in Cuba.

36. Outline for the correlation of American history and government.

37. Facts about territorial acquisitions; population of towns and cities 1790-1910; gross area of United States 1790-1910; Mayflower compact; diagram outline of provisions of Constitution.

38. Chart on Constitution.
Foot-
Note


40. Members of cabinet from Roosevelt to Coolidge 1901-1925; members of Supreme Court 1927.

41. Pronunciation given in brackets after difficult proper names.

42. Amendments to the Constitution.
time and since the teaching of history was confined to a comparatively small number of schools, it is probable that these two texts were as fair a sample of the entire period as were the eight chosen for the fourth period, which had such a large number in general use.

The texts selected were considered from five different standpoints: first, a general analysis of the text; second, a mechanical analysis; third, a text-content analysis; fourth, trends of emphasis as indicated by illustrations; and fifth, trends in the style of narrative.

General Analysis of Text

Table XX shows the results of a general analysis made in an endeavor to find if there were any trends in the treatment of the content material as to groupings, divisions of groupings, chapter supplements, and text supplements. The thirty headings included in the main divisions mentioned were decided upon by recording the different methods used by the authors of the various texts in the handling of the total content material. A miscellaneous column was included to take care of the thirteen different types of "helps" included in the various appendices. From this long and varied list thirty headings, which seemed most representative of the texts under consideration were evolved.
A serious difficulty was encountered in the different ways in which authors used the same type of supplements, such as summaries, lists of dates etc. To make this variation clear foot-note explanations were placed after Table XX which will be found self explanatory if used in connection with the table.

Each text was analyzed and its total content classified. Explaining more definitely, if the text had the material grouped by administrations or wars the word "Yes" was written in the "Administrations or Wars" column opposite the name of the text, if the grouping was by units the "Yes" was placed in the "Unit" column and so on through all of the classifications. When the books for each period had been analyzed in this manner the numbers of "Yes'es" were added and the results computed on a percentage basis. These percentages were placed in Table XXI, on the following page, for a more compact interpretation of these findings.

A study of Table XXI will show a decided difference of opinion as to the composition of a history text. In the first period, the two authors considered, agreed only upon the grouping of their text under "Administrations or Wars". The lack of supplementary material as compared with that of later periods is shown in Tables XX and XXI.

The plan of grouping material, which was followed in the early years, was carried on by 68½% of the texts


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| First: | | | |
|--------| | | |
| Period:| | | |
| 1826:  | | | |
| 1860  | | | |
| Second:| | | |
| Period:| | | |
| 1861-| | | |
| 1892  | | | |
| Third:| | | |
| Period:| | | |
| 1893-| | | |
| 1916  | | | |
| Fourth:| | | |
| Period:| | | |
| 1917-| | | |
| 1922 | | | |

* Data from Table XX.
considered between 1861 and 1892. During this period there was no unanimous agreement on a single feature of book-content. However, seven of the eight concurred on having questions and making suggestions to teachers.

In the third period, 1893-1916, four methods of procedure were identical with all the authors. They all had (1) numbered sections, (2) made suggestions to teachers, (3) gave the United States Constitution and (4) had an index. The fourth period showed a marked increase in unanimity. They agreed on dividing the text narrative into chapters, having topics, reading references, suggestions to teachers, bibliography of sources, United States Constitution, and index. All but one divided their text material into units, had chapter questions, and gave a table of states. (The number and variety of miscellaneous supplementary helps after 1893 will be seen by looking at Table XX and the accompanying explanatory sheets.)

A difference of opinion throughout the periods was seen as to the type and location of questions. The practice before and during the seventies was to number the questions with a number corresponding to that of the paragraph in which the answer was to be found. Goodrich placed his questions, numbered in this way, at the close of the book. Swinton, Anderson, and Scott had theirs at the bottom of each page like footnotes. McMaster, both in 1897 and 1907, gave his questions in the form of a brief sum-
mary statement, the soundness of which he questioned, as a thought stimulant. Hart in 1917 asked questions only on the references given.

The summaries also had a wide range of treatment. The first summary appeared in Harper's School History of the United States by Scott in 1878 and consisted of lengthy "General Reflections." McMaster, always in advance of his time, gave brief concise statements. Hart gave a resume of the chapter and Beard and Beard a summary of the unit.

In the matter of dates the historians differed greatly. Before 1860 the texts were filled with dates. During the next period the tendency was to assemble these dates in lengthy chronological tables. This practice gradually gave way to modifications and after 1893 few such tables were found but, instead, lists of important dates were given. The length of these lists decreased from 207 to 28 from 1899 to 1917 with many authors having no dates for memorising. During the last period the question of dates was again agitated and the practice of placing a few important dates at the close of each unit became the usual procedure.

Summarising—the years before 1895 were marked by a lack of agreement as to what a history text-book should contain and how that material should be presented. A trend toward unanimity was seen between 1895 and 1916.
This plan developed into a generally adopted procedure during the years following 1916. The only practice which seemed common throughout the years was that of making suggestions to teachers.

Mechanical Analysis

Table XXII was constructed for the purpose of determining the proportion of the total text devoted to the various parts. Many text-books were examined and the various features noted. These were classified under thirteen headings including one for the supplementary helps. The method of procedure in securing the data for this table was explained on page 6, Chapter I. In order to enable the visualization of the changes which have taken place in space allotment, Charts 6, 7, 8, and 9 were constructed from the information in Table XXII. A study of these charts will show several tendencies. First, the text narrative was considered the all-important part in the early years. In the second period the opposite extreme was reached and but 64% of the book was used for this material. The next two periods showed a gradual increase which in the fourth period reached 71% as compared with the 95% in the first period. The most noticeable increase throughout the years was in the total percentage of space given to illustrations. This increased from 4% in the first period to 15% in the fourth.
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<th>Preface and Text</th>
<th>Maps</th>
<th>Maps, m-Plates</th>
<th>Picturés,</th>
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<td>20. Our United States: Beard and</td>
<td>Gordo</td>
<td>1922</td>
<td>665</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>52 x 7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>551</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. History of the United States: Beard and</td>
<td>1923</td>
<td>665</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>52 x 7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>506</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. History of the American People: Beard and</td>
<td>1925</td>
<td>708</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>52 x 7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. History of America: Beard and</td>
<td>1926</td>
<td>630</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>52 x 7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>584</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. History of America: Beard and</td>
<td>1927</td>
<td>705</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>52 x 7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>545</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. History of the American People: Beard and</td>
<td>1928</td>
<td>725</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>52 x 7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>545</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Page unit considered.
first period had no illustrations except uncolored pictures. The increase in these was remarkable. From the \( \frac{1}{4} \% \) in the first period they increased to 10% in the fourth. Colored pictures were a rarity throughout. The only books having a noticeable number was that of Mace, which had the equivalent of eleven pages devoted to them.\(^2\) The use of maps, both colored and uncolored remained about the same after their introduction in 1871. The proportion of questions showed a great increase during the second period and a decided decrease after that time. The appendix, which did not exist during the first period, remained fairly uniform during the last three periods, having reached its peak during the years from 1893 to 1916.

A condensed interpretation is shown in Table XXIII, which gives the average percentages of page space devoted to each division of the book in each of the four periods. It also shows the average number of words to the page and the average size of the page, which information was not illustrated in the charts.

It will be noticed from the table, page 212, that there was a tendency to increase the number of pages in history text-books. The number of words to the page

\(^2\) These were the first colored plates used in an American history and were intended by the author to emphasise the ten turning points in the history of our country.
CHART 6. COMPOSITE OF MECHANICAL ANALYSES
FIRST PERIOD 1826-1860
(2 BOOKS CONSIDERED)

The circle in this and in the next three charts represents the average of the total number of pages in the texts considered for each period.
CHART 7. COMPOSITE OF MECHANICAL ANALYSES
SECOND PERIOD 1861-1892
(8 BOOKS CONSIDERED)
CHART 8. COMPOSITE OF MECHANICAL ANALYSES
THIRD PERIOD 1893-1916
(6 BOOKS CONSIDERED)
Chart 9. Composite of Mechanical Analyses
Fourth Period 1917-1932
(8 Books Considered)
remained about the same but the size of the page increased perceptibly, thus making a larger, clearer type. A comparison of the average percentages for the four periods showed a similarity of proportion in the last three.

### TABLE XXIII
MECHANICAL ANALYSIS OF TEXTS*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average Numbers or Percentages for Each Period</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Period</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>First</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1826-</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1860</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Second</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1892</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Third</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1893-</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1916</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fourth</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1932</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Data from Table XXII.

Summarizing these studies made on the mechanical analyses of the texts, trends are seen in the increasing of the teaching value of the book by the addition of much supplementary material and in the increasing of the pleasure of the study and reading by making it more legible
Text-Content Analysis

Table XXIV shows the results of a study of the emphasis placed upon different phases of history throughout the period of one hundred and six years which was considered. This analysis was thought to be of the most importance and was done in the greatest detail in an effort to determine whether there had been any trends in the placing of this emphasis. History has been used throughout the ages as an instrument of propaganda and the determination of whether that instrument had been wielded haphazardly by different authors or with a similar purpose within the limits of certain time spaces seemed a problem of vital concern.

The preliminary procedure was much the same as in the two analyses explained. The classifying of content-material under the headings or topics chosen was a difficult process and not free from dangers of error. The definitions, given on pages 7-8, were kept in mind and a conscientious endeavor made to classify each division or sub-division according to the intention of the author. The findings were tabulated and reduced to a page and percentage basis as before. Charts illustrating each book and a composite of the averages for each period were made.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Book</th>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Total Text</th>
<th>Origin</th>
<th>Exploration</th>
<th>Colonisation</th>
<th>War</th>
<th>Conquest</th>
<th>Expansion</th>
<th>Political</th>
<th>Industrial</th>
<th>Social</th>
<th>Economic</th>
<th>Biography</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. A History of the United States</td>
<td>Goodrich</td>
<td>1826</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. A Universal History of the United States of America</td>
<td>Taylor</td>
<td>1850</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>494</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>494</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. School History of the United States</td>
<td>Swinton</td>
<td>1851</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. A Grammar School History of the United States</td>
<td>Anderson</td>
<td>1876</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. History of the United States</td>
<td>Doyle</td>
<td>1878</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>335</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Emmer's School History of the United States</td>
<td>Scott</td>
<td>1878</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Illustrated School History of the United States</td>
<td>Younger</td>
<td>1884</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>532</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>532</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>890</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. A History of the United States and Its People</td>
<td>Eggleston</td>
<td>1889</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. History of the United States</td>
<td>California State Education</td>
<td>1889</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Sheldon's American History</td>
<td>Sheldon, Barnes</td>
<td>1891</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Page unit considered.
Chart 10 shows the great emphasis placed on war in the first period. There was a marked difference shown in the two texts but both had more than half of their text-content space devoted to that subject. Colonization and expansion and political economics were the only other subjects which received any noticeable amount of emphasis.

In the second period, Charts 11-15, this war emphasis was seen to be giving way to a greater variety of interests in most cases, although Anderson, Scott, and Quackenbos still adhered to the plan of earlier authors and used a half or more of their book in the discussion of that subject. But, in the other texts, a tendency toward minimizing war and stressing other matters was seen, especially in the texts of the California Board of Education and of Sheldon-Barnes. The composite for this period shows a broadening of interests, especially those relating to colonization and expansion, political economics, social economics, and exploration.

The third period, Charts 14 to 16, showed a wide variety of opinions as to the emphasis which should be given to war and political economics. The former varied from 7% to 31%, the latter from 22% to 51%. Channing being at the extremes of small emphasis on war and great on political matters. A glance at Chart 15 will show the similarity of emphasis given by Hart, McMaster, and Mace. The composite Chart 16 shows that political economics
Goodrich, 1826,
A History of the United States of America

Taylor, 1830,
Universal History of the United States of America

**Chart 10. Text-Content Analyses, 1826-1860**

Composite of Text-Content Analyses (2 Texts Considered)
Swinton, 1871,  
School History of  
the United States

Anderson, 1872,  
A Grammar School History  
of the United States

Doyle, 1876,  
History of the United States

Scott, 1878,  
Harper's School History  
of the United States

CHART 11. TEXT-CONTENT ANALYSES, 1861-1892
Chart 12. Text-Content Analyses, 1861-1892 Cont'd
CHART 13. COMPOSITE OF TEXT-CONTENT ANALYSES OF SECOND PERIOD 1861-1892 (8 BOOKS CONSIDERED)
held first place during this period and was followed by war, colonisation and expansion, and social economics in the order named.

The fourth period, Charts 17 to 19 showed that war was given space varying from 2% to 20% and political economics from 24% to 62%. Industrial economics received a strong emphasis by all the authors except Mussey, who gave 62% of his text to political problems. Though some inaccuracies of distinction among the three divisions of economics may have crept in, the general proportion is believed to be true. An examination of the composite of this period, Chart 19, will show the strides which all branches of economics have made. Taking them as a whole, they occupy 71% of the total space. Industrial and social economics have come into an important place from the obscurity of earlier years. War, on the other hand, decreased in importance.

Table XXV shows a condensed arrangement of the text-content analyses and was used, in connection with the composite figures, in summarizing the results.

It was shown that war has had a rapid decrease in emphasis. All branches of economics have had an increase.

5. It is possible that some of his industrial problems may have been so involved with his political problems that correct classifications were not made.
CHART 14. TEXT-CONTENT ANALYSES, 1893-1916
Chart 15. Text-Content Analyses, 1893-1916 Cont'd.
Chart 16. Composite of Text-Content Analyses of Third Period 1893-1916 (8 Books Considered)
CHART 17. TEXT-CONTENT ANALYSES, 1917-1932

Hart, 1917, New American History

Guitteau, 1919, Our United States

Gordy, 1922, History of the United States

Beard and Beard, 1925, History of the United States
CHART 18.  TEXT-CONTENT ANALYSES, 1917-1932 CONT'D.
CHART 19. COMPOSITE OF TEXT-CONTENT ANALYSES OF FOURTH PERIOD 1917-1932
(8 BOOKS CONSIDERED)
especial interest being shown in the political problems and institutions. The other four classifications considered have had a slightly varying emphasis but no definite trends were shown. The trend toward minimizing war and emphasizing economic problems was clearly shown.

### TABLE XXV

**TEXT-CONTENT ANALYSIS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average Percentages for Each Period*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Period</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Data from Table XXIV.

**Emphasis as Indicated by Illustrations**

In attempting further to discover the emphasis intended by the author on various content materials of the text the percentage of space occupied by each type of illustration was computed. The results of this study
are shown in Table XXVI. In order to make a comparison of this illustrative emphasis composite charts of the four periods were constructed (Charts 20 to 23).

By referring to these charts it will be seen that of the few illustrations used in the first period, 1826-1860 the far greater number were devoted to picturing the political leaders. It is quite probable that the military engagements would have been more stressed than they were if the pictures for them had been obtainable.

The second period, 1861-1892, emphasised war, which was but natural, considering the stirring times through which the country was passing, in the early years of the period, and the influence of those times on the later years. All the other branches of historical interest came into notice at this time and colonisation, customs, and government had a considerable emphasis.

The third period, 1893-1916, showed a trend toward a balance of emphasis, war still predominated but customs and government were advancing in importance. Science, industries, and art were getting a little more attention and colonisation was decreasing in importance.

The fourth period, 1917-1932, showed a marked versatility of emphasis. No one classification received a disproportionate amount of space. Customs had moved up to first rank and government followed a close second. War, industries, and colonisation had an almost equal
| Name of Book | Author | Date | Total: No. of 1. Text: Illustrations: War: Gov't: peoples: Conquest: Settlement: Slaves: Science: Invention: Customs: Education: Invention: Customs: Education: Science: inventions: tries: time and place: |
|--------------|--------|------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| 1. History of the United States of America | Goodrich | 1826 | 296 | 11 | 2 | 29 | 7 | 64 | 0 | 1 | 9 | 1 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2. A Universal History of the United States | Taylor | 1830 | 494 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3. School History of the United States | Swanton | 1871 | 307 | 94 | 1 | 29 | 31:23 | 24 | 0 | 110 | 11 | 150 | 22 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4. A Grammar School History of the United States | Anderson | 1872 | 155 | 42 | 14 | 81 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 5 | 6 | 14 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 5. History of the United States | Doyle | 1876 | 335 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6. Harper's School History of the United States | Scott | 1876 | 401 | 173 | 192 | 50:40 | 22:10 | 6:13 | 0 | 6 | 12 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 7. Illustrated School History of the United States | Quackenbush | 1884 | 352 | 100 | 150 | 69:18 | 12 | 8 | 8 | 0 | 8 | 9 | 9 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| 8. A History of the United States and Its People | Engleston | 1886 | 384 | 393 | 154 | 31:57 | 17:37 | 12 | 18 | 6 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 9. History of the United States | California Ed. of Education | 1889 | 399 | 116 | 25 | 29:23 | 19 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 10. Sheldon's American History | Sheldon-Harnish and Barnes | 1894 | 409 | 120 | 26 | 24:7 | 6:10 | 0 | 12 | 17 | 16 | 12 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| 11. History of the United States | Isles | 1894 | 609 | 230 | 188 | 29:16 | 22:11 | 6 | 11 | 9 | 12 | 14 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12. School History of the United States | McMaster | 1899 | 476 | 187 | 24 | 15:32 | 19 | 8 | 4 | 11 | 5 | 13 | 19 | 6 | 3 | 6 | 5 | 14 | 0 |
| 13. American History | Comparrison | 1902 | 376 | 160 | 160 | 45:9 | 9 | 6 | 4 | 12 | 13:16 | 13 | 9 | 6 | 18 | 12 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 15. History of the United States | Chapman | 1904 | 587 | 169 | 127 | 17:46 | 29 | 0 | 13 | 13 | 15 | 19 | 9 | 6 | 12 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 17. Unfair History of the United States | McMaster | 1907 | 466 | 256 | 177 | 20:30 | 12:16 | 6 | 11 | 4 | 3 | 29 | 11 | 8 | 3 | 7:4 | 29:12 | 4 | 0 |
| 20. Our United States: | Quainton | 1919 | 627 | 325 | 145 | 23:8 | 24 | 0 | 13 | 13 | 15 | 19 | 9 | 6 | 12 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 22. History of the United States: | Beard and | 1923 | 628 | 106 | 111 | 10:41 | 39 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 22 | 20:24 | 22 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 23. History of the American People: | Hargre | 1923 | 626 | 218 | 126 | 12:36 | 10:2 | 2 | 11 | 5 | 8:5 | 12 | 11 | 5 | 5:8 | 21:27 | 17 | 6 | 3 | 9 | 4 |
| 24. History of America: | Fisk | 1926 | 570 | 207 | 24 | 11:39 | 10 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 1:24 | 12 | 2 | 5 | 12:12 | 21:13 | 2 | 1:3 | 5 | 3 | 0 |
| 25. History of the American People: | Maysay | 1927 | 716 | 197 | 251 | 28:26 | 20 | 0 | 13 | 15 | 17 | 17 | 11 | 1 | 8 | 8:24 | 12:12 | 7:4 | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| 26. History of the United States: | Beard | 1930 | 680 | 174 | 110 | 6:40 | 22:0 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 2:3 | 11 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

**Table XXVI**

*Statistics as indicated by Illustrations*

- Period: 1826-1860
  - First
- Second Period: 1861-1892
- Third Period: 1893-1915
- Fourth Period: 1917-1932
standing. Exploration had dropped to seventh place among the classifications. This low rank of exploration was probably due to the tendency of omitting or minimizing the timeworn story of the "Discovery of America" in the texts above the lower elementary grades. The arts and sciences were being emphasized about the same as in the previous period while education had increased in importance.

Table XXVII illustrates more concisely these tendencies, showing the emphasis given in the different periods to different matters of interest.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE XXVII</th>
<th>EMPHASIS AS INDICATED BY ILLUSTRATIONS</th>
<th>Average Percentages for Each Period*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage devot. to Illustrations</td>
<td>War</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Period:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1826-1840</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Period:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1861-1892</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Period:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1893-1916</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Period:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1917-1932</td>
<td></td>
<td>15½</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Data from Table XXVI.
In this and the next three charts the circles represent the total space devoted to illustrations. In the first period the illustrations represented \( \frac{1}{2} \) of 1% of the total text.
CHART 21. COMPOSITE OF TRENDS AS INDICATED BY ILLUSTRATIONS SECOND PERIOD 1861-1892* (8 BOOKS CONSIDERED)

* In the second period the illustrations represented 9% of the total text.
CHART 22. COMPOSITE OF TRENDS AS INDICATED BY ILLUSTRATIONS THIRD PERIOD 1893-1916* (8 BOOKS CONSIDERED)

* In the third period the illustrations represented 16% of the total text.
CHART 23. COMPOSITE OF TRENDS AS INDICATED BY ILLUSTRATIONS FOURTH PERIOD 1917-1932*
(8 BOOKS CONSIDERED)

* In the fourth period the illustrations represented 15\% of the total text.
In summarising,—the first period has been given no part in the conclusion of trends as the scarcity of pictures in those early days was a decided handicap to the authors in illustrating that part of the text which they thought of most importance. Few pictures except wood-cuts of crowned heads, governors, and presidents existed. Considering the data of the other three periods,—war, native peoples, exploration, and colonization had a steady decrease. Government, customs, industries and education had a decided increase and science and art had little change.

Trends in Text-book Narrative

In order to determine if there were trends in the style and purpose of the narrative a study of the content of the American history text-books which were used during the past century was made. The teacher's dependence upon the text was one of the most criticised "lack of method" procedures of the past years, yet since that was the way she did teach, it seemed that a study of the texts would be the most reliable source of information as to what she taught.

Russell, in commenting upon the importance of the text-book in the study of the progress of history-teaching said,—
"The textbook, from the earliest days of history teaching in our secondary schools, has been the chief source of material for work in the classroom. Were there available a complete list of all textbooks published, with an accurate account of the number and date of subsequent editions, there would be at hand a reliable guide to the progress and popularity of the subject." (4)

That the early histories had many characteristics which were questionable was indicated by the opinions of many authorities. These points of criticism were shown to be well taken, even by a cursory study of the texts of the nineteenth century. Carman, in speaking of these early histories, said:

"History as 'past politics' was generally accepted during the nineteenth century. James Harvey Robinson, the great philosopher historian, was one of the first to protest." (5)

Robinson in presenting the conceptions of history to be followed by the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education of the N. E. A. in 1915 said,—

"History too, must answer the test of good citizenship. The old chronicler who recorded the deeds of kings and warriors and neglected the labors of the common man is dead. The great palaces and cathedrals and pyramids are often but the empty shells of a parasitic growth on the working group. The labors and plans of the multitudes are more important than the

pleasures and dreams of the few.

"The older traditional type of historical writing was narrative in character. Its chief aim was to tell a tale or story by setting forth a succession of events and introducing the prominent actors who participated in them. It was a branch of polite literature, competing with the drama and fiction, from which, indeed, it differed only in the limitations which the writer was supposed to place upon his fancy. It was a story of battles and sieges and the courts of kings."(6)

This lengthy, dramatic, and often fanciful narrative was usually written with an idea of propaganda whether it were for the home, church, or state. Some portions were designed for the purpose of instilling moral ideals and a reverence for the past, others had a religious motive and served as a means of explaining or justifying the acts of God but more often they were used as a vehicle in which to display the admirable qualities of a political favorite of the time, or a machine for tearing in shreds the reputation of a leader who had lost caste with his erstwhile followers.

Barnes, in speaking of the nature of the early history texts, said that the authors used them for three main purposes.

"1.---as a precious record of the sacred things of the past.

2. ---as a sort of divine comedy in which there is to be found the expression and clarification of divine will and purpose.
3. ---as a branch of literature which should be richly laden with romance and adventure.
   a. ---as a collective biography; a literary account of more striking and dramatic episodes in lives of leading gentlemen of the past."(7)

A thorough study of the style and propaganda of American history texts since their introduction into our schools would be of much interest, but that would constitute another research problem. For the purpose of this paper one topic was chosen, from the vast field of American history, and a study made of its presentation by representative writers in each period, in an effort to determine if any trends existed in its treatment and if so what they were.

The "Causes of the American Revolution" was chosen because it was a topic which was discussed by all the texts and was far enough removed from the actual experiences of any of the authors to prevent personal bias. With this precaution taken, if prejudice was seen to exist --it could be safely assumed that it was the result of the public opinion of the time and could be regarded as predetermined propaganda.

7. Barnes, Harry Elmes, The History and Prospects of the Social Studies, Ch. I.
First, Goodrich's explanation of the subject was read. His publication had an early date, 1826, and was the most widely used of all American histories during those early years. He was a minister of the gospel, which probably accounted for his praise of the "filial colonies" and his evident endeavor to justify the Americans in their rebellion against the "mother country". His account was so lengthy that only a brief portion of it could be re-produced in this paper, but it will suffice to show his style and the popular propaganda of the time.

"The causes which led the colonies to take up arms against the mother country, deserve a distinct recital in this portion of our history, as they will clearly show the justice, wisdom, and necessity of those acts of resistance, to which, at that trying period, resort was had.

"'The independence of America,' it has been observed, 'was found by those who sought it not.' When the Fathers of this country left Great Britain, they had no intention of establishing a government independent of that of England. On the contrary, they came out as colonists, and expected still to acknowledge allegiance to the mother country. For many years, when they spoke, or wrote, or thought of England, it was under the filial and affectionate idea of 'home'. 'And even at the commencement of the controversy with Great Britain,' if we credit those who lived at that time, 'there existed no desire, nor intention of becoming independent.' (Testimony with respect to the filial disposition of the colonies towards the mother country abounds.------)

"For these feelings of affection for the mother country, the colonies deserve the highest encomium. Causes existed which might have
justified a less degree of attachment, and were
calculated to produce it. These were the op-
pression and losses which they endured; the
shackles imposed upon them; the restraints upon
their commerce; the parsimony with which aid was
administered by the mother country; maleadminis-
tration—the peculation and arbitrary conduct of
the royal governors—these things were suf-
cient, and more than sufficient, to stifle
every feeling of affection, and shake the last
remains of their allegiance.

"Yet, through all this oppressive subordina-
tion—through the calamities of war—through the
attempt to wrest from them their charters, and
their dearest rights—they could say, and did
say, 'England, with all thy faults, I love thee
still.'"

Taylor, another popular historian of the day, was
even more verbose than Goodrich. It was found necessary
in copying his quotations to omit large parts of his expla-
nations and often to stop at a comma or semi-colon as a
sentence would continue through two or three paragraphs.
Taylor was more sensational than Goodrich and gave the im-
pression that he was disseminating exciting news. He
spoke of the colonists as "—forging their own chains" and
England as a "—selfish, cruel and imperious step-mother."
Taylor showed the personal trend of the time. He did not
create the impression that two countries were fighting for
a mighty principle but that a lot of frightened colonists
were defying the "minions of the British crown". His
little personal propaganda was seen in his evident desire

8. Goodrich, Charles A., A History of the United States
of America ——, pp. 120-121.
"For a century and a half, the colonies had been left to themselves as to taxation;—-. But in an inauspicious moment, the British ministry conceived the idea of taxing the colonies, under the pretense of providing for their protection, but in reality to relieve the nation from an immense debt, the weight of which hung heavily upon it. This iniquitous scheme, originating with the cabinet, was easily introduced into parliament;—-."

"The justice of this measure, which appeared so clear to the British parliament, was regarded in America as oppression and tyranny, and occasioned great excitement and alarm. The deceptive pretension, that the revenue was to be raised for the purpose of protecting the colonies, was only adding insult to injustice; as the colonies supposed that they were capable of protecting themselves, and they apprehended that the object was rather under the pretense of affording them protection, to maintain a military force in America, for the purpose of dragooning them into submission, and enforcing an unconstitutional system of taxation; thereby rendering them the instruments of forging their own chains.

"This act was rendered more disgusting by a provision that the money raised by it must be paid in specie, and another that those charged with having violated the revenue laws, might be prosecuted in the courts of admiralty; whereby they were deprived of the privilege of trial by jury, and were liable to be condemned by a single officer of the crown, whose salary was to be paid from the very forfeitures decreed by himself;—-. These iniquitous proceedings destroyed all security of property, and left every one at the mercy of the minions of the British crown. Their pernicious influence was soon felt extensively in the colonies; they no longer regarded Great Britain as an affectionate mother, but viewed her in the light of a selfish, cruel, and imperious step-mother."

"The designs of the ministry were penetrated, and occasioned great alarm, which spread"
wider and wider, until it became universal. The press, that great engine of truth and liberty, was called into requisition; the subject was elaborately discussed, and the more it was discussed, and the better it was understood, the more strong and determined the opposition became."

This kind of pompous presentation continued for another thirty-three pages before the actual fighting commenced, which "raged and boomed" for some two hundred pages.

But the account par excellence, so far as its popularity from an uncritical standpoint was concerned, was by Parson Weems who, present-day critics say, was neither a parson nor a historian but an itinerant peddler and professional writer of tracts and biographies. He probably most nearly expressed the sentiment of the time as he wrote to please his public, and authoritative information about this period said that his books and pamphlets were the best sellers of the time.10

"And moreover, they had never hesitated for a moment to furnish to the last man and the last shilling whatever Britain had required. But, alas! what signifies right against might! When a king wants money for his own pride, or for his hungry relations, and when his ministers want

stakes for their gaming tables, or diamond necklaces for their mistresses, they will have it, though plundered colonies should lack bread and spelling books for their children."(11)

Propaganda against England was seen throughout all these writings. This was more or less thinly veiled according to the author. With Weems it might be said that no veil was used, the ugly, glaring facts were boisterously presented with no apologies. It seemed desirable at this time to keep alive the spirit of independence and to prevent any friendly feeling toward England.

History Texts Between 1861-1892.

The second period was marked by a decided change in style of writing. The elaborate, rhetorical recital gave place to a calm and dispassionate exposition of facts.

Barnes in discussing this condition said,—

"— — — history books went so far in reaction against the literary tradition as to become repulsive in style and expression and difficult to peruse and master. — — — Only events connected with political, military, and diplomatic activities were surveyed."(12)

The use of schools and books as propaganda was well expressed by Reisner.

"The first really effective effort at developing the common schools in the Western World

12. Barnes, Harry Elmer, op. cit., Ch. 1.
had as its motive the consolidation of peoples into patriotic loyalty; in other words they first became important when it was realized that they were a tremendous machine of social control." (13)

The factual trend of the times was shown in Anderson's unelaborated statement of the case.

"1. Causes of the War. The expenses which Great Britain had incurred in the French and Indian War, greatly increased her national debt. The English ministry, asserting that this had been done in defending their American possessions, proposed to lessen the burden by taxing the colonies. In connection with the proposition thus made, it was affirmed that the right to tax the colonies was inherent in Parliament." (14)

Swinton likewise stated the case in a brief manner but he showed the religious belief of the times in "predestination and foreordination" by his reason for the Revolution.

"Real Cause of the Revolution.

How was it that the Colonies began a revolt which resulted in their independence?

"The usual answer is that the attempt of England to impose taxes upon the American colonies without their consent was the cause of the Revolutionary War.

"This is true in part only. The imposition of taxes was the occasion of the revolt of the Colonies; but its cause was that the whole history of the American Colonies meant independence. Providence so designed it."(15)

Doyle, an Englishman writing about the rebellion against his country showed a breadth of view and a freedom from partisan bias which could not be easily attained by an American writer and was unusual for an Englishman at this time.

"Scarcely any colony had altogether avoided disputes with the English Government, but nowhere, except perhaps in Massachusetts after the Restoration, had these disputes ever seemed to threaten separation. Various Acts of Parliament were passed, forbidding the colonists to make certain articles for themselves, lest they should interfere with the manufactures of the mother country. But neither these nor the navigation laws, though they sounded harsh, seem to have been felt as a serious grievance. The restrictions on manufactures were no real hardship, as it was cheaper for the Americans to import articles from England than to make them for themselves. The greatest grievance which the colonies had against England was the character of the governors sent out. Too many of them were men of evil reputation, ruined at home, and looking upon their colonial governments merely as means of retrieving their fortunes."(16)

Quackenbos could not hold himself to the cold facts

16. Doyle, J. A., History of the United States, p. 219. Doyle was on the faculty of Yale at the time he wrote this history.
as did his immediate predecessors, but had to varnish them with an occasional flight of fancy."

"Causes of the American Revolution.

269. The people of America were descendants of men who had fled from oppression, and braved the hardships of the wilderness for the blessings of civil and religious liberty. They had endured incredible sufferings, and through their own unaided industry had at last prospered and grown strong. When poor and feeble, they had been neglected by the mother country; as soon as they became worth governing, Britain had sent them governors; and now that they were growing rich, she sought to increase her revenue by taxing them. A pretext was not wanting. Heavy expenses had been incurred by the home government for the protection of the colonies in the French and Indian War; and these, it was claimed, should be reimbursed. The commanders sent over had been generally incompetent, and much of their success was due to the colonial troops and officers who served under them; yet the Americans would not have objected to contributing their share, had they been allowed a voice in laying the tax or directing how it should be appropriated. Having no representatives in Parliament, however, they claimed that Parliament had no right to tax them."(17)

Mary Sheldon Barnes, in her unique way of quoting sources, said in her dramatic and forceful manner,—

"When Townshend, the king's prime minister, brought the Stamp Act into Parliament, and asked the members to make it a law, he made a speech

* The number at the beginning of the paragraph was for the purpose of locating the answers to the questions at the bottom of the page.

in which he asked:

'Will these American children, planted by our care, nourished up to strength—by our indulgence, and protected by our arms, grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy burden under which we lie?'

"Barre, who had been the friend and companion of Wolfe at Quebec, sprang to his feet and replied:

'Children planted by your care! No! your oppression planted them in America;—they nourished up by your indulgence; they grew by your neglect of them. As soon as you began to care about them that care was exercised in sending persons to rule over them—whose behaviour, on many occasions, has caused the blood of those sons of liberty to recoil within them.'

"But in spite of Barre's gallant speech, the Parliament voted that the Stamp Act should become law." (18)

A tendency toward a more definite presentation of facts was seen. The patriotic propaganda persisted but there was appearing a hint of a possibility that England may not entirely have been to blame; one author even suggested, in all reverence, that God was responsible.

"Providence so designed it." (page 245)

History Texts Between 1895 and 1916

About 1895 the history texts started to improve greatly thanks first, to the criticisms and suggestions of the investigating committees of the N. E. A. and A. H. A., and later to the influence of Dewey. Carman said in re-

"J. B. McMaster's 'History of the People of the United States' was indicative of an approaching change and broader outlook, as was also A. B. Hart's 'The American Nation'."(19)

One of the earliest and best known authors of this period was Piske. His History of the United States published in 1894 still remains on many book-shelves. His style was simple, straightforward and very partisan, or we might say "American".

"Causes of ill Feeling between England and her Colonies.

"When European nations began to plant colonies in America, they treated them in accordance with a theory which prevailed until it was upset by the American Revolution. According to this ignorant and barbarous theory, a colony was a community which existed only for the purpose of enriching the country which had founded it; and the great object in founding a colony was to create a dependent community for the purpose of trading with it. People's ideas about trade were very absurd. It was not understood that when two parties trade with each other freely, both must be gainers, or else one would soon stop trading. It was supposed that in trade, just as in gambling or betting when the one party gains the other loses. Accordingly, laws were made to regulate trade, so that, as far as possible, all the loss might fall upon the colonies, and all the gain accrue to the mother country. For this purpose, the colonies were required to confine their trade entirely to Great Britain. No American colony could send its rice, or its indigo, or its tobacco
to France or to Holland, or anywhere except to
Great Britain; nor could it buy a yard of French
silk, or a pound of Chinese tea, except from
British merchants. Then, although American ships
might take goods over to England, the carrying
trade between the different colonies was by law
confined to British ships."(20)

McMaster showed his fair-mindedness and impartial
spirit in the calm statement of both sides of the question.

"Summary.

As soon as Great Britain acquired Canada
and the eastern part of the Mississippi valley
from France, and Florida from Spain, she did
three things:

A. 
B. 

C. She decided to send a standing or
permanent army to America to take possession of
the new territory and defend the colonies.
1. A part of the cost of keeping up this
army she decided to meet by taxing the colo-
nists. This she had never done before.
2. The chief tax was the stamp duty on
paper, vellum, etc. This the colonists refused
to pay, and Parliament repealed it.
3. The colonists having denied the right
of Parliament to tax them, that body determined
to establish its right and passed the 'Townshend
Acts'. But the colonists refused to buy British
goods, and Parliament repealed all the Townshend
duties except that on tea.
4. As the Americans would not order tea
from London, the East India Company was allowed
to send it. But the people in the five cities
to which the tea was sent destroyed it or sent
it back.
5. Parliament thereupon attempted to
punish Massachusetts and passed the Intoler-
able Acts.

20. Fiske, John, A History of the United States,
pp. 181-192.
6. These acts led to the calling and meeting of the First Continental Congress." *(21) 

Montgomery prefaced the causes of the Revolution with a brief character sketch of King George.

"The accession of George III (1760) produced a great change in political affairs both in England and in the colonies. The new sovereign was well meaning, patriotic, and conscientious, but narrow-minded, obstinate, and subject to attacks of mental derangement. When he came to the throne he found the government in the hands of a few great Whig families. George was determined to be king in fact as well as in name. He resolved to break down the power of the old Whig party, to raise up a body of men in Parliament, who as the 'king's friends' would vote as he should direct, and he also resolved to make his own arbitrary will supreme not only at home but throughout British America.

"That determination was vigorously resisted on both sides of the Atlantic. The struggle which ended triumphantly for the American patriots was in truth part of the same revolution which was fought in England by other patriots in the halls of Parliament. In spirit Pitt, Burke, and Fox were the allies of Franklin, Adams, and Washington." *(22) 

Hart was especially forceful in the carrying out of the new policy of shifting the blame from the English nation to the English king and his henchmen.

* This concise manner of stating facts is the same as seen in the chapter which this summarises. The summary was used instead of extracts from the chapter as the same thought was expressed in fewer words.

"Quarrel With the Mother Country

This period from 1760 to 1765 is a turning point in the history of both England and America, for it marks the beginning of a feeling of hostility between these two parts of the British Empire. The first strong and positive sovereign since William III was the young George III, who came to the throne in 1760, and said, in a public address, 'Born and bred in this country, I glory in the name of Briton'—for a long time the king by shrewd means—was able to keep in the House of Commons a majority, usually called 'the king's friends'."(25)

Mace did not show the progressive historical spirit which actuated Hart. He laid the fundamental cause of the Revolution at the door of Great Britain.

"The acts of Great Britain which follow were the immediate causes of hostility toward England and of the rapid growth of union among the colonies. The colonists claimed that they were Englishmen, and entitled to all the rights of the British constitution, as if they had been 'abiding and born within the realm of England'."24

The style of narrative had become simpler and more straightforward. The partisan bias was strong in some texts, but was lessening in others.

History Texts After 1917

The conversational style of the history texts during the fourth period might safely be called superior in

readability to any which had gone before. The propaganda still persisted but in a more understanding way. It had the apparent purpose of encouraging a faith in our institutions and our political, social, industrial, and educational progress. Kelty, in speaking of the present trends, said,—

"In history we see a shift from the usual accounts of wars and political administrations to discussions of industrial and commercial development. It is odd that in a democracy like the United States, dedicated to a political policy of anti-imperialism, spending but a small proportion of its time in fighting, it has taken so long to discover that the history material in the schools was largely purposeless.——

The development of natural resources, of transportation, of manufacturing, of commerce and trade, has contributed the bulk of what the United States is, but little mention is made of these things in the common school history."25

Again Kelty in much the same spirit said,

"Political, constitutional, and military history are being subordinated to social and economic elements, and the detailed biographies of kings and statesmen are being cut down to allow for a study of the 'common man'."(26)

Only four of the accounts of the "Causes of the Revolution" were considered in this period as the use of that topic for propaganda purposes had practically ceased. It

will be seen by reading the quotations from these accounts that a broader interpretation of the whole movement prevailed.

The first author considered was Hart. Although his book was published in 1917, he had more progressive ideas than some who wrote later.

"Considering the prosperity of the English colonies and the freedom of their government, we often wonder that as soon as the French and Indian War was over, they began to get into trouble with the home government; and that after about ten years of friction and strife, they revolted and set up a government for themselves. To this day, it is not easy to see just why the colonies felt so dissatisfied. They professed and doubtless felt the warmest attachment to the king, whom God and Parliament had provided for them. They read English books, wore English clothes, and felt high respect for English visitors. After the crisis, John Adams said that nobody in the colonies had desired or planned independence before the Revolution. The great reason for the division of the British Empire into two parts seems to be that the colonists were so free and did so many things for themselves that they could not see why they should not be relieved from almost all restraints."(27)

Beard opened the chapter dealing with the causes of the Revolution with the familiar personality sketch of King George. He quoted a description given of him by Macaulay, the English historian.

"The young king was a born Englishman. All his tastes, good and bad, were English. No portion of his subjects had anything to reproach him with.---His age, his appearance, and all

Nevertheless George III had been spoiled by his mother, his tutors, and his courtiers. Under their influence he developed high and mighty notions about the sacredness of royal authority and his duty to check the pretensions of Parliament and the ministers dependent upon it."(28)

After discussing the new course in the British imperial policy he concluded with the doctrine of conciliation offered by Burke and the way it was received by the King and Parliament.

"The right way, indicated by Burke, was equally impossible to George III and the majority in Parliament. To their narrow minds, American opinion was contemptible and American resistance unlawful, riotous, and treasonable. The correct way, in their view, was to dispatch more troops, to crush the 'rebels'; and that very act took the contest from the realm of opinion. As John Adams said: 'Facts are stubborn things.' Opinions were unseen, but marching soldiers were visible to the veriest street urchin. 'Now,' said Gouverneur Morris, 'the sheep, simple as they are, cannot be gulled as heretofore.' It was too late to talk about the excellence of the British constitution."(29)

Beard and Bagley gave a somewhat different presentation in their text from the one given by Beard and Beard. Probably because they were writing for younger students.

29. Ibid., p. 97.
"It so happened that a new king, George III, came to the throne in 1760, just as France was being conquered and England was preparing to manage the colonies in a new way. George's mother had told him that he should 'be King', and he tried his best to do so. He wanted to have his way, and he had it. His Parliament represented only a small number of his subjects, for the mass of the people could not vote; by bribery and other means he was nearly always able to get a majority of members to support his plans. He was by nature willful and arbitrary and the idea of bringing the Americans to terms thoroughly pleased his fancy.---- A huge debt had been incurred in the recent war and money was needed for the treasury. The king and his ministers therefore decided to secure a firm- or grip on the American colonies and to make them pay a part of the cost of defense."(30)

The last of these texts to be considered in this study was Mussey. He differed little from the others in thought; his style might be called rather dramatic for this period.

"The Complex Nature of the Revolution.

The curtain had hardly fallen on the first act of American history, the establishment and triumph of the English race in the New World—when it rose on the second act, short but intense; namely, the American Revolution. This great event cannot be explained by any such simple phrase as 'British tyranny' or 'taxation without representation' or 'the agitation of demagogues' or 'the natural rights of man', though all these played their part in it. The roots of the Revolution were deep and they grew out of a soil prepared for generations by the relation of the colonies to the mother country. John Adams at the age of eighty wrote that the causes of the Revolution were 'to be traced back for two hundred years and sought in the history of the country from the first plantation in

Araorioa •1  Vio have soon how the colonists cherished their chartered privileges, how they resented laws of Parliament which interfered with their commerce, and how they resisted the attempts of royal governors to control their elected assemblies. And now, as we study the succession of events which led directly to the break with England, we shall realise that it was not a sudden spirit of rebellion that animated the colonies but a deep-seated determination to defend age-long liberties which they saw threatened."(31)

The texts of this period were found pleasing to read and the propaganda of a helpful rather than a destructive nature.

Summarising the results of the study of the changes in the style and purpose of the narrative as discovered in the text-books quoted—it was seen that the style of presentation had developed gradually into an easy-flowing, conversational method of presentation much better adapted to the enjoyment and understanding of the youthful readers. The propaganda purpose continued but with a much broader outlook than formerly. Instead of trying to stir up strife and encourage bigotry it was devoted to creating a better understanding of the economic conditions of the day and encouraging a feeling of comradeship between the two great English speaking nations.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

From the data in the preceding chapters the conclusion has been reached that there were trends in the teaching of history.

First, -- in the resume of history instruction in the United States, a trend was shown toward giving the subject independent recognition. This resulted in either making it the core of the curriculum or giving it a place of importance equal to the other subjects. The teaching of history progressed from the humble place of an aid to the study of Latin to one of dignity and independence in the curriculum; the time given to its study extended from an occasional course to a fixed program in every year of the elementary and secondary schools; the programs, which in the early years did not exist except through the interest of the preachers or untrained teachers of the day, were, by the close of the period, being scientifically constructed by committee procedure.

Second, -- there was a trend toward a broader inter-
pretation of aims and objectives and a general agreement as to the need for a goal of attainment. Practically all of the aims and objectives mentioned in 1932 such as good citizenship, moral training, understanding of institutions, cultivation of judgment, tolerance, historical mindedness, group membership, preparation for intellectual enjoyment, and appreciation of change were present when history first made its entrance into the curriculum. A tendency toward making training for citizenship the broad aim was seen; the popularity of the ethical aim continued; the religious and mental-discipline aims were dropped; and the scholarly and patriotic aims were interpreted in broader terms.

Third,—there was a trend toward a scientific method of procedure in teaching. The method of instruction progressed from a haphazard plan of memorization to a definite method of instruction, which resulted in the attainment of pre-determined values and in the overcoming of scientifically ascertained pupil difficulties. The plan of procedure once decided by the personal opinion of the untrained teacher was determined by the scientific experimentation of recognised educators.

Fourth,—in the matter of teacher-training there was a trend toward an extensive general training and an intensive specialisation in the subject taught. The teacher requirements were raised from one of inclination to "keep school" to a definite and high standard of certification.
The opportunities offered for preparation and advancement increased from a school of rote-learning to well defined courses in normal schools and colleges of higher learning especially designed to give comprehensive training both in subject matter and professional technique. Finally, a trend toward an agreement, between the different colleges, as to what constituted a well-trained teacher was shown.

Fifth,—the text-books showed a trend from wordy discussions of wars and administrations to concrete treatments of great historical movements as caused by industrial and commercial developments. A tendency to minimise the part played by the hero and emphasise the work done by the common man was shown. The use of the past as merely a record of events was changed to its broader use as an interpreter of the present. There was a trend toward pupil consideration in the construction of the text. His interest was stimulated by improving the text's legibility and adding illustrations and supplementary helps, his ultimate good was considered in stressing those things which would prove of most value to him in his life as an adult citizen.

Summarizing,—there was a steady growth in the curricular importance of history, a widening interest in the aims and objectives, a continual improvement in methods of teaching, an increasing of opportunities for teacher-training, and an improvement in the text books.
Yet with all these trends toward a larger and better history course the fact remained that it was being poorly taught. Through every period considered, there was a criticism of the teacher and her seeming inability to keep up with the standard set for her achievement. Her lack of preparation was reiterated throughout the more than a century studied.

Recommendations

Considering the data of the preceding chapters and the conclusions stated it would seem advisable for the prospective teacher or the teacher-in-service to acquaint herself with the requirements of her special line of endeavor and to raise herself to the standard of efficiency expected as soon as practicable. This efficiency could probably be gained through a broad general training in content and method, improved by specialization with more definite training, and kept up to date by continual study, reading, travel, and a general alertness. She should have a knowledge of the general and specific aims of each course which she intends to teach and a workable idea of the best methods of procedure. She should keep in touch with the ever increasing historical questions and take advantage of the continual improvement in the technique of instruction.
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