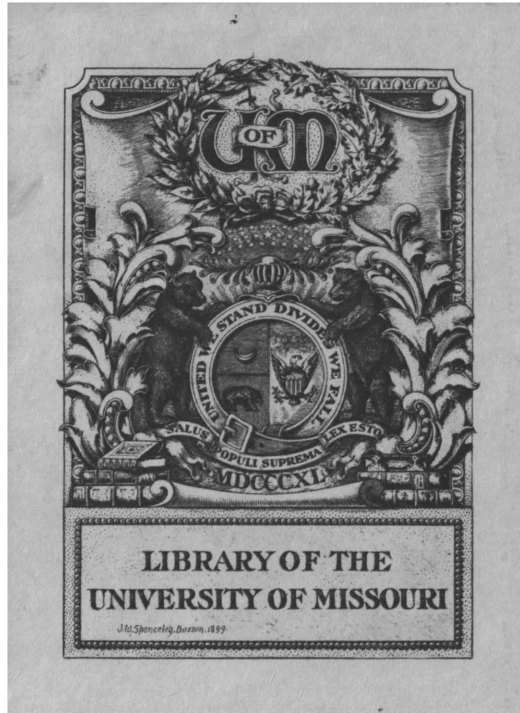


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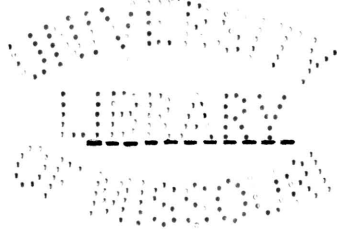
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Form 26

HISTORICAL DATA IN THE STUDY
of
PRESENT-DAY PROBLEMS

by

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SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
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J. L. Merriam*

Preface.

Any one who has read, in educational literature of recent years, the endless discussions as to what is the proper plan of studying history in the high school, or what is the chief aim of the study, whether history should be studied primarily for disciplinary values or general culture or to meet college requirements, - discussions that reach as many conclusions as there are writers on the subject, must have recognized the absence of some definite principles as a guide.

Out of this unrest in part, and in part out of an examination of some dozen or so of text-books on Mediaeval and Modern history has grown the plan of study that is described in this paper.

The general plan is that the proposing of purposes and the raising of problems by pupils should precede the study of historic facts, and that facts should be chosen in the light of their bearing on the problems in hand. That is, instead of giving pupils texts to interpret, give them problems to interpret or appreciate by the use of historic facts.

It is my desire rather to raise the problem of teaching history longitudinally, as it is called in this paper, than to advocate it.

For the original idea of the plan proposed I am indebted to the University Elementary School where the plan

is in operation, and especially to Dr. J. L. Meriam
under whose direction this paper has been written.

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Chapter I

Criticism of Text-Books.

The plan of arrangement of material in text-books, recommended by the highest authorities ^a in this country as the best plan of presenting history, is in the main that of the chronological order. In the "block system" history is divided into four periods or blocks: Ancient history, Mediaeval and Modern European History, English History, and American History and Civics. This plan of division has been followed by recent writers of texts so that our high-school courses are practically all presented in this way.

The different blocks have been still further analyzed by teachers of history, and syllabi put into the hands of students showing the principal topics discussed in the text. The result is that a somewhat uniform method of presenting history has been introduced into all the high-schools in the country which give a four-year course.

The block system is so logically arranged, so simple in structure and so perfectly adjusted to the higher courses in history given in college and universities that it has met with a very popular approval. Teachers from different quarters have expressed their gratitude for it. A great many syllabi ^b have gone so far in their

a. Committee of Ten, p.175,162. Committee of Seven, p.34-43.

b. New England Teachers Association Syllabus. New York State Syllabus, 1905.

outlines as to indicate the per cent of the time that shall be given to the different topics.

But what is the inference of such a logical arrangement ? There is so much history that must be learned and there is just so much time to learn it. What is the purpose of such an expenditure of time and energy? It is clear, in this clean-cut logical arrangement, that knowledge of the facts of history is the end aimed at. The facts of history must be learned and this logical arrangement will aid the pupil in transferring the facts of history from the printed page to his mind. The whole scheme is a purely intellectual one. No account is taken of the human sentiments or aspirations that have left the records that are so studiously laid out before the pupil.

Since the aim of history is purely an intellectual one, namely, knowledge of the events of the past, it is easy to see how all sense of relative values of events is blurred in one jumble of facts. It is only when a fact is seen in its relations to a principle, or practice, or custom, or problem that it comes to have meaning. As a fact, it is of no value except in its relations. If we have a correct idea of the purpose of history then a fact is valuable when it throws light on present social institutions. "History for history's sake" has no place in modern life. The attempt to get all history into the course then is based upon the assumption that knowledge is the

end of study, that to this end all history is important and therefore must all be included in the text.

At this point in the plan, however, a problem arises for the writer of texts as well as ^{for} the teacher. All the history of one block cannot be learned in one year by the pupil, nor can it be put into a school text by the writer. Something must be left out. On what basis shall the elimination be made? Knowledge is the end, however, of study. Facts are the things of value and therefore must be included. So with knowledge as the end in view, and the learning of facts the means to that end, the text becomes what its name implies, a ^hronological compendium of history. The justification for such a dictionary of topics is, however, to be found in the statement of the Committee of Ten: "The history of any great country is so extensive that the schools can hardly expect to teach more than an outline."^a

In the wake of such a plan of organization follows a whole train of evils that must be briefly noted. It is enough now to indicate the general headings under which these criticisms will be offered. The first criticism has already been presented above, namely, that knowledge is considered the end of history study. These to follow are second, that texts are mere epitomes and generalizations

a. Committee of Ten, p. 176.

of the facts of history; third, that texts are little more than compendiums of facts wherein all relative values are lost; fourth, that texts are cross-sections of the stream of events in history, making it impossible to follow the struggle of the forces that entered into the formation of our social institutions; fifth, that too much time is given to the remote past; and sixth, that no consideration or opportunity is given for individual initiative.

The second criticism is that texts are epitomes and generalizations of the great factors that have made history. To verify this statement one needs examine only a few of the texts on any subject discussed. In this study chapters from ten different texts have been examined on the causes of the French Revolution and nine texts on the causes of the Crusades.^a An estimate has been made of the space given to the topics discussed. An examination of these tables will show that great factors in the causes of the Revolution are given fractional parts of a page. Harding gives one page to the character of the movement, one-half page to a discussion of the Ancient regime, two-fifth of a page to the extravagances of the Bourbon monarchy, slightly less than a page to the condition of the peasants, one-third of a page to the new philosophy, one-

^a. See Tables I, II, & III. at the end of this chapter.

fourth to Voltaire, one-sixth to Montesquieu, one-fifth to Rousseau, etc.

Take a single illustration, as the ancient régime, for consideration. What can a boy get out of reading a half page generalization on that subject? Or if he reads half a dozen other texts on the same subject? None of the description condensed to one-half page can attempt more than a generalization. But the boy is not capable of supplying the data from which the generalization came, without any previous study. He certainly cannot construct it from the generalization!

On this same topic, the ancient regime, Mathews writes eleven pages. On the subject of privileges he writes nineteen pages, on the philosophy of Voltaire, Rousseau and Montesquieu he writes twenty pages. If there is any doubt as to which is the more readable discussion an experiment with a class will be convincing.

A similar study is presented of the space given by different authors to different causes of the crusades. An examination of this table, or ^{of} the books discussed, will verify the indictment made, that texts are mere epitomes or generalizations understood only in so far as the premises of the generalization are known.

A third cause of unsatisfactory results in teaching history from the average text is that the relative values of different movements are not emphasized. Too much is at-

tempted. Harding has six hundred and nineteen topics in his Mediaeval and Modern ^{History}, an average of nearly four a day during the school year. An examination of the subject matter of a single topic may be made from Table I. Rousseau is given one-fifth of a page ! Why mention him at all if he has contributed nothing worth explaining to the student? The same may be said of every topic discussed under causes of the French Revolution.

Such a jumble of facts destroys all sense of relative importance in the mind of the student. He goes from one meaningless generalization to another without seeing the solution of this problem. He is lost in the maze. He soon has no problem. To him there are no great problems, no great movements to be solved. Instead a broad plain or desert, if you will, stretches out before him where nothing stands out in particular.

The writer of the history texts has taken the position that knowledge is the end of Education, that one fact is as valuable as another, that all of it must be learned. Such an attitude toward facts, toward knowledge as an end of study, accounts in great measure for the large number of different topics discussed in school histories. If the standard of selection of topics were made from the functional point of view, if society were asked what it expects of history, if the value of a fact depended on its relation to purpose, the facts of history would have rel

ative values, the jumble of events would be replaced by an orderly arrangement of historical ^{facts} functioning in a definite problem.

A fourth cause of unsatisfactory results in teaching from the usual texts is that these books present history in cross-sections. It is static history. No one thinks in cross-sections when he is working out a problem as a means of realizing a definite end. One story teller does not tell the first paragraph of his story and then wait for eleven other story tellers to introduce their stories before he tells the second part of his story. Edison does not work an hour or a day on one experiment and then eleven following days on as many different experiments before he takes up the first again. No one can do effective work in that way. Any one can demonstrate the truth of these statements by an examination of his own plan of working out his own purpose or ideals.

Further, the text is incomplete. No one institution or practice of history is treated, even in the cross-section style, in a way that its history can be followed out. Take the growth in constitutional government, systems of taxation, growth of industry or commerce, and it is impossible to trace their continuity. Long periods between these cross-section views are left out entirely. One gets a glimpse of some of the methods of taxation during the period preceding the French Revolution. Adams,

in his Mediaeval and Modern History, mentions taxation as one of the causes of the Revolution but does not touch the subject again. The Revolutions of 1830 and 1848 come on but no mention is made of taxation. He calls the reader's attention to the facts that constitutions were made in 1791 and in 1795 but as to how they differed from the old regime or from each other, or as to what changes they proposed he is silent. So that it is impossible to trace the history of any one institution in the ordinary text.

There is a fifth objection to our school texts. They deal too much with the past. The progress made in the last century has in many lines been greater than in all preceding ages. It has seen the rise of the great commercial and industrial world, the change from absolute to constitutional and democratic government, the freedom of the lower classes, the education of a whole people, a revolution in living conditions of men, the dawn of universal peace. And yet our histories go on teaching the petty squabbles of the Greeks, the Romans, the barbarians and their kings, just as tho they were more important to the youth of America than the things of our own civilization. They should be left for the scientific historian to enrich his museum.

The few pages that are given by some of our histories to modern problems show that there is no space for

modern questions. A few pages must contain everything condensed to the vanishing point. Take a single illustration from Harding's chapter on Great Britain in the nineteenth century. He gives one page to the Reform Bill of 1832, one-fourth of a page to Reform in Criminal Law, one-fifth of a page to slavery and reforms, the great question of factory reforms one-third of a page, Poor Laws and repeal one-third of a page. He discusses the corn laws, their purpose, effect on common people, the potato famine and repeal of corn laws, fall of the Peel cabinet, and England's change to a free trade policy, all in twenty-seven lines.

The Gladstone reforms from 1869-1879: the establishing of a system of elementary education in England (1870), the abolition of religious tests at Oxford and Cambridge Universities (1871), the introduction of the secret ballot (1872), an act reorganizing the great law courts (1873), the Irish Land Act (1870), all are mentioned, not discussed, in less than ten lines. The Irish Land question is given one-half page and the Irish Land Act of 1881 is mentioned with no explanation of what it was. The author explains the results in this sentence: " The Irish Land Act of 1881 did much good, but fell short of the demands of the Irish Party ".

Gladstone's Home Rule policy is mentioned together with the statement that one political party favored it

and the other opposed it, and that the bill was defeated. The student is left to imagine what the Home Rule policy was, what its advocates hoped to gain by it, and why it was defeated. What more can the student do than remember words? No data for generalization are given, hardly a clue at the general purport of the measure. Only a person acquainted with the underlying facts can read such generalities understandingly.

Or to state the argument from another point of view and in more general terms, yet no less convincing, we have the following portion of the study given in the text system to remote past history: All of ancient history, ~~one unit~~, three-fourths to four-fifths of Medieval and Modern history, three-fourths to four-fifths of English history, three-fourths to four-fifths of American history, given to discussing questions prior to eighteen hundred. If this means anything at all it means that by following the text-book system of teaching history eighty to eighty-five per cent of the study is given to history remote in time from one hundred to three thousand years.

Enough has been said to indicate the line of argument for the criticism made. Those interested in the question may examine for themselves the reading matter that is offered to our high school pupils by the writers of our school texts.

The sixth cause of unsatisfactory results in teaching from the present text-books is that inadequate opportunity is given for individual initiative. The text must be learned whether one finds it interesting or not. Facts are necessary to "train the judgement",^a therefore they must be acquired. Such a plan of learning violates all the laws of the learning process. The individual learns by setting up ideals and then working out the means of attaining them. The facts of history are records of the means men have used in working out their aims and ideals. The events happened but once but the struggles of men to hold up their ideals and to protect their institutions continue .

Learning, therefore, is the result of projecting ideals and then working out the means of their realization. If this view of learning is correct then the text which makes no provision for such a process, but, instead, proposes knowledge as the aim and sets for the student the task of attaining to knowledge thru an intellectual process instead of normal activity, is not working on correct principles. Is it any wonder then that students go thru a four-year course of history and come out with but little knowledge and less interest in the subject of their four years study? The Committee of Ten finds

a. Committee of Ten , p. 168.

consolation in the statement that a general outline is all that they expect.^a Besides the students will have had mental discipline that will function later!

Finally, the text-writer has treated his subject as a pure science. He cares nothing for the use of facts but treats all alike, simply as facts. To illustrate: The scientist analyzes light into its elements and tabulates the results. He is not even interested in its use to light his laboratory. That is, he abstracts light from its uses when he studies it from the point of view of pure science. The chemist works in the same way. He abstracts things from their uses in the world and studies their elements and the laws of their combinations and tabulates the results of his discoveries. It is for the agriculturalist, or the manufacturer, or the physician to find uses for the results of his study.

Just as the agriculturalist goes to chemistry for the answers to certain problems connected with the means of improving his ability to farm successfully, so the ordinary youth of America goes to history for answers to the problems of political, industrial, social, economic phases of the community life in which he lives. For the agriculturalist the things pertaining to his industry are separated from the great field of chemistry; but for the

a. Committee of Ten, p. 176.

youth who inquires as a citizen for light on certain practices of society are prepared volumes of instruction or of records on all the events and facts of the history of the past. No regard is given to his questions as is given to the agriculturist.

Now the text-writer is responsible for such a situation. He has appropriated the principle forced upon him by tradition that knowledge is the ideal, that "History for History's sake" is the reason for its study. Following such a principle history study has become the drudgery of the school work.

Summary:- We have seen that one of the causes of poor results in teaching comes from defects of texts. These defects are given in seven classes.

First, texts are too often mere generalizations and epitomes of all the incidents that have resulted from the great spiritual forces that have been at work in European history. These generalizations, too, follow no law of sequence but are mere plunder heaps of dead material.

Second, in this jumble of topics in text-books often from 600 to 800 in number, all sense of relative values is lost. It is more a chronology of events than a history of progress.

Third, the continuity and differentiation of history become impossibilities in studying history in static

cross-sections. The growth of no single institution can be traced. Problems raised or interests evoked cannot be followed out. The next topic must have ^{the} students' attention instead.

Fourth, too much space in European history is given to remote periods, and the rapid survey of modern history is only a catalog of the great activities of the last century. The youth of today must meet the problems of our complex civilization and pass judgement upon them. He is interested in the past only in so far as the past helps him to solve the problems of the present. The ordinary man has but little time to give to the study of the institutions of modern society and the writer of texts should lead him to these problems as soon as possible.

Fifth, inadequate opportunity is given for individual initiative. The texts and syllabi propose the topic and specify the time the students shall give to its study.

Sixth, knowledge is set as the object of study and to that end methods and plans are arranged to stimulate the students to aim at analyzing and relating facts of history.

Finally, the texts are written from the point of view of the pure scientist and therefore are abstractions, especially for the immature student. The desires,

feelings, aspirations and interests of the pupils are ignored. Only the intellectual element is given, and that not by accident but because tradition says that "knowledge is power". And since this is true all alike, without regard for individuality, must get knowledge. Since knowledge means "The truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth", all of it must be given by the writer of the text! Is it any wonder that a boy fails to remember such a dictionary of abstractions!

Table I. shows the amount of space given to discussing various causes of the French Revolution in nine popular high school text-books on Mediaeval and Modern History of Europe. For example, Rousseau is given one-fifth of a page by Harding, three-fourths of a page by Myers, one-half a page by Robinson, etc.

Table II. gives the amount of space given to the causes of the French Revolution in Mathews' French Revolution. Compare with the space given to causes in Table I.

Table III. is a similar comparison of space given by different authors to causes of the Crusades.

French Revolution

Table I.

- 17 -

Spending - medieval and modern history	1	Character of the movement
West - modern history of Europe	1/2	Ancient Regime, government, etc.
Myers - medieval and modern history	2/5	Extravagance of the Bourbon monarchy.
Chabok and Schmidt	1/2	Privileges of nobility
Annual list of Europe	1/2	Privileges of Clergy.
Robinson - West - Europe	1/3	Third Estate, Condition of Peasants; taxation.
Atkins, G. B. - medieval and modern history	1/2	New Philosophy
Colby - General history of Europe	1/4	Voltaire
Bourne - medieval and modern history	1/6	Montesquieu
Whitcomb - modern Europe	1/5	Rousseau
	1/2	Bad financial conditions and reforms.
	1/2	Estates-General from May 5 th to Tennis Court.
	1/2	Fall of Bastille.
	1/2	Bringing Royal family to Paris.
	1/2	Formation of National Guards.
	1/2	Constitution of 1791.
	1/2	King's flight and capture; effect.
	1/2	influence of American Rev. on French Revolution.
	1/2	Abolition of Privileges.
	1/2	Confiscation of Church Property; assignats.
	1/2	Rights of man.
	1/2	Finances under Necker, Colom, Lacroix.
	1/2	Parlement
	1/2	Cashiers ?

Table II.

Mathews - French Revolution.

Causes:

Absolute monarchy	11 pages.
Privileged and unprivileged classes	19 "
Extravagance and moral degeneracy of higher class	10 1/2 "
Higher clergy	10 "
Intellectual and Philosophical { Voltaire Rousseau Montesquieu }	20 "
Finances and Reforms, Colonne, Necker, Jurgot	10 "
Bankruptcy and calling Estates General	9 "
King taken to Paris	4 1/2 "
Abolition of Privilege	8 1/2 "
Taking the Bastille	6 "
King's flight and its effects	2 1/2 "

Crusades

Table III

Robinson - Western Europe	Adams 29.13 - Medieval and Modern History	Handley - Medieval and Modern History	Sergueev - Medieval and Modern History	Munro - History of Middle Ages	Platcher and Schmitt - General Hist. of Europe	Emerton - Pre- classical History	Bourne - Medieval and Modern History	Bonst and Horns - Medieval Europe
1/3	1/4	3/4	1/3	1	1/3	1/6	1/3	1/2
1/8	1/4	1/4	1/5	1/3	1	1/6	1/3	1/3
1/5	1/5	1/9	1/9	1	1/3	1/10	1/3	
3/9	1/9	1/9	5/6	3/4	1	1/6	1/3	
2/9	1/8	1/8	1/8	1	1/2	1	1/3	
2/5	1/8	1/8	1/8	1	1/2		1/3	
2/9	1/6	1/8	1/8	3/4	1/3		1/6	3/5
2/3	1/4	1/2	5/6	1/2	1/3		1/3	1/2
2/8	1/4	2/5	1/5	1/2	1/3	2/3	1/3	5/6
1/3	1/4	1/10	1/3	1/2	1/3	5/6	1/3	1/4
2/5	1/4	1	1/4	1	1/4	3/4	2/5	1/2
						2/4		
1/2								
1								
1/6								

Importance of the Crusades.

Turks and Arabs in the Holy Land, Asia Minor and Spain.

Alexius' appeal to the Pope; reasons.

Causes: Urban II, superstition, asceticism.

Mohammedan Civilization and Prosperity.

Motives of Crusaders.

Organization of Crusaders.

Privileges of Crusaders and promises to them.

Peter The Hermit; his army and failure.

Knights and Princes: Raymond, Godfrey, Baldwin & army.

Hostilities between Greeks and Crusaders.

Capture of Antioch; Quarrels among leaders.

Capture of Jerusalem, Godfrey chosen ruler.

Founding Latin Kingdoms, Acre, Sidon, other towns.

Military Orders.

Hospitallers

Templars

Teutonic Knights.

CHAPTER 11.

Methods of Teaching History.

In his Psychological Foundations, the late William T. Harris has indicated, in a chapter on "Curriculum and its Coefficients", the plan of presenting history that seems to meet the approval of most history teachers as well as writers. The whole field of history is to be covered three times: once in the elementary school, again in the high school, and again and finally in the college or university. In the elementary school the bare outlines of history will be the chief object of study. A few facts will be gathered and the symbols of history will become familiar. In the high school the interpretation of facts and the recognition of movements and the causes leading to the formation of principles will receive attention. That is, the student will do considerable constructive work in organizing the material of history. In the university for four years of continued work in history he may organize the facts in their relations to institutions, and organize these institutional forces in relation to one another. Eight years in the elementary school to acquaint one's self with the symbols and formalities of history and the gathering a few facts; four years in the high school for collecting and organizing facts in sequences and cause and effect relations; four years in the university to coordinate system of facts into laws, principles

and institutions and to see the interrelations of these institutions, is, in rough outline, the plan proposed.

In this method it will be seen that no account is taken of the individual. All must take the same time and the same course. A boy finishing the history course at eighteen would still be uneducated. He has not had time to take in and properly organize and systematize his knowledge. He has been forced, on account of his youth, to use secondary school methods. To be educated he must still continue his work in the company of great teachers.

It is evident from his outline that Dr. Harris believes that the whole field of history must be covered, that all facts of the past must be considered before one is properly educated to do his life's work or to take his place in society with his fellows. Knowledge is the end of study. In the words of Professor H. Morse Stephens, "History for history's sake."

In the study of methods we shall first consider those of the advocates of history for history's sake or knowledge as the end of study. It is evident that the Committee of Ten based its plan on this concept of history. All history is to be studied. Let us look again at what the committee considers the function of history. ^a Is it not all intellectual? (1) The acquirement of useful facts, (2) chief object the training of the judgement, (3) selecting grounds of opinion, (4) the accumulation of material for

a) Report of Committee of Ten; National Educational Association, pp 166-177.

opinions, (5) putting things together, (6) generalizing upon facts, (7) estimating character, (8) the application of history to current events, and finally (9) to teach expression. No further argument is necessary to show that all of the purposes mentioned point to intellectualism, to knowledge as the end of study.

The method pursued naturally follows. History is divided into four blocks for the convenience of the four-year high school. Each block contains a year's work. The student goes over the whole field regardless of the ground covered in the elementary school. In the university the field of history is covered again. In the elementary school events more or less striking are given; in the high school more attention is given to relating facts and principles or movements, in the university the attention is centered on the interpretation of events in the larger movements of history, the great institutions of society. This last completes the plan in the study of history.

The plan, as has been said, contemplates a study of history for all students thru all the schools. For those students who are interested in other lines no provision is made. The assumption, however, that all students will take the four blocks fails to meet actual situations. Of those who complete four years of high school work and come to the university (of Missouri) many have only one or two units of history. But what shall we expect of

those who are not preparing for college or who can spend only two or three years in high school? How does the block system fit them for citizenship? Say one studies Greek and Roman history one year, how will that aid him in meeting and solving the problems of society? Or, if he follows that study up with a year in Mediaeval and Modern history, the second block, what phases of our complex life of industry, politics, society and religion will that prepare him to solve to the best interests of the society or state in which he lives?

An examination of the units of history offered for entrance to the University of Missouri in 1911 by high school graduates is evidence that the block system is not suited to present conditions. Many students presented one and two units of history. The average was only about three units.^a Industrial and Manual Training high school students, in many cases, had taken only one or two units. Further, it is the opinion of many teachers of history in colleges that high school pupils get but little history even when they study it for four years. They have learned something of history in outline, have learned how to use books and how to study, but have no mastery of any of the principles to be learned from history.

a. See Table IV., page 31.

This is a very serious condition of affairs for the high school students whose education is dependent on the high school. Many are not even graduates of the high school. The courses contemplated by the block system, however, are to be finished in a higher school. In this respect they are unsuited to the average student for he cannot continue his study in a higher school or is interested in some other line of study.

Therefore the block system is suited neither to the high school student who does not continue his study in college, nor to the college student whose interests lead him into vocational or professional studies where history is not required.

For whom then is this course suited? A large per cent of high school pupils never finish the course. It is not for them. Those interested in industries and professions that do not require history do not continue history in college. So it is not for them. Those specializing in history will continue the work in the college and therefore it is suited to them.

If our argument is correct then the block system of presenting history contemplates the training of specialists in history. But since the number of specialists is very small the system is not suited to the average high school student.

For the class-room work there are various methods

advocated by teachers of history. The fact that so many devices are proposed indicates the difficulty teachers find in arousing interest in the subject. The Committee of Ten recommends the use of several texts so that pupils may acquire the habit of comparison.^a In reference to memory, the committee says (Resolution 21), "The pupils should be required to read or learn one other account besides that of the text, on each lesson." This resolution is in perfect accord with what the committee deems the function of history: "To sum up, one object of historical study is the acquirement of facts, but the chief object is the training of the judgement" (mental discipline).^b

Other methods suggested are to require much written work, "reports on collateral reading", analysis of books or chapters read, reading good literature bearing on the topic or period, collecting pictures, teaching historical geography, school debates on historical subjects, etc.^c Model plans are mentioned where history is taught in connection with literature, where teachers arbitrarily omit parts of the history, where a text is used as a guide because of its systematic arrangement, etc. The committee further states that it recommends the methods now in use

a. Committee of Ten, p. 189; b. ib, p.170;

c. Committee of Ten, pp. 162-85.

by good history teachers, whatever that may be.^a

The Committee of Seven speaks in more definite terms as to method. "History, unlike other subjects in the curriculum, is a subject to be studied for its own sake and not merely for disciplinary purposes.^(d)" Pleasure is also a great object. The accumulation of facts is not the sole, nor perhaps the leading, **purpose** of studying history."^b Here, as in the Committee of Ten, the attention is centered on the facts of history.

The Committee of Seven further recommends (1) that texts be used, (2) that outside material should be read so that pupils will learn how to use books and libraries, (3) that pupils should read and put into condensed form selections from Mommsen, Grote, Herodotus, etc., for the mental discipline,^c (4) that written recitations should be required because they "secure accuracy and definiteness of statement"- mental discipline, (5) that note-books should be kept for analyses of the text, notes on outside reading, analytical arrangement of most important topics, etc., (6) that maps, charts and geographical relations of events should be given attention so as to group historical figures around geographical centers, and, (7) finally

a. Ib. 200 - 1 ; b. Committee of Seven, p. 87-8 ;

c. Ib, p. 93 - 4.

d. Committee of Seven; Amer. Hist. Ass'n., p. 87.

that " The library should be the center and soul of all study in history and literature."^a

There are still other history teachers that advocate still other variations in method. One believes that the pupils should read the sources to get truth, or to test the truth of the text. Another believes that the different statements of the texts should be compared as to truth of statements. But enough has been said to indicate the methods used, or rather the lack of any definite method in presenting history from the point of view taken by the different authorities mentioned.

The topical outline method predominates in the schools. The syllabi prepared for teachers and students are widely used. This wide use indicates the general approval of them by teachers. A noticeable feature, however, of the topical outline method is that no guide is given to the selection of topics. The lengthy syllabus of the New England Teachers Association, an elaboration of the block system of the Committee of Seven, follows in the main the text-books on the periods. The Syllabus of the Secondary Schools of New York is also an outline of the text. The use of the outlines is recommended by many teachers on the principle that they direct the study, give perspective, aid the teacher, etc. But since the syllabus is an outline of the text and since the writers of texts and

a. Committee of Seven, p. 94-7.

makers of syllabi attempt to cover the whole field of history it is evident that the advocates of the topical outline plan and use of syllabi, are in accord with the "History-for-history's-sake" method.

We have now shown that not only the writers of texts but also the writers on method believe that it is the business of the high school to teach the facts in outline of all history. The facts must be transferred from the pages to the pupils mind. The general plan of attack has been to begin at the beginning, Greece usually, and gradually approach the present. The questions the teachers have asked themselves are, How much history is there to be known? How had the field best be divided so as to get all of it in? What method will enable the pupil to learn it most easily?

There is another factor to be reckoned with in the solution of this problem, the individual or the multiple of individuals- society? The impulse to study must come from the individual and must precede the study. Ideals are found in society. But method has been substituted for desires and ideals. The need of method is a recognition of the fact that pupils are not interested in history as it is presented to them. The result of this substitution of method for aims and ideals is fatigue, hatred of the subject, and failure more often than in any other high school subject. The methods used to force

history have had a tendency to cause slovenly habits of study, restlessness, pretended efforts, cramming for examinations, and other evils that are destructive to student enthusiasm.

Explanation of Table IV.

Table IV. shows the units of history offered by five hundred and sixty-three high school students who entered the University of Missouri in 1911. One student offered five units, thirty-one students offered four and one-half units, etc.

The block system of presenting history contemplates a continuous study of four units of history. The table made from the records shows that only about thirty-five per cent of the students that go to the university take the four-units course. More than one-fourth of the students take only two units or hours.

These figures show that the four years course scheme is ill-adjusted to actual conditions of school attendance. A great number of beginnings are made but nothing carried to completion by more than sixty-four per cent of the students who go to the university to say nothing of those who stop with the high school.

TABLE IV.

Number of units in list.	Number students.
5	1
4 1/2	31
4	170
3 1/2	53
3	133
2 1/2	25
2	112
1 1/2	17
1	18
0	3
Number of records examined	563
" " units offered	1,732
Per cent having 4 units or more	35
" " " less than 4 units	64
" " " 2 units or less	26

CHAPTER III.

Proposed Arrangement of Texts.

The field of history is large, overwhelmingly large, but when it is systematically classified the teacher is in a position to select that which has value even for the immature student. Without some different arrangement of the facts of history it is the contention of this paper that it is impossible to teach much of practical value.

The plan proposed of reconstructing texts^{lies} along the line of the criticisms offered in the chapter on texts. History will be arranged in longitudinal lines rather than in cross-sections. Those institutions, political, social, industrial, economic, educational, and religious that are found in modern life will be differentiated for study thru the long or short history of their past. The object then will be not to study the history of the past as such but to study the growth and development of particular phases of institutional life and the purposes in accordance with which they have developed. But to rediscover every step in the original development is to miss the point. It may be good history as history but not necessary for understanding and appreciating that institution. It must be remembered here that we are dealing with a high school problem not the science of history.

Further, it is not enough to understand primitive institutions. These institutions are factors in modern life to be understood, hence in modern life our problems begin.

The second phase of reconstruction is that the details of history, out of which generalizations have grown, must be given. That, of course, means that very much of what is included in present texts must be excluded, and that what is selected for longitudinal study must be supplemented. The standard of selection and rejection must be the bearing the historic material has on the subject or topic that is being studied.

And this naturally leads to the third phase of reconstruction, namely, the relative values of different data. Writers will then naturally group the facts in relation to movements in history, growth of principles, development of institutions, etc. It therefore becomes the business of the text writer as well as the student to judge of the values of historical data.

To indicate the changes that a reconstruction^a would necessitates mean to outline a text arranging principal and subordinate matter. A good illustration in diagram is the comparison made of Mathews' French Revolution with Harding's chapter on the causes of the French Revolution.^a

a. See pages 17-18.

One gives about a page to the discussion of the philosophy of Voltaire, Rousseau and Montesquieu as a cause of the Revolution; the other gives twenty pages to the same subjects (Cf tables I and II).The twenty pages of Mathews is readable and comprehensible, the one page is not so to the average high school boy.

The fourth phase of reconstruction of texts was considered somewhat at the outset, history in longitudinal lines rather than in cross-sections. The mind of the student is not to be diverted from one topic to another of meaningless generalizations. Instead, the text will direct his study to a problem, an institution, a practice in modern life showing its development up to its present state. The meanings of battles, conferences, charters, and so on will no longer be disconnected or disregarded but will be interpreted as stages of advancement or decline in the growth of the particular movement under discussion.

The text will also give references to books and pages where discussions of different phases of the topic in hand may be found. In many studies present-day literature in magazine form can be used. References will be made to histories, ancient and modern, when such readings throw light on the subject under investigation. But in no case will history be studied as a factual study, history for history's sake.

The texts used need not all be under one cover. Single volumes in each study would be advisable with blank pages for additional information or references.

Finally, the difficulty of giving too much time to ancient history will then disappear. If a study of some modern institution or practice, as the jury system, is made too much time will not be given to dead history. All the history of its growth by continuity and differentiation will be alive with meanings. Greek and Roman history will have nothing to contribute to the study. Teutonic England must now speak. The story closes only with a study of the practice today.

This is sufficient to indicate what is meant by reconstructing texts in history so that the present may not only not be ignored but that it may have first consideration.

It may be objected that such a treatment of historic facts is not history. That, of course, will depend on what we take as a standard of measurement. It is not an attempt to resurrect the past in order to see what was there. That may be good history, or is good in the sense that truths are found. But there are millions of things happening every year - things that are true - that are of no worth to anything or anybody. Now institutions are the creations of all ages. They are the things

of worth around which events have grown. It is the institutions not the events that we want to appreciate. One might know all facts, if it were possible, and still not know history. And it is just this point that is at the parting of the ways. The contention here is that events should be subordinated to principles; that the appreciation of principles is the object of our study; that principles can best be understood by an understanding of the original purposes they served; that to understand those purposes only those events of the past that have bearing will be considered and only enough of those facts to explain the institution under consideration.

In advocating these changes in texts no attempt is being made to disparage the value of present history. The historian who treats history as a pure science is an invaluable contributor to progress. His business is to unfold the truth, and nothing but the truth. Modern scientific progress has been dependent in very large measure on the pure scientist. He discovers the laws of nature but cares nothing for the uses of the laws. Society must do that. He discovers the laws of the lever and pulley but leaves it to the mechanic to use these laws in driving machinery. He discovers the laws of combining materials to form explosives but leaves it to society to use these laws to tunnel mountains or blow open safes. So it is clear that the two are complementary phases of progress.

So far we have seen that history presents two phases, the form or facts and the content or interpretation of these facts. Both are necessary. The majority of men however are interested in the content phase. The activities of life demand that men produce things for food, shelter, social welfare. That is, they must use all the means at their command to be able to survive. The manufacturer goes to science for certain things, to other fields for other things necessary for his success. He is not interested in chemistry as chemistry but in so far as it can help him put out a salable product. The agriculturist is not interested in chemistry as a science but in so far as it can help him to farm more effectively.

So it is with the common citizen. He goes to history not for history's sake but to get information that will teach him to be ^amore intelligent director of the policies of society in all its phases. But the historian as such is interested in structural history, in knowledge as an end.

CHAPTER IV.

Some Illustrative Studies.

The object of this chapter is to give some illustrations of the method proposed of using historical material. In the first study, Principles and Practices of Taxation, the problems are given and then suggested lines of study for information on the various problems. In the class work the references were given as is indicated in the study of Guilds, pp 46.

In the problems of taxation our study was directed to three questions: the authority that imposes taxes, the bases on which taxes are assessed, and the objects of public expenditure.

It will be noted that the answers to these three questions varied with the age and the state of progress of the different countries at the same age. The study of the different ways money was collected and also the different ways it was expended will give one greater appreciation of the principles of taxation at present.

Principles and Practices of Taxation.

Problem: To understand the present practices of county, state, and federal government in the collection of public revenues.

I. Studies.

present practice of collecting revenues in county (Boone).

- 1 Taxes on real property
- 2 " " personal property
- 3 " " railroad property

4 Licenses for conducting business

a Merchantile

b Miscellaneous

5 Corporation and Franchise tax.

6 School fund income

7 Other sources.

II. Studies:

Present practices of collecting revenues in the state (Missouri).

1 Taxes on real property

2 " " personal property

3 " " railroad property

4 " " corporations

5 Income from Franchises

6 Various funds, as

a School funds

b Hospital funds

c Road and canal funds

d Insurance dep't fund

e Escheat fund

7 Earning of the penitentiary

8 Other sources.

III. Studies:

Present practices of collecting revenue for the federal government.

1 Custom duties (sugar, wool, cotton goods, tobacco, silk, etc.)

2 Internal revenue.

3 Postage stamps.

4 Stamps on specified legal papers.

5 Other sources.

Problem: To understand the present practices in the expenditure of public money in the county, state, and federal government.

I. Studies:

Objects of expenditure in the county (Bonne).

1 Salaries of county officers.

2 Criminal expenses.

3 Public schools

4. Care of paupers.
- 5 Public roads and other improvements.
- 6 Public buildings.
- 7 Miscellaneous

II. Studies:

Objects of expenditure in the state (Missouri).

- 1 Salaries of State officials.
 - a Governor
 - b Legislature and senate
 - c Judges
 - d Etc.
- 2 Public institutions:
 - a schools, colleges, and universities
 - b Hospitals
 - c Miscellaneous
- 3 Public buildings and improvements.
- 4 Care of criminals

III. Studies:

Objects of expenditure of the federal government:

- 1 Departments of government.
 - a Legislature
 - b Executive
 - c Judicial
- 2 Foreign intercourse.
- 3 Military establishment.
- 4 Naval Establishment.
- 5 Indian Affairs.
- 6 pensions.
- 7 Public works.
- 8 Appropriations.
- 9 Miscellaneous.

Problem: To understand the sources of revenue for the king, the nobles, and the church at the close of the feudal system in France, 1750 to 1789.

I. Studies:

- 1 Taxes collected by the kings collectors (intendants).

- 2 Indirect taxes on salt, bridges, roads, etc.
- 3 Donations from the church.
- 4 Gifts from the nobles.
- 5 Income from king's private domain.
- 6 Sale of titles of nobility.
- 7 Forced loans.
- 8 Miscellaneous

II. Studies:

Sources of the noble's income:

- 1 Noble's private estate.
- 2 Labor of vassals (peasants) in his private estate.
- 3 Rents from lands tilled by his vassals.
- 4 Tolls from his mill, wine press, and bakery.
- 5 Sale of rights to a village or town.
- 6 All high offices of church and state were reserved to the nobility.
- 7 Gifts from vassals at kingting of king's son or marriage of his daughter.
- 8 Free entertainment for him when out on hunting trips.

III. Studies:

Sources of the church's income:

- 1 Income from church estates, valued at one-fifth of all lands of France yielding an average yearly income of 80,000,000 francs.
- 2 One-tenth of income of peasants, or about 123,000,000 francs annually.
- 3 Gifts.
- 4 Sale of indulgences.
- 5 Miscellaneous.

Problem: To learn what were the objects of expenditure by kings, nobles, and the church.

I. Studies:

Objects of king's (Louis XV and Louis XVI) expenditure.

- 1 To Madame Pompadour 36,000,000 francs.

2	Royal household (one year)	86,000,000	francs.
3	Private gifts (a few illustrations):		
	a Countess of Polignac	400,000	"
	b Her daughter's dowery	800,000	"
	c Countess' lover was given	30,000	"
	d Princess Lamballe	100,000	"
	e Family of Polignacs	700,000	"
	f Family of Guemences	8,500,000	"
4	Expenses of king's guard (9,050 men)	8,000,000	"
5	Food for the king's dogs ((1,783)	53,000	"
6	Expenses of king's horses and livered men	6,200,000	"
7	Other expenses incurred by war against nobles and foreign powers varied.		

II Studies:

Objects of the noble's expenditure (Similar to kings).

III. Studies:

Objects of church expenditure: (Various items worked out as in studies above.)

Problem:

To find out the system of collecting revenues in the time of Charles I. in England.

I Studies:

Sources of the king's revenue (List is made out from pupils reading.)

Problem:

To understand the objects of expenditure of public money in reign of Charles I. of England.

Studies (as above).

Problem:

To understand the present system of raising revenues in France (1911).

Studies:

Studies:

Sources of revenue:

(Similar studies to those in United States.)

Problem:

To understand the objects of expenditure of public revenues in France at present time (1911).

Studies:

(List made from pupil's reading as in studies above.)

Note:- In this illustration of the study in taxation it is possible to include only a few of the studies made. The study occupied the class eighteen days.

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The two following studies are in the form of the instructions of a supervisor to teachers. Leading problems are suggested and references to historical material given.

The selections are made from a study of present commercial rules and practices and the study of the growth of the commercial laws. The guilds are studied in this relation.

Teacher should discuss in a general way the unsettled conditions of the middle ages. Voluntary organizations of different kinds took the place of laws and corporations. These associations were aimed at securing protection as well as gaining freedom.

Guilds:

Questions to direct reading:

- 1 Make a list of the different kinds of guilds you find.
- 2 Show how the merchant guilds advanced the growth of towns.
- 3 To what social class did they belong? show how they were a great factor in economic and political freedom.
- 4 show how the craft guilds affected social and economic conditions in a similar way? Give your reasons.
- 5 In what sense were guilds insurance companies?

- 6 Show how the guilds by promoting industry in commerce promoted freedom of the individual and broke down the old feudal and manorial caste system.
- 7 Explain the objects of a merchant guild as evidenced by their regulations, rights, privileges, etc.
- 8 What value was it to a merchant to be a member of a guild?
- 9 To what extent does it seem that guilds became the directors of municipal politics? Give your reasons for your opinion.
- 10 To what extent did the guild merchant become a factor in introducing constitution^{al} government? Explain.

6

Gibbins- Industry in England 91-7, 131-3, 208.
Cheney short history of England 198-9.
Cunningham Outline of Industrial History, 54-56, 60-63, 105.
Price English Commerce and Industry 83-98, 60, 64-65, 93, 122, 141.
Cunningham Growth of English Industries and Commerce, 206-14.
Gibbins History of European Commerce, 39-43.

Hansa.

In beginning the study of the commerce of Northern Europe use the map and talk over with pupils the countries of the Danes, the Germans, Swedes and Northmen. Point out the disadvantages to agriculture, also the sea-roving character of these Baltic and North-Sea people. Nature, it seems, forced them to turn to the sea for a livelihood. The history of the invasions, by these people, of England and other southern countries may be discussed.

Since the other great commercial center was in the Italian cities of the Mediterranean call pupils' attention to that center also. These two great commercial factors are of most importance in Mediaeval commerce.

Hansa and Commerce.

Discuss with pupils the old practices of pirates in ravaging the shore towns of northern countries. Closely connected with their adventures were the rise of territorial organizations and business enterprises along the shore? Note that these two elementary institutions have common interests and finally form business relations.

Questions to direct study:

- 1 Discuss conditions giving rise to the Hanseatic League.
- 2 Was the work of the pirates good or bad? Give your reasons. What was the object of their going to England and southern Europe?

- 3 Locate on the map the principal Hansa towns.
- 4 What was the object of the government of the League as compared with other European governments?
 - a Object of government.
 - b Character of government.
- 5 What were some of the influences of the League on
 - a Society?
 - b Economic conditions?
 - c government?
 - d Commerce?
- 6 Make a list of their chief industries.
- 7 The factory system as a way of increasing trade.
Name some factory towns.
- 8 Government of a factory town: London,
- 9 What was the "Steelyard"? Its effects on English Commerce?
- 10 Show by the products of commerce the wide range of the Hanseatic Union.
- 11 Show that thru the influence of the League countries that were poor and almost uninhabitable became prosperous, built cities, and developed good society.
- 12 What, in your opinion, was the effect of the League on the civilization of Europe?
- 13 What is our debt to the Norse vikings?

Gibbins History of Commerce in Europe 60-2, 62-71.
 Price English Commerce and Industry, 50, 82, 129, 58 (map).
 Robinson Western Europe 247-8
 Harding Mediaeval and Modern History, 187-8, 184-5 (map).
 Gibbins Industry in England, 227-8.

CHAPTER V.

Proposed Plan of Teaching.

Professor Mace, in his book on teaching history,^(a) has called attention to two very important phases of the subject, namely, the form and the content.^(a) By form he refers to that body of events that have occurred in the growth of institutional life. By content he refers to those institutions or principles in the development of which events occurred. The movement of mind from form to content, the re-
viving of the past in imagination is ⁷interpretation. To memorize events as students often do for class recitations, without interpreting them, without seeing their relations to movements in history is worse than useless. It is seen then that events and the interpretation of events, that is, form and content, are complementary phases in learning history.

Now, as has been shown in the chapter on text-books, a large number of important events have been selected by authors and have been arranged in chronological order for the student. They are the form of history, the facts out of which the student must revive the past thru interpretation. The student is here dealing with two verities: The facts of history are fixed and unchangeable. The purposes they served are likewise definite things. Hence there is only one correct interpretation for one definite set of facts. They served one purpose at one time and any other interpretation

(a) Mace--Method of Teaching, pp. 1-3.

does not give a true picture of the past.

Here then are the two views set forth. In the present plan the student is given a definite set of facts by the author. They are to be interpreted by the student. He may or may not be interested in the work set for him but he is tied to the given facts anyhow and he must work out the results, definite and well known to the teacher.

On the other hand the plan proposed in this paper does not start with a definite set of facts, chosen by an author to be interpreted. And here is the crux of the whole matter. Instead, definite phases of the principles and institutions of our social organizations are chosen for study, and facts are selected with regard to their bearing on the study. The student is not forced to interpret events recorded in texts but is free to choose his history in the light of a problem. However, he is dealing with the same two verities, form and content, but in the reverse order of procedure. Instead of setting out to interpret the facts of a text-book he sets out to solve a problem in his own immediate present and within the range of his interests. Facts of history are studied, interpretations are made but of only such facts as are pertinent to the problem in hand. One plan is functional study, the other is text interpretation.

It is easy to see that in the one case the student's hands are tied. The facts are given first. His business is to interpret them. All place or possibility for individual

interests is closed. In the other case purposes, problems, chosen in the light of one's interest and in the light of modern institutional life come first and form the guide to the selection of historic facts studied in solving problems or attaining to purposes.

It is upon such a differentiation of the two plans of studying history that the present plan and the proposed plan are based. The usual plan attempts to acquaint the student with the structure of history. With no particular function or purpose of history in mind one part of the structure became as important as another. Further, not having definite purposes the different structures are not clearly distinguished but mixed and mingled as is shown by the text-book arrangement.

The proposed plan begins with a study of present institutions or practices in society. The student is led to examine phases of institutional life within his experience or observation. From the present he is directed by the teacher to earlier phases of the development of that institution and follows its history, keeping his eye constantly on the present. He is then looking at a principle. Historic events are to him means by which the principle or institution has grown. The principle that a man shall be tried by a jury has had a long period of development. An examination of the records of the practices in any age will show the student what advancement the princi-

ple had made and also what the sentiment of the people toward it was at that time.

Society is a construct of these principles or institutions. The object of education is, in the words of professor Munsterberg to make one "willing and able " to aid in working out the ideals of society as embodied in our institutions. To preserve and to perfect society's institutions they must be understood. And as they are the result of all the events of the past and since all activity has been either for or against them the understanding of these institutions is conditional on an appreciation of the circumstances that demanded their growth. And further, whatever is not in some way connected with the growth of social institutions should be omitted. The meaning of battles, treaties, charters and revolutions is understood only in relation to a principle. The sentiment that took form in the Declaration of Independence was not new. It had had its Bill of Rights, its Great Charter, its Cromwellian war and was soon to have its Declaration of the Rights of Man, and French Revolution. Each generation has had its part in crystallizing these sentiments into institutions that reflect less and less the arbitrary will of rulers and more and more the sentiment of the people.

In a society like our own it becomes more and more necessary that its institutions be understood by the people.

Since popular sentiment rules that sentiment must be an en-

lightened sentiment and the way to an understanding of any problem is thru studying it. Therefore the way to an enlightened sentiment toward our institutions is thru studying them. These institutions have their roots in the past and we must go to the past to understand the conditions of their growth and for a fuller appreciation of their cost to society.

so far we have indicated that we shall now go to the past to ask of it definite questions about definite things. The significance of such a plan is revolutionary. History will become a study of individual institutions instead of cross-sections of many institutions. Our attention will be centered not on all the practises at once but upon that series of events which entered into the development of the institution under consideration. In this way the school may select for study those ideals and means of realization that society has been struggling to develop all these centuries, namely, institutions. And why should this not be done? All the results of the work of the past are embodied in the laws of society. To preserve and perfect these laws is the highest duty of men. We have also seen that every man in a democracy must take a definite attitude toward present day problems and further must decide by his vote what shall be the policies that control our national life. The problems then of the society in which he lives become at once the object of study. The present is the most important of all

times to most men. The problems of the present are the significant ones. Study them in history. Start at the present; select those institutions that are of greatest import and then go to history and follow them thru the conditions of their growth. The events of the past will then have meaning in so far as they light up the way thru which institutions have come. We shall not be compelled to interpret those particular events given us by the text, but having found a problem we shall select those events that bring us into greater and greater appreciation of that problem. In the case of interpreting the facts of a text one's hands are tied. That is, this particular fact in history must be interpreted and related to other facts whether we are interested in the results or not. But in the case of selecting a problem for solution we are free to choose our facts because facts are subordinate to problems.

This longitudinal study of history is a means not only of studying and selecting great principles underlying our society but it is also peculiarly appropriate to the mental grasp of high school students. Everything in history cannot be considered by them. The important things however can be selected for them in consideration both of their interests in political, civic and economic affairs of the present, things that are of compelling interest to most youths as well as of the highest educational value - and

also in consideration of the short time the high school provides for such study.

The second justification of this longitudinal study of history, one all sufficient in itself, is that it provides for definite aims. The student is not made a passive recipient of knowledge but an active inquirer and searcher for answers to definite questions. Problems in history are raised and solved by the student in his quest of the development of an institution. Function of events and not structure is the guide to their selection. After we have examined the present jury system and begin the study of its history those events that have to do with the growth or breaking down of the system belong in its structure and for that reason are considered. The aim then or problem is the one factor that enters into all of our real thinking. Under such direction the dry tables of statistics are full of meaning and of interest.

An aim not only aids us in the selection of material but it also gives that material a sense of value. An event is valuable when it throws light on the question we ask of history or the problem we are attempting to solve. But when we are centering our attention on events as events, on interpretation for interpretation's sake, we have no measure of values. All are events and therefore of equal value as things that happened.

Therefore, definiteness of aim and feeling of value on the part of the student, two factors that belong in the psychology of learning, are left out in the plan and methods of present day teachers who follow the block system of presenting history. And since the study of history longitudinally takes into account these two absolutely necessary factors, and since it also makes it possible to select the things of most importance to the average citizen in the discharge of his obligations to society, and further, since the plan is suited to the high school students who depends on the high school alone for their education, the plan is here recommended for [^]further _^trial.

It is perhaps not out of place here to say that altho the plan of teaching history advocated in this study has not been given as full a trial as it should have yet the same principles of procedure are followed exclusively in the university elementary school. For example, the pupils of the seventh grade are at present studying "Means of Transportation." In connection with present-day means the pupils study transportation of remote times. Just at present they are studying the old Roman roads under the subtopic "Early commerce and the means of transportation in Roman Italy."

In the attempt I have made to teach history by studying individual institutions, in the University High school,

I have not found it an easy matter to arrange needed material. As I have shown in the chapter on texts, the histories do not give complete accounts of any single institution, custom, or practice. Between the cross-sections of one period and those of another it is impossible to follow the history of the practice one is studying. But where I have found material I have found the longitudinal plan an effective way of study. Long lists of figures were copied to sustain a point advocated. Long chapters were read and discussed with enthusiasm, and definite attitudes were taken for or against a practice. The feelings and the will were called into the questions discussed. The problem was not to find an aim but to direct the many aims that grew up. Method to secure interest was changed to plans of directing that interest. At the close of the study (Principles of Taxation) the students were asked to prepare a paper on the subject. In these papers as in the class discussions the students' personal convictions were evident. The supervisor of English in the University High School pronounced the discussions the best in point of argument and definiteness of opinions that were produced by the class during the year.

What then, in conclusion, are the prominent characteristics of the two plans discussed? One makes education in history an end and the process of acquiring

that education purely intellectual. Interest lags and must be goaded by many methods. Methods still fail. Students hate the subject and often the teacher. At the end of four years' study the students have only a "mere outline" of the structure of history. Moreover, they have no incentive to read further when school is closed. Not a single institution in history has been studied far enough to give students positive opinions. What is left for the university to which the great majority of students are never to go.

In the other plan the student starts with some valuable practice of society about which he already knows something. The working out of some present custom, or policy, or practice puts meaning into everything in history that was in any way connected with the practice. Methods are no longer substituted for aims, and the values of historic events are determined by the function they serve. Positive opinions are developed. Considerable mastery of many subjects is gained, and what is still better an interest in subjects is aroused that will lead to continued study after school days are finished.

Such a procedure simplifies the machinery of the classroom. By-products such as training the judgement, developing historic sense, collecting facts, selecting grounds for opinion, etc.etc. will take care of themselves. The use of maps and charts, sources, parallel texts, will all

be determined by the nature of the problem or investigation in hand.

This plan, as has been said, is somewhat difficult for the teacher at present because of the lack of good simple accounts. The texts, as we have shown, are too nearly generalized statements and epitomes of history to be readable for students. Sources are usually more readable but are disconnected accounts. The longer historical accounts are the best but are very expensive. In my work in the university High School I have depended almost entirely for my best literature on the university library. An examination of the references to any of the studies appended shows the difficulty of getting books. But the interest in the subjects will make students efficient helpers in searching for material. Students from the university high school want to the university library to read books that could not be taken out. Newspapers were obtained from the clerk's offices^(a) and bulletins from various sources. Much current material may be secured for the asking.

Finally, the method of teaching history, as has been indicated in the chapter on texts, is based on the demands of society. Those institutions that are the laws and customs of present life are of most importance to men. To understand them we must understand their past. Each has its own history. If it is the jury system then

(a) Clerk of Boone County, Missouri.

we shall go from the present practices to its periods of development in English history and trace its growth and development under different conditions to the present time. If it is taxation, or industry, or commerce, we shall go from the present to some of its beginnings and trace its history. Other events or facts of history are passed over unnoticed except in so far as they have bearing on the subject in hand.

In this system the lines between ancient and mediaeval, and between mediaeval and modern history are not so arbitrarily drawn. The history of commerce, for instance, reaches back into earliest times and a study of its development as a phase of economic life involves the study of events and circumstances in all periods of the history of the past- ancient, mediaeval and modern.

The teacher's duty then is to help the student work out the history of institutions in order to get a greater appreciation of them. He will prepare references, and the student to set forth problems and direct his efforts to important phases of the subject.

Such a movement in teaching history in the high school is part of a broader movement now active in this country to provide education for those engaged in the useful occupations as well as those engaged in the higher professions of law, medicine, etc. The same movement is seen in the almost universal demand for education in

the science and art of agriculture and in the industries. It is a demand for education for efficiency as against education as a selective agency. Such a movement it will be noticed starts with well defined aims- aims determined by individual needs rather than by subject matter already selected. Subject matter for study is then chosen in the light of those aims. History, therefore, will be the study of subject matter chosen in the light of well defined aims and problems found in modern society.

CHAPTER VI.

Purpose of History

The purpose of these concluding pages is to discuss the unsettled state of opinion with reference to the purpose of history. The student of agriculture selects from chemistry those particular things that aid him in the most successful growing of plants. He selects from botany particular studies for the same reason. That is, subjects of study are chosen that are useful in the attainment of specific purposes.

On the other hand the historian cares nothing for the uses of history but treats it as a pure science, just as the chemist abstracts water from its uses when he tells us that it is H_2O . The chemist cares nothing for the uses to which water is put. To the engineer, however, water is not H_2O but something out of which to make power. To the housewife it is something with which to cook and wash. To the fire company water is something with which to put out fire. But to the chemist it is not for anything. It is simply H_2O .

Professor H. Morse Stephens assumes the attitude of the historian when he says that the aim in studying history should be history for its own sake. Events, he says, should be taught as they actually occurred so as "to tell the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth." ^a The Committee of Ten says the pupil
 a. N.E.A., 1896:623-30.

"gets a body of knowledge which becomes a source of pleasure and gratification." ^(d) Professor F.R. Harley ^a of the University of Pennsylvania takes the same attitude toward history. To quote his words: "History is a study of principles as much as any other science." Emerson gives a similar conception of the function of history: "History is the record of the work of the mind." The student is to read history actively and to "esteem his own life as the text."^b

Besides those who look upon history as a pure science, a thing in itself worth while, there are other and diverse views from many authorities. The great variety of functions suggested shows the unsettled state of popular opinion on the subject. The Report of the Committee of Ten is evidence of the unsettled state of opinion even among specialists. Nine different purposes are given: The acquirement of useful facts, training the judgement, selecting grounds for opinion, accumulating material for an opinion, putting things together, generalizing upon facts, for estimating character, for teaching expression, and finally for applying history to current events. There is not a single aim mentioned, except the application of history to current events,^c that stands out more prominently in the study of history than in the study of biology. The aims mentioned are simply by-products yielded more or less by any sub-

a. Ed. 15:332-40.

b. Emerson-Essay on History.

c. Committee of seven, p.102.

d. Committee of Seven, p.24.

ject in the high school curriculum. Clearly the committee had in mind the disciplinary values of history. But if these disciplinary values come as by-products in the pursuit of various subjects it is all the more evident that the pupils attention should be directed to the intrinsic function of the subject.

Lucy M. Salmon has given as the chief function of history what is simply a by-product of study. Let me give her own statement: "The aim of historical study in the secondary school, let it be repeated, is the training of pupils, not so much in the art of historical investigation as that of thinking historically." Who ever studies history just to learn to think historically! Why not study the growth of the jury system, or the systems of taxation in their march from arbitrary control by kings to their control by popular sovereignty? The pupil will then have definite opinions relative to these institutions and besides will have learned to think historically. In fact that is the only way to learn to think historically.

Principal Fraula of the high school in St. Paul, Minn. states as the function of history that "it gives opportunity for acquiring facts for future reference."^a Hinsdale says "The thing largely that the teacher has to do

a. N.E.A. 1909: 508.

is to teach facts." It seems from this statement that discipline is the function he has in mind. The page must be absorbed or transferred to the mind. The exercise will strengthen the mind!

Goethe says that " the best we get out of history is the enthusiasm it arouses."^(a) However we should fail in our quest, I fear, if we should start out with such an aim. Enthusiasm may be one of the by-products but Goethe would hardly start out on such a quest.

The German Lehrplan of 1892 says "History is to be taught pre-eminently with a view to the making of patriotic citizens."^(b) Frederick the Great said, " History should be studied not for facts primarily but for the development of the discriminative judgement."^(b) G.Stanley Hall thinks that the aim of history should be to train moral nature of the child.^c Arthur D.Cromwell says "The first purpose of history is the finding of the truth."^d In this opinion he stands with Morse Stephens and others who believe that history is a pure science and should be studied for its own sake. Dr.J.Hill says "The purpose of history is to rejuvenate the past and render it intelligible by separation of fact and fiction."^e It seems to me however that the separation of fact and fic-

a. Russell-German Sec.Ed. 295

b. Quoted by Dean Russell, ib. 273.

c. G.Stanley Hall red.Sem.12: 339.

d. School R.11: 677-81.

e. American History R.14:966.

tion is not an end but in some studies might be a means of ascertaining the truths of certain queries.

Lynn Thorndike thinks that the aim of historical study is "not to collect facts but to ask definite questions of the past."^a John M. Gillette says history should be studied to throw light on the problems of our times.^b In the study of history he would have the problems, practices, and institutions of the present form his starting points, and he would study the history of the past of those problems, practice and institutions.

It is useless to multiply the opinions of authorities on history. Enough has been given to show the unsettled state of opinion among them. We have also shown by analysis of these opinions that they do not distinguish between the direct or intrinsic function of history and the indirect functions or what we have called by-products. And since the indirect functions or by-products are usually the aims set up by history teachers we may be sure that to them history does not have a definite aim. Many professors of history in this country hold to the hazy and indefinite beliefs, that the main object demanded of history in the high school is not direct preparation for American citizenship, but that it should aim at a broader cultural significance

a. Pop. Sec. M. 76:170-81

b. Sch. R. 17:548-57.

in connection with human life in general.

NOW what is this "cultural significance" that men make so much of? If an American boy is taught to appreciate the institutional life that is the highest in the world, that institutional life founded on the "common sense of most"; is that not culture? If he finds aims and ideal in the present, and these aims and ideals are his social heritage, namely, the customs and institutional life about him, should not the schools aid him to a fuller appreciation of them? We are a long time getting over the malady called culture. Its history goes back to Greece and the Middle Ages; its background is aristocrat and slave; the former was not engaged in the world's work but was educated to be better prepared to vary the monotony of his idleness. Such an education contemplates the two classes, slave and freeman where the former does the work and the latter is a man of culture. When the word culture is used in the sense of preparing the common man for the common duties of life then such use must be explained.

And further: to aim at culture is to miss it. The studies in the curriculum have been preserved because they have best served to produce certain definite ends. Now culture is not such a definite thing that we can say just which particular thing in the curriculum leads to it. Evidently it contemplates a sort of general result of having

studied the whole curriculum. Culture then in history, it seems, is that general product that cannot be definitely stated in terms of institutional history. And it is just that hazy indefiniteness that passive attitude toward the definite and worthy things in our social and civic life that is here attacked. The mind must have a definite problem or it has none at all. There is nothing mysterious about our social customs. Every line and syllable of them have been wrought out with effort. Every advance has been the result of definite aims in the long history of its past. If from having studied the great institutions of our present life that study makes one more able to protect and perfect those institutions as the principles they embody are perfected; if one is made more patriotic by following out in all its details problems of society, it is fortunate. History will have done its best work for him. That we may call culture. But let us remember that culture like character is a by-product.

And besides what is that culture that is sometimes referred to that has broader cultural value than that of citizenship? Is it that education that is not intended to be useful and that is distinguished by being the education of the leisure class? If the value of education is not in its usefulness then we shall have to measure its value by the old Greek standards to which we have made reference.

Let us now ask of society what it demands of history for it is for society that history is placed in the school. Let us ask what are the obligations of the citizen of America. Let us ask further how much time the average American has to prepare for the duties which devolve upon him as an American citizen. As a citizen he must pass judgement on the social, industrial, economic, political and social policies of the state and nation. He must not only pass judgement but he must be an active participator in movements for reform in his town and country. What is history doing to prepare him to discharge his duties intelligently and for the good of the society in which he lives?

Since ninety to ninety-five percent of the youth of the country do not go to college we may settle one point here. European or, for that matter, any history should not be studied in the high school as pure science, that is for its own sake, nor should European history or any history be studied in order to meet the demands of a standard college entrance requirement. That is not the purpose of history. Besides only a small per cent of high school pupils ever go to college. The high school must claim the right to exist on the ground of public service, not service to the favored ones who may go into the higher professions.

Therefore, since the common man must pass judgement

on the weightiest and most complex problems of society, and since upon his judgement the safety of the state rests, the schools should prepare him to discharge these high duties. As has been said in another connection these duties lie in various directions: political, industrial, social, educational, economic, and religious.

Now for these high school boys and girls, the great majority of whom will never go to any other school, what should history do? It should throw light on the problems which must be met and judged by every one of them, and upon whose judgement the welfare of society depends. This then is the function of history in the high school. Social justice must be conserved, problems of trade and industry must be solved so as to protect the rights of the laborer and the consumer as well as the capitalist, policies decided by national campaigns and popular vote must be understood, men must have positive opinions in order that their service to society may be uplifting.

Now that history holds so prominent a place as an interpreter of the institutions of society, and since thru the study of history we may come to a fuller appreciation of the institutions that constitute our social practices, the study of history should grow out of and explain these practices.

And further, since the high school boy and girl have at most only four years of school to become acquainted with the complex society in which they are to live it becomes necessary to select a few of the most important questions of history for investigation.

Summary:- There are two classes of students of history: Those interested in history as a science and those who go to history for information on modern social practices. Since the high school is primarily for the education of the youth of the land to teach them how to live in society and how to direct its policies, and since the high school must give them all the school preparation they will ever get it becomes the first duty of high school history to be a means of preparation for living in society rather than to lead pupils to study history for any so-called disciplinary or cultural values.

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