A STUDY TO ASCERTAIN THE PLACE AND FUNCTION OF HISTORY IN THE CURRICULUM OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

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FUNCTION OF HISTORY IN THE
CURRICULUM OF THE
SECONDARY SCHOOL

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By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to ascertain the place and function of history in the curriculum of the secondary school in the United States, as reflected in the published writings of professional educators, historians, and psychologists.

Some questions for which answers will be sought in this study are the following:

1. How did history become a part of the curriculum of the public schools?

2. Why is history included in the curriculum?

3. What is the place and function of history in the curriculum as defined by psychology? In other words, what are the psychological principles governing the teaching of history, and the learning of history?

4. What is the place and function of history in the curriculum as defined by historians and general educators?

5. What are the best methods of teaching history in the secondary school, to insure that it will fulfill its proper function?
Sources of Data

All data utilized in this study are documentary in nature. Books and articles written by professional educators, historians, and psychologists were carefully read, as were official publications of professional educational associations and of the American Historical Association.

Procedure

As has already been implied, the procedure employed in developing this study was simple. It involved the reading of numerous books, magazine articles, and publications of the National Education Association, the Progressive Education Association, and the American Historical Association, which bore some relationship to the topics being considered in this study. Notes were taken as the reading was being done. When the research was completed, all notes were organized and assembled in logical order, in accordance with the topics included in the tentative outline which had been prepared at the outset of the study. After the notes were carefully organized, they were examined with the purpose in mind of assembling them in the best possible logical sequence so as to make possible a coherent and logical treatment of the topics under consideration in the respective chapter divisions. When this was done, the actual process of writing the thesis was consummated.
Limitations

The limitations of this study have already been mentioned or implied. First, the investigation was limited to a study of the place and function of history in the curriculum of the secondary school in the United States. Second, the sources of data were limited to those that are documentary in nature. Third, no effort was made, by means of questionnaire, interview, or other types of personal contact, to ascertain the place and function of history in the curriculum of designated secondary schools; therefore, such information as is presented herein concerning the position of history in the curriculum of the secondary school may be looked upon as being more or less idealistic rather than a picture of what is the actual situation of history in the secondary schools of the United States. In other words, this study presents information on what authorities say should be the place and function of history in the curriculum of secondary schools. It is recognized, of course, that in many schools, there is a wide discrepancy between the ideal and the actual position of history in the curriculum.

Organization

This report of the study has been organized according to the following plan:

The present chapter has presented an introduction to the study, including its purpose, the sources of data, the procedure, and the limitations of the study.
Chapter II presents a brief discussion of how American history got into the curriculum of the secondary schools.

Chapter III discusses the place and function of history in the secondary school curriculum from the point of view of psychology.

Chapter IV presents a discussion of the place and function of history in the curriculum of the secondary school as defined by professional historians and educators.

Chapter V deals with methods of using history to enable it to fulfill its proper function in the curriculum of the secondary school.

Chapter VI contains a brief statement of conclusions and recommendations relating to the place and function of history in the curriculum of the secondary school in the United States.
CHAPTER II

HOW AMERICAN HISTORY ENTERED THE CURRICULUM OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Compared with reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, Latin, algebra, geometry, and English, history was late in entering the curriculums of elementary and secondary schools in the United States as a separate and independent subject of study. Not until after 1830 was history given a position worthy of much notice in the curriculums of the schools. However, it got a fairly early start in some of the private schools and academies of the country, being found in some of them even before the American Revolution; and it was listed among the subjects offered by the first high school to be established in the United States.¹

It is frequently asserted and generally believed, even by many educators, that American history in particular was not offered as a separate subject before 1815. This belief is not substantiated by the facts. The publication of numerous textbooks in American history

¹Rolla M. Tryon, The Social Sciences as School Subjects, p. 100.
prior to that date gives evidence that this subject had a definite place in the schools before 1815. Some elements of the history of the new nation began to enter the schools almost immediately after the signing of the Treaty of Paris in 1783. In the very next year, new textbooks were beginning to include materials on American history. Later, as these books were revised, the content in history was greatly expanded. Nearly 30 per cent of Jedediah Morse's *American Geography*, published in 1789, which was adopted as a textbook at Yale University, was devoted to American history. When Morse abridged and revised this work for the lower schools in 1791, entitling it *Geography Made Easy*, he devoted approximately a fifth of its contents to American history. In the prefaces to his textbooks, Morse, often called the father of American geography, stated that one of his major purposes was to teach not only the geography of the land, but also its history. At least sixteen editions of the Morse geographies had been published by 1815, all of them containing substantial sections on American history.

Noah Webster, famed for his dictionary and for his "blue-backed speller," wrote another early book dealing with American history, entitled *An American Selection of Lessons in Reading and Speaking*, in which he proclaimed his purpose to be that of instilling reverence for American heroes through the use of history. More than half of the
book consisted of materials from American history, most of it in nar-
native style. Before 1816, this book had appeared in at least twenty-
six editions and had been printed in five states.

The first American history textbook, *An Introduction to the His-
tory of America*, was compiled by John McCulloch, a printer, and pub-
lished by him in 1787, the year of the Constitutional Convention. In the
same year, McCulloch printed the third edition of Webster's *An Ameri-
can Selection*; and since 130 pages of the two books are identical, it
appears that some of the same plates were used for both. Regardless
of the sources or quality of his work, McCulloch is justly credited
with introducing American history into the schools as a separate sub-
ject, since his book was the first textbook in this field. His venture
was highly successful, and in 1795 he published a new textbook entitled
*A Concise History of the United States*. This book, too, consisted
largely of plagiarisms from various sources, many of which were
from the Morse geographies. Three new editions of this work appeared
in 1797, 1807, and 1813. Soon, a number of other textbook writers
entered the field, writing both national and regional histories for use
in the schools. The regional treatments, in these early years, were
confined to New England, either in its entirety or to different colonies
and states of this area.²

²William H. Cartwright, "Evolution of American History in the
Curriculum," *The Study and Teaching of American History*, Seventeen
th Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, 1947,
pp. 17-19.
By 1815, at least twenty-three editions of six different school textbooks in American history had been published. If, as has been suggested, the appearance in America of textbooks in history reflects with any degree of accurateness the growth of history in the curriculum, then it is apparent that American history was well established in at least many of the schools before 1815.  

The historians and pseudo-historians who lived during the Revolutionary era, even when writing about earlier periods of colonial settlement and growth, reflected the tensions and passions of the times in which they were writing. "The nearer the writers approached the Revolution, the greater was the acceleration of the pulse beat, although some authors maintained a fairly even temper in the course of writing their narratives." Since "these historians were familiar with many of the events and personalities they described, ... their volumes were thus credited with veracity." Sometimes, though, the general belief that technically these writers were telling and whole truth and nothing but the truth was misplaced. They tended to place haloes over the heads of national heroes, some of which were undeserved. They lacked perspective and impartial judgment as they wrote about events which had so recently transpired; and in the

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3 Ibid., p. 19.

passionate fever-heat of the times in which they lived, they could hardly be expected to view events with the calm evaluation of the true historian. Nevertheless, what they wrote was important then and is still valuable today as a reflection of the pulse beat of the over-tense, contemporary scene in which they lived and wrote.

After the successful conclusion of the Revolutionary War, much more interest arose in the importance of American history as a subject of study in the schools. History now contained something really worth studying; it was more than an account of early settlements, colonial growth, and wars with Indians—it now contained the story of the struggle of a new nation for independence, and it had within it the glowing records of men who had become national heroes, both those who had won fame in the war and those who had planned the blueprints of the new nation and its government. All of these inspiring examples were worthy of study and emulation, it was believed. Independence was won; but the nation still had before it the task of justifying its existence and of proving its worth. The boys then attending schools would be participants in this future growth, and they should know what had gone before in order to plan what should come after. So, increased interest in the history of the new land became apparent. Almost immediately, this aroused interest was reflected in the curriculums of the academies, which were the predecessors of the public
high schools. History was listed among the subjects offered as early as 1799 by the Phillips Academy at Exeter, and one by one, other academies began offering courses in American history.  

The growing sense of pride and self-consciousness which resulted from the successful Revolution brought about the study and writing of history and was itself further nurtured by the study of written history. Many histories of the provinces and states now appeared, tracing their growth from the earliest colonial settlements; and historians also began to cross local boundaries and to write of the new nation as a whole.

In the warm glow of an exuberant independence, plans were formulated in the 1780's for national education, and, naturally, to history was assigned a special place. "Above all," wrote Dr. Benjamin Rush, who was especially prominent in this movement, "let our youth be instructed in the history of the ancient republics, and the progress of liberty and tyranny in the different states of Europe." The young students were also to familiarize themselves with American history, especially with the years just ended.

Noah Webster wrote in 1787 that "a selection of essays, respecting the settlement and geography of America, the history of the late revolution and of the most remarkable characters and events that distinguish it, and a compendium of the principles of the federal and

5Tryon, op. cit., pp. 104-105.

6Kraus, op. cit., p. 105.

7Ibid., p. 109.
provincial government, should be the principal school book in the United States." The influence of Webster and of other men of similar caliber did much to secure for American history a place in the curriculums of the schools.

At the end of the seventeenth century and during the early years of the eighteenth, American historians were emigrants or the sons of emigrants; and they were so close to the days of the colonies and to the Revolutionary War that they found it extremely difficult to take the backward glance of the historian without also taking the forward view of the prophet. For this reason, history became not only a recounting of what had already transpired, but also a prophecy of what was yet to come. In the aftermath of the glorious victory that had brought national independence, historians could be excused for becoming excessively enthusiastic over the prospects of what the future held for the new nation. Thus their purpose was not only to set down the events of colonial settlement and growth and of the struggle for independence, but also to inspire the youth of the land with charming visions of future prospects, so that they would aspire to assume active roles in making America great.

In due time, as a result of the enthusiasm for American history which was current at the time, the Bible and the catechism, which

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8Ibid., p. 110.
9Ibid., p. 3.
previously had been the principal or even the sole reading materials
used in the schools, were largely displaced by reading books which con-
tained the stories of deeds and incidents in the early life of the new na-
tion.  

Soon, however, the great exaltation which was felt as a result
of the Revolution cooled off; and, faced with the gigantic task of build-
ing a nation from the wilderness, the people began to be lethargic
concerning their glorious accomplishments of a few years past. The
past was finished and done with now; but the future was still to be
shaped. So, the people became indifferent to the past in their zeal for
developing the present and the future. This attitude became so pro-
nounced that it aroused the indignation of many of the nation's leaders.

In 1813, John Adams wrote to a friend in the following manner, thereby
reflecting the feeling of many of those who had participated with him in
winning national independence:

. . . Can you account for the apathy, the antipathy of this
nation to their own history? Is there not a repugnance to
the thought of looking back? While thousands of frivolous
novels are read with eagerness and got by heart, the his-
tory of our own native country is not only neglected, but
despised and abhorred.  

So widespread and general became this indifference that attempts
were soon made to arouse renewed interest in American history by

10 Tryon, op. cit., p. 10.

11 Quoted by Kraus, op. cit., p. 163.
means of legislation. State laws were enacted to require that it be taught in the schools. The first of such statutes were passed in Massachusetts and in Vermont in 1827. In 1849, a newly enacted law in Virginia required that all district schools must teach the history of the United States and of Virginia. Again in 1857 and in 1860, Massachusetts passed still more stringent laws than the earlier one, requiring the teaching of United States history and of state and colonial history in the schools. After 1860, one by one, most of the states enacted legislation requiring the teaching of national and state history in the schools.

During the two or three decades following 1820, six significant changes occurred in the offerings in history in the secondary schools of the United States. Largely through the concerted efforts of the newly organized American Historical Association, these changes were brought about:

1. Reduction of the time allotted to ancient history from the one year or more that had long been customary in secondary schools, to one-half year.

2. Doubling the amount of time that previously had been devoted to modern history (beginning about 1648).

\[^{12}\text{Cartwright, op. cit., pp. 21-22.}\]
3. General introduction of a one-year course in world history.

4. Doubling of the amount of time that previously had been allotted to American history.

5. Inclusion of more social and economic materials in the content of history courses than had been utilized prior to that time.

6. Appearance of many new textbooks for high school history, which were necessitated by the preceding five changes, which, in turn, were definitely incorporated into the new textbooks. 13

Largely through the work of the American Historical Association, American history was generally recognized as a fundamental part of the secondary school curriculum before the time of the Civil War. After the Phillips Academy at Exeter, the Boston English Classical High School followed in 1821 as the second secondary school to offer American history as a separate course and an independent subject. In succeeding years, increasing numbers of academies, high schools, and seminaries adopted the subject. In a study of catalogues issued between 1820 and 1860 by 235 secondary schools in twenty-three states, Roerbach found that American history was offered in 175 of these schools.

13 Tryon, op. cit., p. 217.
American history was thus established in the secondary schools before 1861, but the course appears to have been more comparable to the modern junior-high-school course than to that of the senior high school. While the lack of a uniform system of grades or classes in either the common or the secondary schools, during most of the nineteenth century, makes accurate comparison impossible, it appears that the American history course in the academies and high schools was much like that in the common or elementary schools. The majority of the secondary schools studied by Roorbach offered American history in the first year of a four-year curriculum. . . . And, although American history was sometimes taught in the upper classes of the academies and high schools, there were neither teachers trained to teach more than an elementary course nor textbooks designed for use at the advanced level. . . . The frequent offering of American history in the first year of academies, in high schools, and in the upper classes of common or elementary schools, the use of the same textbooks in all three types of schools, and dependence upon the textbook necessitated by the lack of training on the part of teachers, all indicate a greatly expanded second cycle of American history by the time of the Civil War. 14

In spite of the fact that it was generally accepted as a phase of the instructional program in the secondary schools of the United States, American history did not for a long time, however, receive the attention that it deserved. This may have been due, in large measure, to textbooks that too often were as dry as dust and to teachers who had received no special training in the teaching of history. Even educators who visited this country from abroad noticed the indifferent attitude with which American history was often regarded in the educational plan of the United States. In fact, perhaps such persons were in a

better position to notice this situation than were those individuals who lived in this country. P. A. Siljestrom came from Scandinavia to the United States in the mid-years of the nineteenth century for the purpose of studying the American educational system. In 1853 he published his book, Educational Institutions of the United States, in which he wrote:

History cannot . . . be said to be studied with much zeal, and this is easily explained. The Americans are a new people, and as yet their history has but a few great epochs. . . . history does not hold the same rank among the studies in the schools, as does geography, for instance. In connection with the historical studies some instruction is given in the political laws of the country . . . 15

Although the early textbooks in the field established history as a subject in the curriculum, they did not meet the needs of the schools or of the pupils. Recognizing the need for better texts, the American Academy of Languages and Belles Lettres, in 1820, offered a prize for the best textbook in American history written for academies and schools. Only four books were submitted in the competition, and Salma Hale's History of the United States was declared the winner. Advertised widely as "Hale's Premium History," the book was first published in 1821, went through many editions, and was a leading textbook for more than a generation. The contest brought popular approval for the new prize-winning textbook, and inspired an unprecedented period of activity in the writing of textbooks in American history which lasted for over thirty years.

15 Quoted by Tryon, op. cit., p. 115.
It was also in 1821 that William Grimshaw's *History of the United States* was published, and in the following year, Samuel G. Goodrich issued his first work in this field. Within a decade, Goodrich and Emma Willard had launched their textbooks in American history and Webster had revised and reissued his earlier works under new titles. Another influential writer, Marcius Willson, published his first textbook in 1845. Although these authors led the field during the first three quarters of the nineteenth century, they had many competitors, some of whom produced books which were largely plagiarisms of other texts. 16

During the latter half of the nineteenth century, the textbook in history for use in both the elementary and the secondary schools was looked upon as the "king of kings" and the "lord of lords," as one author has expressed it, in discussing the place of pre-eminent importance which was occupied by the textbook during this period. The textbook contained the entire content of history which was taught in the schools. Although it has been said that the history textbook reached, during this time, the "lowest depths of degradation" that it has ever experienced, it remained for many years the sole source of subject matter in the field of American history. 17


17 Tryon, *op. cit.*, pp. 154-155.
In addition to the existence of textbooks, further evidence of the importance of American history in the curriculums of the early schools of the United States is to be found in the high purposes claimed for it by the writers of the textbooks. In fact, it has been asserted by one authority that all of the values ascribed to history before 1861 had been formulated and recognized by 1810. The five most prevalent values which were assigned to history up to 1810 have continued, with more or less uniformity, until the present time. These were moral training, religious training, citizenship training, provision for leisure-time reading and enjoyment, and development of patriotism. It is true that the function of history as a source of moral and religious training is now somewhat discredited, but certainly the implied citizenship, patriotic, and leisure-time values of history are still recognized and stressed.

It has been pointed out by a student of the early teaching of history in the secondary schools of the United States that history edged its way into these schools during the generation prior to 1860 under a banner borne by its advocates with the following values thereon: (1) History provides valuable training in morals. (2) History furnishes abundant opportunity for the profitable use of leisure time. (3) History is a great inspirer of patriotism. (4) History trains for a higher order of citizenship. (5) History affords occasions for religious training. (6) History strengthens and disciplines the minds of those who master its contents.

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18 Cartwright, op. cit., p. 20.

19 Tryon, op. cit., p. 77.
It should be stated in passing that the claim that history is a discipliner of the mind implied a method of teaching history that has done more harm than good to the cause of history as a school subject. In order to discipline their minds, pupils were required to memorize textbooks and to memorize long lists of dates and events. Unfortunately, these two practices persisted long after their uselessness had been irrefutably demonstrated. And who dares to say that they are wholly obsolete, even today?

In addition to public interest in the teaching of American history, stimulated by a textbook contest and by legislative enactments, interest in the subject was growing within the teaching profession. Several teachers, including Grimshaw, Willard, and Willson, wrote textbooks that were widely used. Conventions of administrators and of teachers sometimes heard addresses regarding American history in the schools, and educators occasionally emphasized the importance of the subject.

In a report made to the New Jersey Society of Teachers and Friends of Education in 1845, a committee criticized eight leading textbooks in American history then in widespread use in the schools. Published three times, the report brought on a bitter dispute between Marcus Willson, its author, and Emma Willard, whose textbook had been treated more harshly by the committee than any other. Both

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20 Ibid.
parties aired their views in magazines and in pamphlets which were widely read. Mrs. Willard belittled Willson's criticisms and charged him with plagiarizing her textbook for his own text. Willson vehemently denied her charges and became even more embittered in his attacks upon her. For months this controversy raged, and eventually subsided when neither party could think of anything new with which to fan the flames. As a result of the dispute, the textbooks by both Willard and Willson became highly popular in the schools, and general interest in the subject of American history was heightened. 21

Early teachers of American history were untrained in both subject matter and education, and there was no organized interest in the curriculums of the schools. As a result, the content and organization of American history in the schools were determined, for the most part, by the writers of the textbooks which were employed in the instructional programs. The principal writers whose textbooks in history were most influential were John McCulloch, an enterprising printer; Noah Webster, an aggressive advocate of a distinctly American system of education; Jedediah Morse, an orthodox clergyman, who, like Webster, urged cultural independence from Europe; Morse's collaborator, Elijah Parish, also an orthodox Congregationalist clergyman; and Hannah Adams, who, possessing a primary interest in religious history,

21 Cartwright, op. cit., p. 22.
was perhaps the first American woman to make writing a profession. None of these writers of history textbooks was qualified as either a historian or a curriculum-maker—but neither was anyone else at that time! Morse and Webster, with their definite ideas as to the role the school should play in the development of American citizens, were probably the nearest approach to educators that the times had produced. 22

Further evidence of the growing importance of history in the schools is found in the increasing attention that was given, after 1880, to the preparation of history teachers. Although some of the history textbooks then in use contained suggestions for teachers, the first competent attack on the problem was made in 1883 with the publication of *Methods of Teaching History*, edited by G. Stanley Hall, professor of psychology and pedagogy at Johns Hopkins University. This work, which was revised two years later and completely rewritten and republished in 1895, consisted of a series of separate articles by prominent professors of history, most of whom wrote about the theory of teaching history and about the seminar method. It was, however, a beginning; and before the end of the century, other books on method in history had appeared, notably Mary Sheldon Barnes' *Studies in Historical Method* (1896) and W. H. Mace's *Method in History* (1897). 22

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Along with the appearance of textbooks on method, "teachers' courses" in history slowly came into existence, beginning in normal schools. In the 1890's, a few universities began to offer summer sessions designed especially for the preparation of teachers, stressing general educational methods but with more or less emphasis upon the teaching of certain specific subjects. Apparently, the University of Michigan was the first institution to offer a course designed specifically for acquainting teachers or prospective teachers of history with the best methods then known for effective instruction in this field. In the summer of 1894, this institution of higher learning offered for the first time a course in methods in the teaching of history. Although a few isolated instances of special courses for history teachers were to be noted, even in 1900 neither history methods courses nor summer sessions in colleges were standard practices. A beginning had been made, however; and stress upon methods in history was to increase steadily. 23

Between 1860 and 1900, history became firmly established in the colleges and public schools of the United States. Outstanding teachers of history in various universities and colleges exerted considerable influence upon trends in American history at both the college and public school levels. These professors were accepted as authorities, and the era of the professional historian was born. In their activities,

23 Ibid., p. 29.
these historians did not limit themselves exclusively to their college teaching, but many of them began to write textbooks in American history for the various grade levels. Thus, for the first time, history textbooks were written by historians who were also educators. These books were characterized by extensive research, sound scholarship, careful sifting of fact from fiction, and a vivid and interesting narrative style. These new texts, written by historians for students of history, did much to increase the popularity of this subject in the schools.

The grade level at which American history was first taught is largely a matter of conjecture, for, in spite of the number of textbooks that were in existence, no school catalogue is known to have mentioned the subject before 1818. Evidence indicates, however, that American history first appeared in the elementary grades of the schools. In the early years of the nation, a distinction was made between the "schools," which term referred to the long-established common and grammar schools, and the developing "academies." McCulloch's textbooks were "designed for schools," as the title pages indicated; but other texts were written especially for academies, or for both schools and academies. Since no history was taught in the grammar schools, textbooks which were "designed for schools" were intended

\[24\text{Ibid.}, \text{ pp. 25-26.}\]
for use in the common or elementary schools, and their difficulty indicates that they probably were used in the upper grades of these schools. Webster's volumes were also intended "for schools," and, as revised in the 1830's, may have been used in both schools and academies. Later evidence that American history was taught in the upper elementary grades strengthens the belief that this was the level at which American history first entered the curriculums of the schools.25

In the report of the Committee of Ten of the National Education Association, issued in 1893, history was given its first important consideration and impetus by a national organization of professional educators. Later, various other committees, working under the auspices of various educational and historical organizations, were to conduct more comprehensive studies of the importance of history in the curriculum and were to make recommendations as to its function and methods of instruction. The Committee of Ten, however, pioneered in the study of history in the schools. A partial list of the resolutions of this committee, stated in brief form, will serve to indicate the nature of the recommendations made by this committee after its study of the importance of history in the schools of the United States:

1. That history and kindred subjects ought to be a substantial study in the schools in each of at least eight years.
2. That American history be included in the program.
3. That English history be included in the program.
4. That Greek and Roman history, with their Oriental connections, be included in the program.
5. That French history be included in the program.
6. That one year of the course be devoted to the intensive study of history.
7. That the year of intensive study be devoted to the careful study of some special period, as for example the struggle of France and England for North America, the Renaissance, etc.
8. That a list of suitable topics for the special period be drawn up as a suggestion to teachers.
9. That the eight-year course be consecutive.
10. That the first three years of study be devoted to mythology and biography based on general history and on American history.
11. That the point at which the program should be divided into two groups be fixed at the beginning of the high school course.

The colleges, too, were lending their influence to the recognition of American history as a significant phase of instruction in the secondary schools. In 1895, 70.65 per cent of the 432 universities and colleges in the United States required a high-school study of American history as an entrance requirement for all students. At the same time, 29.35 per cent required general history; 25.92 per cent, the history of Greece; and 26.85 per cent, the history of Rome. This policy on

Tryon, op. cit., pp. 6-8.
the part of the colleges in requiring all students seeking admittance to have had high-school courses in history indicates that, by the end of the nineteenth century, history as an independent subject of study in the nation's secondary schools was firmly and almost universally established. 27

The most influential factor in shaping the course of instruction in United States history in the schools for at least the first generation of the twentieth century was the so-called Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association. In its report, this committee in 1898, the date of the first publication of its recommendations, stressed the importance of a four-year course in high-school history, beginning with ancient history, especially that of Greece and Rome, then taking up medieval and modern European history, followed by English history, and then, finally, by an intensive study of United States history and civil government. Each of these four "blocks" of historical knowledge was considered to be essential, and the committee believed that none could be eliminated without seriously impairing the students' knowledge of history. The committee emphasized the necessity for a continuous study of history according to a logical sequence embodied in the four "blocks" mentioned above. The committee also recommended that those colleges and universities which had not already done...
so should set up entrance requirements in history. At the same time, the committee pointed out the pressing need for trained teachers of history, who should be familiar with and proficient in the newest and best methods of instruction. 28

The Committee of Seven felt that its work was done when the fields of history to be taught in the secondary schools were set up and their boundaries and general content indicated. This committee did not undertake to prepare syllabi for the proposed fields and courses, leaving that work to be done by others. The first such syllabi were prepared by special committees of the New England History Teachers' Association. These guides for teaching American history produced pronounced influence upon the development and growth of sound historical instruction in the secondary schools and became models for those who write textbooks and formulate courses of study in conformity with the recommendations of the Committee of Seven. These teachers' guides, also, became the basis upon which other educators and historians developed other syllabi. 29

For at least a generation after the publication of its report, in 1898, the recommendations of the Committee of Seven were responsible for shaping the content and methods of instruction in the history courses offered by virtually 100 per cent of the schools of the United

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28Ibid., pp. 22-25.
29Ibid., p. 188.
States. Among the values to be derived from the study of history, in the opinion of the Committee of Seven, were these:

1. In leading pupils to see the steps in the development of the human race and to gain some perception of their own and their country's place in this development, history has no equal among the subjects of study.

2. History cultivates the judgment by leading the pupil to see relations between cause and effect, as cause and effect appear in human affairs.

3. The study of history gives training in acquiring, arranging, and systematizing facts. This means getting ideas and facts from various sources and putting them together in a new form.

4. History is also helpful in developing what is sometimes called the scientific habit of mind and thought.

5. By the study of history the pupil acquires a knowledge of facts that is to him a source of pleasure and gratification in his after life.

6. History is valuable in the education of youth because of the training it affords in the handling of books and other historical tools which one must use in his everyday life.

7. History is a powerful tool in the hands of a skillful teacher for the quickening, strengthening, and disciplining of the imagination.

8. Training in good diction is a valuable by-product of good history teaching. In his speaking and writing the student must seek apt words of his own with which to describe past conditions inasmuch as there does not exist in history a technical method of expression and a peculiar terminology as is found in science and foreign language. 30

Thus, the Committee of Seven believed that history can fulfill a truly significant function in the curriculums of the secondary schools.

When high schools became a part of the public school system of the United States, they, in the main, began at once to teach American

history in order to supplement and expand the courses in this field that had already become established in the lower grades. History entered the high-school curriculum partly because of a general feeling that an additional study of the history of their nation is essential for Americans, and partly because American history had usually been offered and required in the academies, which were the forerunners of the public schools. At about this same time, also, the colleges and universities of the United States began, in large numbers, to demand American history as one of the entrance requirements, under the assumption that a knowledge of history would make better students and produce better citizens worthy of advanced training. Thus, most high schools began to offer American history in response to popular demand and to meet college entrance requirements. Later, additional legislation, especially in the 1920's and 1930's, added a new impetus to American history and served to make it a standardized offering in virtually all of the senior high schools of the country.  

Before 1860, five states had passed laws requiring the teaching of American history in their schools: Massachusetts, Vermont, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Virginia. Virginia was the only southern state to legislate history into the schools before the Civil War.  

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31 Edgar Bruce Wesley, American History in Schools and Colleges, p. 37.

32 Tryon, op. cit., p. 114.
Between 1860 and 1900, twenty-three states passed laws requiring the teaching of American history in the public schools. In 1897, all but thirteen of the forty-five states then in the Union had enacted laws requiring history in the schools. Unfortunately, these laws, in many instances, were not enforced, but their existence confirms the belief that American history was commonly taught and that it was considered to have real value as a subject of study in the schools.  

Some of the states which enacted laws requiring the teaching of history later rescinded this legislation and incorporated such requirements among the regulations of their state departments of education. In 1944, twenty-one states—twenty-two in 1950—had on their statute books regularly enacted laws requiring the teaching of American history in their secondary schools; and twenty-five other states which did not have laws requiring American history in their high schools, had stipulations prescribed by their state departments of education to the effect that American history must be taught in the secondary schools. Only two states—Colorado and New Jersey—had neither legal statutes nor requirements by the state departments of education in regard to the teaching of American history in high schools. It is interesting to note that twelve states in which American history was

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33 Cartwright, op. cit., p. 38.

34 Edgar Bruce Wesley, Teaching Social Studies in High Schools, p. 111.
required in high schools by departmental regulation only had state laws requiring American history in their elementary schools. In 1944, the teaching of American history in the elementary schools was prescribed by law or by departmental regulation in forty-five states, and in the secondary schools, in forty-six states. However, in about one fourth of the states, American history is elective in high school, only about three fourths of the states requiring it for graduation from high school. 35

Since 1900, college and graduate offerings in American history have greatly expanded. Among other characteristics of the period have been the activity of various committees appointed by professional educational groups for the purpose of studying the function and importance of history in the schools and of making recommendations concerning objectives and methods of teaching in this field; the influence of college professors, many of whom have, at the same time, been well-known historians; the almost universal use of courses of study in history; increased attention to local history; a growing emphasis upon the necessity for teacher preparation, both in subject matter and in general educational methods; the recognition and development of the social studies as a field of related subjects; and a remarkable degree of public interest in the history of the United States and in the

35 Wesley, American History in Schools and Colleges, pp. 31-32.
other subjects of the social-studies field. Two world wars in the first half of the twentieth century, together with almost unbelievable industrial and technological development, accompanied by complex economic and social developments and problems, have caused people to find in history and in the other social studies a source of information for explaining and defining what has been taking place, and for seeking the solutions to the many economic-social-political problems of the day.

During the first two decades of the twentieth century, history as a school subject reached a maturity and a pre-eminence among the school courses that were not even approached during the last two decades of the nineteenth century. This growth and development were largely achieved through the efforts of two groups appointed by the American Historical Association—the Committee of Seven, which studied and made recommendations concerning history in the high schools; and the Committee of Eight, which did the same for history in the elementary schools.

In 1944, the Committee on American History in the Schools and Colleges, appointed jointly by the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, and the National Council

36 Cartwright, op. cit., p. 30.

37 Tryon, op. cit., p. 176.
for the Social Studies, formulated the following four objectives concerning American history in the schools:

1. Every pupil should study American history on at least three grade levels.

2. Teachers of American history at every grade level from the grades to the graduate school should cooperate to determine the content of American history courses. No one group should assume the whole responsibility.

3. American history is now taught with sufficient frequency. Improvement in quality rather than increase in quantity should be the major concern of educators and the public.

4. History should be taught with a full awareness of its relations to other subjects, especially to the other social studies. 38

Now that we have made a brief survey of the position of American history in the curriculums of the secondary schools of the United States, we may ask the question, What has been the nature of the subject matter incorporated into the courses in American history in the high schools of this country? A few trends may be pointed out in making a brief answer to this question.

Before 1815, the Revolutionary War was studied in great detail, as the most important single event in American history up to that time. The knowledge of the colonial period which was imparted in the classes in American history was likely to be chiefly a memorization of the dates of English settlements in the New World, the provisions of many charters, the details and results of Indian and

38 Wesley, American History in Schools and Colleges, p. 118.
intercolonial wars, and the occurrence and settlement of boundary disputes among the colonies. Pupils might learn something about the customs and trades followed by the colonists, but mostly they studied and memorized the deadening details connected with the settlement of the colonies, the Indian wars, and the Revolutionary War. 39

In the period from 1815 to 1860, the content of courses in American history was much more detailed. The preponderance of emphasis was placed upon two periods—the colonial and the Revolutionary—and on two phases of historical development—the military and the political. Students were required to spend as much as half of their time in class reciting provisions of colonial charters, the details of the Indian wars, the names of colonial governors, the events of intercolonial wars, and other political and military facts about the colonial period. Then came the memorization of the details of the battles of the Revolution, followed by the political history of the new nation, administration by administration.

Although there was a notable decline in emphasis upon military history after 1850, the Civil War caused a revival in the study of the nation's wars. Consequently, pupils who were studying American history during the latter decades of the nineteenth century were learning

all about warfare in colonial days, the struggle for independence, the early wars following the beginning of national identity, the Mexican War, and, especially, the Civil War. History was studied—or, rather, memorized—administration by administration, and date by date. Apparently, there was still little or not any time or attention devoted to social and economic developments.

In the first decades of the twentieth century, there was a definite tendency to give more attention to the social and economic developments and implications in American history than had previously been true; but still the wars and the political aspects of our national history constituted the major emphasis.  

Since about 1920, the recent trend has been to minimize colonial and early American history and to emphasize more recent happenings, especially as they are related to world events. Also, the social and economic aspects of history have come to occupy a prominent place in the study of this subject; and the rabid nationalism and excessive patriotism that formerly characterized American history are being soft-pedalled, and replaced by a study of international relationships and aspects of interdependence. It is true, however, that...

... With all the changes, ... there is no doubt that in many of today's schools the content presented in American history courses consists largely of a dull recital of politics

40 Ibid., pp. 42, 47, 50-51.
and wars, with almost no differentiation between the junior-high-school and senior-high-school treatment. On the other hand, the materials are available and the opportunity is open for any school to develop American history courses which are differentiated at the various grade levels, which are challenging and interesting because fresh information is presented in each succeeding cycle, and which do emphasize the developmental aspects of America's growth in economic achievement, political institutions, and social life. 41

In the course of this chapter it has become apparent that American history entered the curriculums of the secondary schools at about the time that the United States became a free and independent nation. History received a decided impetus as a result of the successful culmination of the Revolutionary War, and has continued to gain in popularity and general acceptance since that time. Although history was first placed in the curriculum on a voluntary basis, states soon began to enact laws making it compulsory to teach national and state history in the schools. By the end of the nineteenth century, virtually all of the states had such laws, and all but two have them today. Because of popular demand and the belief of educators that history would be a worthy subject of study, especially after the United States was well on its way as a new nation, history became an integral part of the curriculum. Since that time, legislation has made secure the position of history in the schools.

41 Ibid., p. 57.
CHAPTER III

THE PLACE AND FUNCTION OF HISTORY IN THE CURRICULUM OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL AS INTERPRETED BY PSYCHOLOGY

It is recognized today by modern educators that any attempt at teaching any subject must be based upon sound psychological principles and upon the recognized so-called "laws of learning." At the same time, it has been proved by actual experimentation that maximum learning takes place on the part of the pupil when teaching is done in accordance with those principles of psychology that tend to inspire and challenge the learner through their effort to present learning situations in a way that will be most helpful, interesting, and vital to the pupils.

Psychologists have formulated many rules and principles designed to improve teaching methods and learning processes, regardless of the subject being taught and learned. On the whole, the principles of psychology that are sound and beneficial in the sciences, for example, will also prove to be of worth in history or in any other field of study. At the same time, of course, it must be recognized that specific fields of learning may require special adaptations of some of these principles to fit the particular subject matter; but sound psychological principles
are sound psychological principles, no matter where they may be found, for the laws governing learning are universal in their applications, and function in relation to all subject-matter fields.

Mort and Vincent have listed thirty recognized psychological guides for good teaching, which are so significant in all learning situations that they are quoted at this point:

1. No one learns without feeling some urge to learn. It may be fear, need, inborn drive, curiosity, mystery, challenge, importance, or personal attachment—or any other motivating force. The force has to be there. And the more the force wells up out of the person himself, the more the person will learn of his own accord.

2. What a person learns is influenced directly by his surroundings. If you want a person to learn something, make that thing a part of his environment, so that he may see it, live with it, be influenced by it.

3. A person learns most quickly and lastingly what has meaning for him. The pupils do not always see the meanings the teacher sees. An act takes on meaning from its outcome—what the act produces. To produce a thing he wants or can see the value of, a person is likely to master the skill necessary.

4. When an organism is ready to act, it is painful for it not to act; and when an organism is not ready to act, it is painful for it to act. This means that some time must be spent in preparing learners to learn, that physical action is as much a part of school as mental action.

5. Individuals differ in all sorts of ways. When you get a group of people together to do anything, some will be better than others. It is easy to see that some people are taller than others, less easy to see that in the dozens of abilities that relate to success in learning any class will show a vast range of differences.
6. Security and success are the soil and climate for growth. No one can learn well when he doesn't belong—any more than a plant can grow without roots in the soil. No one can succeed on failure.

7. All learning occurs through attempts to satisfy needs. What people do, consciously or not, they do because of need. And as they do, they learn what to do to satisfy need.

8. Emotional tension decreases efficiency in learning. Before the skills and facts of teaching come friendliness, security, acceptance, belief in success. Without these, tensions are produced. Constant, monotonous attention to any one thing is also a producer of tension.


10. Interest is an indicator of growth. We don't teach to get interest; but if interest isn't present the teaching isn't prospering.

11. Interest is a source of power in motivating learning. When you are interested in a thing you are in it and feel a part of it. A teacher who doesn't hook his teaching to whatever pupils feel they are already a part of is not making the greatest use of the powers he has at his command.

12. What gives satisfaction tends to be repeated; what is annoying tends to be avoided. Practice makes perfect only when it is the right kind of practice. Learning is efficient if the pupil tries to master what fits his abilities and what gives him satisfaction.

13. The best way to learn a part in life is to play that part. This is the apprenticeship idea. Upon leaving school the parts in life which pupils are to play are not completely new to them if they have practiced those parts in the school.

14. Learning is more efficient and longer lasting when the conditions for it are real and lifelike. Attitudes, habits, skills for life are best learned when the activities
of school are like those of life. Methods of teaching should be as much as possible like those one uses in actual living.

15. **Piecemeal learning is not efficient.** We learn facts and skills best when we learn them in a pattern, not as isolated bits of subject matter. The facts and skills that we learn become part of a pattern when we learn them in relation to their use—as part of a project, job, or other enterprise.

16. **You can't train the mind like a muscle.** There is no body of knowledge that is the key to "mind-training." There is no set of exercises that will "sharpen the wits" as a grindstone will sharpen steel. This means: Don't isolate the things you want to teach from the real setting in which they belong.

17. **A person learns by his own activity.** He learns what he does; he gains insight as he learns to organize what he does. Within certain limits, the more extensive a learner's activity the greater will be his learning.

18. **Abundant, realistic practice contributes to learning.** Learners need much practice in the many intellectual, creative, and social acts which we want them to master.

19. **Participation enhances learning.** Participation is essential to any complex learning. Complete participation is important—from planning to checking the results.

20. **Firsthand experience makes for lasting and more complete learning.** There is a difference between reading and hearing about something secondhand and the king of knowledge and insight that come from firsthand experience.

21. **General behavior is controlled by emotions as well as by intellect.** Far more than a place to train only the mind, the modern school is concerned with training the emotions also.

22. **Unused talents contribute to personal maladjustment.** Not only are unused talents a waste to society; they form a core of intense dissatisfaction in the individual. Frustrated talent can lead to many kinds of neurotic symptoms.
23. You start to grow from where you are and not from some artificial starting point. It is unrealistic to assume that pupils can move through the grades of school like taking the steps on a ladder, jumping from step to step. It is impossible to move a pupil on from some point or grade standard that he hasn't yet achieved.

24. Growth is a steady, continuous process, and different individuals grow at different rates. It is impossible for a class of first-graders to move along all together until they come to the twelfth grade. Each individual learns, but at his own rate. His growth is steady; he does not leap from grade to grade.

25. It is impossible to learn one thing at a time. It is impossible to turn everything else off while learning two times two. The learner as a whole responds to his setting as a whole and takes in many things besides two times two. Learning by problems, topics, and projects, replacing learning by bits, makes capital of this fact.

26. Learning is reinforced when two or more senses are used as elements at the same time. One-cylinder learning sticks only to reading or only to listening. Pupils learn better if they see with the eye, touch with the hands, hear with the ears, heft with the muscles, at the same time that they are seeing with the mind's eye.

27. The average pupil is largely a myth. Grade standards are an average which every pupil is expected to achieve. But any standard that you can set will be too difficult for some, too easy for others. The achievement of a group scatters over a wide range—only a few are at the "average" point. A far greater number are scattered above and below the average.

28. If you want a certain result, teach it directly. Your pupils are not born with the skills you want them to have; nor can we always depend upon other teachers to teach pupils to our satisfaction. If your pupils do not know what you want them to know, the most efficient thing to do is to teach it to them.
29. Children develop in terms of all the influences which affect them. Not only the 180 days of school but the 365 days of living in school, home, and community go to make a person what he becomes.

30. It has been said that a person learns more in the first three years of his life than in all the years afterward. However this may be, it is certain that the early home life is vastly important. Accordingly, to improve its effectiveness a school must do what it can to improve the educational setting of the home.¹

How do the above psychological principles apply to the teaching and learning of history in the secondary school? Perhaps it is not essential to discuss the relationships of each of these principles to the place and function of history in the curriculum, but a few major considerations may well be pointed out.

A number of the principles quoted above indicate that what the child learns must be related to his present needs, interests, and environment, and it must contribute to the solution of his recognized problems. But history is a study of the past, so how can it meet these standards? In this very assertion lies a significant fallacy: in its applications history is more than a study of the past; it is a study of the present as well. If this is true, then the historical study of the past can be linked with a survey of the present in order to show relationships in terms of similarities and differences. Since human nature and human problems have not undergone any appreciable change

¹Paul R. Mort and William S. Vincent, Modern Educational Practice, pp. 401-404.
during all the centuries of recorded history, the activities and problems of mankind in the past can be expected to bear a close relationship to those of mankind in the present day. It is important that pupils who study history should understand this vital interaction of the past and the present first of all. There is certainly some value in studying history according to a strictly chronological scheme in order to show the development and the evolving institutions of mankind; but at the same time there is also value in studying history according to the counter-chronological approach, which will be discussed in some detail further on in this chapter—that is, beginning with the present and moving backward into the unknown past. Each of these plans, however, has its weaknesses and its disadvantages. Therefore, perhaps the best approach to the teaching of history is to be found in a synthesis of the chronological and the counter-chronological approaches, which means simply that an effort will be made to study the past and the present simultaneously and in close correlation. In this way, history can meet the present needs, interests, and problems of the pupils, and it can become to them a functioning channel through which present-day problems may be understood and by means of which the contributions of the past to the present may be appreciated.

Several of the psychological principles quoted above indicate, too, that learning is more effective and longer lasting when the conditions
of learning are real and life-like. In the teaching and learning of history, this criterion can be met through a study of problems and projects which have a vital and real meaning to the pupils. For example, a class in history may decide to study the history of the school, the town, or the county and to write up their findings as a section for the school yearbook or as a series of articles in the school newspaper. Or, they may visit the local governmental and legal bodies of the city and county and learn how the democratic form of government functions on a local level. All that is needed is a desire to move the study of history into the realm of the practical and the meaningful; when this desire is recognized, the opportunities for making history function in practical ways in the lives and experiences of the pupils are virtually unlimited.

Another important implication of the psychological principles under consideration at this point is the fact that a person learns by his own activity. It cannot be questioned that there is some educational value to the study of a book, the memorization of facts and dates, and the rote recitation of what has been read; but the learning which comes from these practices is far inferior to that which evolves from participation in activities which enable the pupils to apply the knowledge they have gained from their reading. Perhaps the social-studies fields afford less opportunity for the functional use of knowledge than do other
subject-matter fields; but, even so, the resourceful and energetic teacher can always discover ways in which the pupils can be challenged to do something with the knowledge that comes to them from the social studies.

It is impossible to learn only one thing at a time, according to the psychological principles quoted above. This is another strong point in favor of the correlation of past history with present problems and activities of mankind and of the pupils and adults in their community. It is worth little to learn the facts of history unless one, at the same time, learns what those facts mean in the past experiences of mankind and in the present situations in which men and women of the twentieth century live and work.

Possibly the above discussion is sufficient to point out some of the many applications that can be made of the sound psychological principles cited above in relation to the teaching and learning of history in the schools. The most significant point to be kept in mind in this connection is that, although history is a study of the past experiences of mankind, it is also a study of the present needs, interests, activities, and problems of men and women. And, if history is to serve its true and most valuable function, these two phases of its function—the revelation of the past and its implications for the present—must be studied in close correlation.
Because of the peculiar nature of the subject matter of the courses in history, there often is a feeling on the part of teachers that there is little opportunity in history for the recognition of individual differences among pupils and the adaptation of subject matter in accordance with these differences. This attitude, however, is not a valid one. Especially in the secondary schools, teachers have been slow to do more than to give lip service to the principle of individual differences, so that most of their teaching violates rather than recognizes the concept of individual differences in actual practice. ² Even in history, with its more or less fixed body of subject matter, there still should be recognition of the fact that pupils differ in their abilities to understand what they read and in their needs for educational development. The topics in history, as in other fields of study, can and should be modified in order to serve the individual needs and differences of the learners.

Pupils differ, too, in their ability to experience. Some can enter readily into activities and projects, while others find difficulty in doing so. Some pupils are highly efficient in carrying out certain types of experiences, but fail miserably in others. This means, of course, that the experiences in which the pupils are to engage must be flexible and adaptable in order to meet the abilities of the various individuals in the group. More than ever before, teachers are coming to realize

²Freeman Glenn Macomber, Teaching in the Modern Secondary School, p. 27.
that many of the aims of education can never be attained merely by
studying books.

... For instance, reading and reciting about democracy
will not, in itself, develop the ability to participate effec-
tively in democratic living. If the classroom is to make
really worth-while contributions to democratic ways of
living, it must itself be a democracy where the pupils are
participating as responsible members. 3

A psychological principle which once held great importance
among educators has now been largely abandoned, although not alto-
gether discarded, for some merit is still recognized in it. This is the
idea that learning is transferable—that a study of arithmetic will de-
velop the reasoning powers in all subjects; that the learning of the facts
and dates of history provides excellent training for the mind, and so
on. Although the transfer of learning, as such, is now recognized
to have been a fallacious assumption, it is becoming more and more
apparent to modern educators that generalizations are the basis of
much transfer and, consequently, that if these generalizations are
based upon and grow out of vital and meaningful experiences of the
learner, they will more readily be applied in situations in which there
may be unique elements. For instance,

... Pupils who have been educated in secondary schools
in which there are well-organized student governments
and where the curriculum in political science comes from
community, state, and national politics stand much better

3Ibid., p. 32.
chances of becoming intelligent and participating voters than do pupils who have learned their politics from textbooks alone and who have had little or no real participation in politics.  

Thus, there may be some validity in the concept of the transfer of learning. Certainly, the learning experiences in history must be made as vital and meaningful as possible in order to give the pupils new understandings and appreciations of the progress and problems of mankind.

Although there are still some historians who are interested only in the presentation and learning of historical facts, the modern conception of history recognizes this subject as a presentation of the experiences of mankind, as the laboratory in which human nature may be analyzed, and as the great school of sociology in which the practical lessons of human life can best be studied. "Whereas the ancients sought only ethical stimulation in history, now not only moral inspiration in the deeds of heroic men is sought, but also a better comprehension of human nature and practical hints for our different policies of life." Thus, history aims at the well-rounded development of the whole individual.

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4 Ibid., p. 43.


6 Ibid.
A study of psychology and a knowledge of psychological principles should be of considerable value to teachers of history and the other social studies by revealing to them an understanding of the nature and behavior of mankind. Since history is the story of man's behavior, there should be a close relationship existing between this subject and psychology, which provides the keys for understanding human behavior.

A fuller grasp of the nature of emotional life contributes perceptibly to the interpretation of acts of individuals, mobs, religious groups, economic organizations, armies, nations, and so, both past and present. In other words, the materials of history may be interpreted in the light of a knowledge of man's emotional life and experiences. Man's activities, for the most part, grow out of his emotions; and activities comprise the subject matter of history. Therefore, there is a definite and close relationship between the psychology of the emotions and the function of history. Psychology sees and explains history as the story of man's activities in the solution of his problems and in the pursuit of progress.

Closely related to the emotional make-up of man is the matter of his intelligence. It is obvious to modern educators that, in education, all persons cannot be treated as equals. In accordance with the democratic concepts upon which American society is based, educational

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8 Ibid., p. 95.
opportunities are legally open to all, but legal availability does not mean that all persons can take advantage of these opportunities, for there are many individuals who, because of intellectual limitations, are unable to profit from the educational advantages that legally belong to them. It must be admitted that the same educational privileges cannot be extended to all because of differences in mental endowments. Likewise, the subject matter of history, as of all other subjects, must be flexible enough to meet the needs and challenge the interests of all pupils enrolled in the schools—from the subnormal individual to the genius. For the subnormal person and the average individual, this means that the program must be simplified in order to give them a sense of satisfactory accomplishment; for the person with higher intelligence, the fundamentals of the course must be enriched by much additional research work, by special projects, and by numerous creative activities so that his interests, too, may be challenged and his needs met.

Now it is known that education must take the whole person of the pupil into account—not just his mind. The child comes to school with a unique personality and with individual abilities and traits that distinguish him from all others. It is not the function of the school to ignore these individual endowments and to strive to make every pupil

9Ibid., p. 109.
conform to a standard mold; instead, the school should recognize that every person is different from every other, and it should capitalize upon these differences and develop them rather than ignore or suppress them. The whole child, with all of his differences and his individuality, must be developed by the school into a well-rounded person, able to think and to fill his place in society with efficiency and with definite purpose.

... Approved conduct may be insured only by the education and training of the whole person, and such training, to be effective, must be largely specific. Education must be broader in the sense that it must take into account not only memorization of facts, but practice in judging, reasoning, controlling the emotions, initiating and sustaining activity. At the same time education must be more detailed in the sense that it cannot be assumed that information, judicial attitudes, impersonal reasoning and acting, acquired or exercised in one situation, such as in the classroom of teacher A, will function in other situations such as in athletics in school, in discussions on the street. 10

The modern historian is likely to integrate his story of history with developments along other lines, for history as it is written and studied today is largely a synthesis of many fields of knowledge, all of which have contributed to man's progress and to his understanding of the world in which he lives. If geographic facts such as natural resources, river valleys, or climatic conditions are needed to make clear the happenings which he is discussing, the historian utilizes

10 Ibid., pp. 112-113.
geography freely as a means of explaining historical happenings and of defining historical facts. If economic conditions are necessary to an understanding of the story that history has to tell, they are discussed at length. If trends in immigration or in social patterns may seem to contribute to the meaning of what has happened in the area of history, the historian, without hesitation, makes use of these factors in recounting his story. In other words, history now is more than a barren recital of dates and battles; it has become, instead, a comprehensive story of man's actions, thinking, and problems as he has made his way toward progress for himself and for society, and of the many diverse and interrelated factors that have produced an influence upon the trend of events. This is the way modern history is written; and it should also therefore be the way in which it is taught and learned. One of the psychological principles cited earlier in this chapter states that it is impossible to learn just one thing at a time. If this principle is applied to history, it may be said that little historical learning occurs if one devotes himself to a memorization of dates and bare historical facts without, at the same time, learning something about the underlying causes of the events of history and of the interrelated factors which have had a bearing upon historical happenings.

As history is now conceived of as being a unified, whole treatment of the story of mankind and a study of the world's present status in the light of all the integrated factors that contribute to present conditions and problems, so is the individual who comes to school to be looked upon as an integrated, whole personality, or at least as one who is capable, under proper guidance and instruction, of becoming integrated and whole.

The child comes to school, as popularly supposed, to get his mind trained. To the great annoyance of many teachers, the child insists on bringing his body and his emotions with him. This semi-flippant statement introduces us directly to the modern concept of "the whole child." The whole child comes to school. More than that, he learns all over: he learns as a whole child and not by sections. It is quite impossible to train body or emotions without affecting each other and the intellect as well. As a matter of fact, the very terms, intellect or mind, body, emotions, are arbitrary designations. The aspects so named are not separable entities. Mind and body are functioning aspects of one unified whole. The individual reacts as a unified, integrating whole. The living child cannot be divided up for teaching purposes.

Sometimes the criticism is made that the use of all of the modern techniques, new aids to learning, and varied materials which are now available to teachers tends to take the place of the teacher, who is in danger of becoming obsolete and unessential in the classroom. Actually, though, the new procedures and devices made the teacher more important than ever, for now he must select the proper materials and

activities, and present them at the proper time and in the proper manner to assure maximum educational benefits. In the traditional conception of education, the teacher had little to do except to assign lessons in the textbook and then to hear recitations of these assignments. All of the necessary material was contained between the covers of the old reliable textbook, and education consisted of the process of transferring what was in the book into the mind of the child and then out again in recitations to the teacher. But this concept of education is no longer acceptable. In the light of modern ideas concerning the processes of learning, what is the best approach to the teaching of history at the secondary-school level?

One of the psychological theories which appears to have particular value in relation to the social studies is that of the field concept of learning. According to this idea, learning proceeds from first perceiving a living or vital whole, whatever it may be, and however imperfectly it may be understood. This whole, however, must be important to the learner's immediate purposes. Analysis and differentiation of the component parts not only result in smaller wholes but contribute to an understanding of the larger whole. Instead of proceeding from the simple to the complex, which for centuries has been

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the usual procedure in education, learning begins with a complex unit which becomes simpler and more meaningful as it is better understood, through a study of its parts and an analysis of their interrelationships and meanings.

Field-theory psychology holds that it is absurd to teach facts out of relation to the situation in which they occur and to which they are related, or skills apart from their use and practical application. No item should be considered without reference to the total situation. A practical use of the field theory is found in the increasing emphasis upon "wholes" in teaching and learning, which simply means that subject matter and learning experiences are organized on the basis of large units or broad topics, with less and less emphasis upon fragmentary assign-study-recite sequences. In the secondary schools, the rapidly expanding "core" curriculum is an adaptation of the field theory.  

Thus, in the light of these ideas, history is to be taught and learned as a broad area of learning made up of smaller segments of knowledge and information, all of which are interrelated and make up the whole; and not as a series of dates and battles and facts which have little relationship to each other and which do not make up a meaningful whole.

Field-theory psychologists believe that understandings, attitudes, and meanings originate in insight, and later become clearer

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and more meaningful as the individual has further experiences and makes additional applications. Skills that may be acquired first of all as a result of insight become better established through practice and drill, because practice develops skill and efficiency in anything that is done.

Learning situations beyond the maturation and experience levels of the child are "too hard" for him and antagonize and discourage him. Since he cannot possess any insight in such situations, he cannot actually learn. He may resort at first to blind fumbling; later, possibly, to cheating and lying. In such cases, the habit of failure is built up, and very undesirable attitudes and habits of work are developed.  

The central notion of the field theory of learning, simply stated, is that of a field or a surrounding environment in which events occur. The nature of the field gives meaning to the items or parts included within it and helps to interpret the events that occur within the field.

The field theory in psychology may be interpreted in terms of three distinct phases, which are the organismic, the gestalt, and the topological. According to the organismic interpretation, the individual is thought of as a living organism whose parts and functions are integrated and unified, and whose growth is based upon definite and known lines which are defined by laws or principles. Gestalt psychology

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15 Ibid., pp. 156-158.
interprets perceptions and knowledge in terms of so-called primary wholes. According to this idea, special attention must be devoted to the parts of these wholes, which must be identified in and lifted out of their fields in order to become known and understood. Without this special analysis, they remain integrated segments of a whole which is comprehended in terms of the field or environment in which the whole exists. The topological interpretation has to do with the unity and wholeness of child and group behavior. There is a definite tendency toward unity among the three interpretations, all of which seek to approach the same central problem from different angles. 16

Briefly, field-theory psychology regards the field as primary. Meaning is given the parts (events, persons, processes) by the field within which they occur. Relativity is hence an important principle. Parts may be differentiated out of wholes and become smaller wholes with meanings of their own. 17

The field-theory of learning encompasses eight laws or principles which apply to all three interpretations of the theory—that is, to the organismic, the gestalt, and the topological interpretations. These eight laws, briefly stated, are as follows:

The Law of Field Genesis states that wholes evolve as wholes and are primary.

The Law of Derived Properties and the Law of Determined Action hold that the meanings and the behavior of the parts are determined by the wholes within which they occur.

16 Ibid., pp. 150-151.

17 Ibid., p. 151.
The Law of Field Properties holds that the whole is more than the sum of the parts and that the properties of the field are not the same as the sum of the properties of the parts.

The Law of Individuation holds that parts come to have existence through the process of individuation, or differentiation, or structurization.

The Law of Configuration holds that a system of energy always functions as a unit and is able to adjust itself to a number of disturbing factors.

The Law of Least Action states that the organism or energy system will take the most direct route to the relief of tension or the restoration of equilibrium.

The Law of Maximum Work states that the organism or energy system will exert maximum effort to relieve tension or restore equilibrium.18

In the teaching and learning of history at the secondary-school level, the field theory holds the implication that history is to be presented as a whole, and not in isolated segments, parts, or facts. Interrelationships are to be stressed, so that pupils will understand causes and effects that have a bearing upon the events of history. History, then, is to be looked upon as the unified, integrated story of man's progress and of his present situation, together with all of the factors that are related thereto. All of this constitutes the "field" of history.

Another implication of the field theory for the teaching and learning of history is that the field in which history is to function is the situation or environment in which the pupils are currently living. This means, then, that history must be related and made meaningful

18 Ibid., p. 154, quoting Raymond H. Wheeler and Francis T. Perkins, Principles of Mental Development.
to the present day and to situations with which the learners are familiar. This concept is closely related to the counter-chronological approach to the teaching and learning of history, which will be discussed later in this chapter.

Shall history be taught in chronological sequence, beginning in the past and working up to the present; or shall it be taught backwards, beginning with the known present and working back into the unknown past? There are two different and distinct schools of thought on this question, each of which has many advocates. Often it is found that the pupil, who is so very much alive in a living and vital present, has little or no interest in a dull or dead past. Thus, history is at a disadvantage at the very beginning when it is taught chronologically, for the teacher is faced with the necessity of arousing some semblance of interest on the part of the pupil before much can be learned. In this connection,

... the teacher has continually faced the difficulty of organizing and presenting history to a pupil who is essentially a layman insofar as the subject matter is concerned. The vast majority of pupils are not historical-minded and seem by their very nature to want to avoid the painful process of examining a baffling and complicated past to find partial answers to a more baffling and distracting present. 19

Why should the pupil be required to learn what happened thousands or hundreds of years ago when he is so vitally interested in and concerned

with what is happening in the very moment in which he is living? There is far more to the present than he can master or understand, so why bother with the dead past? These are questions which the teacher must continually seek to answer in such a manner that his pupils will be challenged with a desire to study history.

It is only natural that, in the study of history, an effort should be made to seek the easiest and shortest road to the effective use of the past in explaining the present in a manner that is understandable, meaningful, and logical. "But any road that really reaches the desired end must make the past which it traverses intelligible and must, therefore, lead to what mattered then on the way to what matters now." 20 It is obvious that the use of the past in explaining the present implies an understanding of the past. If the past is not understood, the past, of course, can contribute little toward an understanding of the present. 21

Gates, in a discussion of the psychological (or counter-chronological) versus the chronological order in the teaching of history, concedes that a forward or chronological order is often desirable, while in other instances a reverse order may meet the situation more effectively. It is always best, however, to begin with present interests.


21 Ibid., p. 129.
needs, and abilities, although it is not necessary to employ the same order in all cases. From the past experiences of the nation or the race, those data should be selected which may be brought to bear upon the present situation. The teacher of history will know the child's thinking, feeling, and acting capacities and will, in the light of this knowledge, draw upon experiences out of the past to shed light upon the development of present projects in actual life. In other words, even if history is taught chronologically, it should be enlivened with a consideration of the present; and if it is taught according to a counter-chronological plan, it should be enriched and explained by materials from the past. This means, then, that perhaps neither the psychological nor the chronological order is wholly preferable, but that it is best to synthesize and integrate the two methods of approach in order to make history a living, vital, meaningful subject of study by a skillful merging of past history with present events and problems.

Wesley discerns four major criticisms of or weaknesses in the strictly chronological approach to history. These may be paraphrased as follows:

1. Chronological organization stresses history at the expense of the pupil. History is the thing of primary importance, rather than the learner.

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2. Pupils have almost no appreciation or understanding of chronology until they reach their mid-teens, and therefore they may often be confused and bewildered rather than helped by a chronological arrangement of materials that only shoulders them with another problem instead of furnishing them with aid in understanding the materials of the subject matter.

3. Cause-and-effect relationships are often obscured by intervening irrelevancies.

4. Topics and problems are broken up into fragments because of the dictates of chronology.  

There appears to be more favorable opinion among educators and historians in regard to the psychological or counter-chronological approach to the teaching and learning of history than in regard to the strictly chronological approach.

Those who organize the social studies as a field or by subjects for teaching and learning purposes claim that they utilize the psychological approach when the arrangement of subject matter is made to fit the capacities, interests, and experiences of the pupils. In history, such an arrangement must necessarily begin with the present and work backward into the past. For this reason, the psychological

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approach to history may be called the counter-chronological approach. The appearance in the United States of the teaching-history-backwards idea occurred in connection with the educational-psychology movement, which emphasized the nature of the learning process and the organization of subject matter best suited to it.  

Although "the approach to the past through the needs of the present is regarded as new," as early as 1752, the eminent German historian and educator, Basedow, advocated teaching history backwards as the first stage in historical instruction. He believed that students of history could better understand the past if they knew the present first. He believed, too, that history should be made as realistic as possible. For this reason, he said that historical study should begin with the present, which is real, vital, and meaningful.

At about the same time, Salzmann (1744-1811), a German minister and educator, whose primary interest was history, criticized the ordinary methods of teaching history in a manner that sounds quite familiar in the twentieth century. He wrote: "History as it is ordinarily taught lifts the pupil out of the society of the living and places

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26 Ibid., pp. 76, 81.
him in the society of the dead." He went on to say that pupils learn what happened a thousand years ago without learning what is happening now. They know about the wonders, wars, and artistic accomplishments of Greece and Rome without knowing what assemblies, councils, and mayors are. They know about the Forum and the Areopagus, but they never see inside the city hall in their own town. Certainly, this is a valid criticism of history when it is taught by the purely chronological approach.

"It is an old adage that we should study the past to understand the present. But we should also study the present to understand why contemporary historians interpret the past as they do." Thus, history should not ignore the present in its emphasis upon the past, nor ignore the past in its emphasis upon the present. Both the past and the present should go hand in hand as equally important elements of the total scope of history. In fact, "what to teach about the past should be determined by the present," and, conversely, what is taught about the present should be explained and enriched by a knowledge of the past.

27 Ibid., p. 85.


When one is familiar with the history of a nation, the facts in that history seem to arrange themselves most suitably in a chronological order from the earliest to the present. In fact, teachers and writers of textbooks have usually, until recent years, insisted that, in their study of history, pupils must begin where the country began and follow the developing nation down through the years to the present time. But this procedure, although it has its advantages and its valuable points, is subject to serious question. The pupil, not being familiar with the issues and events involved in the historical development of the country, can best begin with the present conditions of his own immediate environment, plus information that has come to him about current conditions and problems elsewhere. Beginning with what he knows, with what is of interest and significance to him, he can readily be motivated to investigate the past in an effort to discover explanations of why present conditions and problems exist. Thus, he proceeds from the known to the unknown, from the present to the past.  

Oscar Browning, the author of a popular textbook in world history, wrote in 1920:

The merit of history is that it begins nowhere or rather that it begins everywhere. It does not matter where you make a start. You can read anything in which

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you are interested, a biography, an account of a movement, and from that you can proceed backwards or forwards. Indeed, it is not a bad way to read all history backwards, passing from the known to the unknown. Many persons are choked off from the study of history at an early stage from the dullness of the beginning.

The first chapter of any complete history is seldom interesting, origins are imperfectly known, and much is left to conjecture; it is better to plunge into the middle.

As a general concept, the counter-chronological approach seems to possess a degree of merit for those interested in organizing history for teaching purposes. However, when the counter-chronological approach is applied to a particular topic in history, it appears to have few, if any, significant advantages over the straight forward-looking treatment of history. Therefore, says Tryon, one must conclude that, as a general principle to follow, the idea of approaching history from a counter-chronological point of view appears to be sound, but in practical application it often is unwieldy, illogical, and confusing.

According to the psychological concepts, however, the advantages of the method outweigh the disadvantages, although most psychologists are willing to concede that neither the counter-chronological nor the chronological treatment of history should be adhered to rigidly, but rather that both should be recognized as valid approaches to the study of history, particularly when utilized in close correlation, one method supplementing and enriching the other.

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31 Quoted by Tryon, op. cit., p. 441.
32 Tryon, op. cit., p. 444.
In recent years there has been a growing tendency to give connected and uninterrupted treatment to the topics, aspects, and elements of history. This practical approach makes it possible to deal with the subject under consideration in its entirety without the artificial barriers of chronology which make it very difficult to develop a thorough understanding of a topic as a whole. Rather, the topic, when chronology is excessively emphasized, is broken up into so many segments in seeking to conform to the sense of time that relationships and logical phases of development may become difficult to understand. The supposed psychological advantage of the reverse-chronological organization of materials is that it enables the pupil to proceed expeditiously from the known, the experienced, and the understood to less familiar grounds. All materials should be so organized as to reveal instantly their value and pertinency, and this plan of approach seems to offer promise of such a result. If it quickly breaks down, as it seems to do when applied to periods beyond the experience of the pupils, how can its values be salvaged? The answer, as we have pointed out previously, seems to lie in some compromise and integration of the two types of chronological organization, the chronological and the counter-chronological.

The value of the reverse-chronological organization of materials in history is to be found in its contemporary setting, its utilization of
what is familiar as a starting point for learning. Is it not possible, then, to find a worth-while point of departure in the present and to connect it with the usual forward-moving organization of materials? If the situations are similar, the connection is more vital than the faithful adherence to chronology in either direction. 33

Because boys and girls are usually more interested in the immediate than in the remote, some writers argue that chronological units should start with the present and develop in reverse order. This method has been called the psychological approach to history, for it attempts to emphasize the nature of the learning process and to organize subject matter in accordance with the needs and interests of students. The idea of approaching history from the known and immediate and then moving to the unknown and remote appears sound on the surface, but in actual practice it has usually been found to be "unwieldy, illogical, and confusing." 34

... History is the story of man's progress. It should show cause-and-effect relationships, continuity, and development. This is impossible when it is taught in reverse order. Consequently, teachers who wish to capitalize on interest in contemporary events to motivate the study of a chronological unit have found a situation in contemporary culture analogous to one in the period covered in the unit and have used it to motivate the study of a culture of another time and another place. 35

Thus, again, emphasis is placed upon the fact that the best approach to the teaching and learning of history is through a careful combination

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33 Wesley, Teaching Social Studies in High Schools, pp. 161-162.

34 Tryon, op. cit., p. 444.

of chronological and counter-chronological plans of attack. The past and the present should be unified to give a clear and accurate picture of the whole scope of history.

In this chapter, dealing with the place and function of history in the curriculum of the secondary school as interpreted by psychology, it has doubtless become clear that the most important psychological considerations in the teaching and learning of history are those which help to make history vital and meaningful to the pupil. Above all, education must be real and challenging to the learner; it must begin where he is and strive to help him go where he should be in regard to concepts, understandings, and appreciations. When this principle is applied to history, it means, simply, that, in order to be more meaningful and effective, the work in history must be closely related to the pupil's present needs, interests, affairs, and problems. It must tie in closely with his current situation so that he may comprehend the role that history plays in making the present intelligible as well as giving meaning to the past.

Although there are many advocates of both the chronological and the counter-chronological methods of presenting history, the bulk of favorable endorsement at present appears to be on the side of the latter. Yet, those who favor this method of approach recognize that there are times when a strict adherence to a counter-chronological
plan may lack meaning and coherence. Also, it is recognized that, when a purely chronological approach to history is followed, there is always extreme difficulty in challenging the pupils' interest in a so-called "dead" past. They are so vitally alive in the present, and so intensely interested in all that is going on around them and in the world in which they live, they see little of value in spending time with what happened thousands or hundreds of years ago. And yet a knowledge of the past is essential for an understanding of the present. So, then, the psychologist sees history as a tool for integrating and correlating the past and the present, so that both may have meaning and worth to the pupil. Both may be studied concurrently and in relationship to each other, in order to give pupils an appreciation and a knowledge of both past and present in all of their interrelationships. History, then, in the psychological approach, is a synthesis of the present with all that has happened in the past.
CHAPTER IV

THE PLACE AND FUNCTION OF HISTORY IN THE CURRICULUM OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL AS SEEN BY HISTORIANS AND EDUCATORS

Since their establishment, the public schools of the United States have been dedicated to the preservation and extension of democratic ideals and to the development of the highest possible type of democratic behavior on the part of each child, so that he may grow into an efficient, participating citizen in the community, in the state, and in the nation. If this great objective is to be attained, the educational program must develop each child's personality to the fullest possible degree and also bring about growth in the essentials for democratic living. 1

Certainly, the study of history can make a worth-while contribution to the realization of this goal, for history is the one inclusive, over-all subject which makes an effort to record and present to learners the story of man's co-operative successes and failures in all phases of his life. But history alone has been unable to explain the

contemporary world. Consequently, the whole field of the social studies has come into existence, with its broadened content and current meaning and applicability.  

History makes the past meaningful to the present, while the other social studies join with history in making the present meaningful to itself.

History provides a well-known and a specific approach to understanding society. . . . History is not a tale that is told but a record with meaning. . . . Accurate, detailed history affords a view of the past, an understanding of the present, and a preview of the future. The social studies teacher finds it one of the most practicable approaches to an understanding of current social issues.

In his discussion of the meaning and function of history, Johnson has written: "History teaches us whence we came, whither we are going, and what we ought to do while we are going." It has been said that history is the story of all of man's activities and of the various institutions which have grown out of these activities. It takes in all of life, and covers all forms of human endeavor—social, educational, political, religious, and economic. In order to understand history, one must see and understand man as he engages in these various types of activities, and also one must note and comprehend the growth

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2 Edgar Bruce Wesley, Teaching Social Studies in High Schools, p. 33.

3 Ibid., p. 43.

of various types of institutional life from these various forms of activities in which mankind engages. This study of man's institutional life necessitates a knowledge of the evolution and purposes of the home, the school, government, the church, and the varied vocations of the present-day world. "Only as the continuity of the development of human civilization is recognized, will the significance of events as they occur be understood."\(^5\)

It is generally agreed, by both laymen and educators, that a knowledge of our own national history is essential in the making of American citizens. The reasons for this belief may be summed up under six major headings, according to the Report of the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges of the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, and the National Council for the Social Studies. These primary assertions are as follows:

1. History makes loyal citizens because memories of common experiences and common aspirations are essential ingredients in patriotism.

2. History makes intelligent voters because sound decisions about present problems must be based upon knowledge of the past.

\(^5\)Amanda Johnson, The Teaching of History and Citizenship in Grades and in Junior High School, p. 6.
3. History makes good neighbors because it teaches tolerance of individual differences and an appreciation of varied abilities and interests.

4. History makes stable, well-rounded individuals because it gives them a start toward understanding the patterns of society and toward enjoying the artistic and intellectual productions of the past.

5. History gives long views, a perspective, a measure of what is permanent in a nation's life and in the progress of the world.

6. History is to a people what memory is to an individual—and memory, expressed or unconscious, guides the actions of every normal human being. So does history guide national affairs.  

The study of history can help to develop loyal, intelligent, cooperative, well-rounded, and well-balanced American citizens who know the story of the past and are able to interpret the present in the light of what has happened previously.

Formal history is an attempt to widen and deepen the stream of historical thinking which flows through every man's mind. We are all historians, as Carl Becker

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7 Ibid., p. 20.
once said; we are all forced to use our knowledge of the past in every act of daily life. We do something because we have always done it; we refrain from doing something because we have found that unpleasant consequences develop from that particular action. Faced with a new situation, we try to find in it elements which are familiar to us from past experience. If we could not learn from the past, we would find the present unendurable. We would be perpetual strangers in the city of mankind, unable to move easily or with confidence, forever wandering from the main streets into the blind alleys. Men who cannot remember their own personal history are feeble-minded or afflicted; men who cannot learn from their own experience are failures. 8

The unique importance of history in the curriculum of the schools is based not so much upon its objectives, which are common to other school subjects as well, especially to the other social studies, as upon its methods and materials. History relates the social, political, and economic experiences of people in concrete and detailed form. It deals with specific and unique events instead of with averages and abstractions. It is interested not only in the achievements of outstanding persons, but also in the experiences of groups of ordinary individuals; and both groups are given recognition in its subject matter. Since history organizes its materials in chronological order, it logically emphasizes both change and continuity, both development and decay. The element of time—of contrasting the present with the past—cannot be given so much emphasis in any other school subject.

8Ibid., p. 15.
Actually, history tries to present the facts of social, political, and economic experiences of mankind in approximately the same order and form in which the facts of individual experience occur. In other or simpler words, history affords a moving, on-going panorama of the story of people and their achievements in the world.

All of the social studies perform their own particular and valuable functions in clarifying and defining the social changes that have occurred and are now occurring in the experiences of mankind, and certainly history records these changes and seeks to explain them. Among some of the more significant changes and trends in human life which are explained by history may be mentioned the following:

1. Transition from an agrarian to an industrial society.
2. Growth of urban population.
3. Mobility of the population.
4. Merging of different peoples and cultures.
5. Increasing interdependence among persons and nations.
6. Changing or weakening of ethical standards.
7. Decrease in the functions of the family; its lessening economic and social importance.
8. Enlargement of the community.

9 Ibid.
11. Decline of empires and the rise of democracy.
12. Struggle of different ideologies for supremacy.
13. Popularizing of knowledge and growth of education.  

Among the important educational functions of history in the curriculum of the secondary school are the following, in the opinion of Keohane:

1. Inspirational—pupils learn the great principles upon which the nation was founded, and they become acquainted with the personalities who have played significant roles in the story of the nation.
2. "Making history live"—giving it warmth, color, and the flavor of the times.
3. Expanding and reinforcing knowledge about important persons, events, laws, institutions, and problems.
4. Gaining first-hand knowledge about significant documents which have figured in the story of the nation: the Mayflower Compact, the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, the Emancipation Proclamation, Lincoln's Gettysburg Address, and many others.
5. Developing habits of critical reading and thinking.

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10 Wesley, Teaching Social Studies in High Schools, p. 45.
6. Developing familiarity with some creative ideas in the United States through an analysis of some classic statements of American social, political, and economic thought.\(^\text{11}\)

In the two decades between 1900 and 1920, at least three new values of history as a subject of study in the schools came to be recognized. They were new in the sense that little or no emphasis had been placed on them before that time. These new values were:

1. The social value. Pupils were to be inspired to become socially intelligent, socially sympathetic, and socially active.

2. The explaining-the-present value. History for the first time was thought of as a valuable means of understanding and appreciating the present in terms of events and trends.

3. The historical-mindedness value. This included inquisitiveness, open-mindedness, and eagerness to know the truth—all of which were to be fostered through the study of history.\(^\text{12}\)

Since 1920, still other values have been ascribed to history, among them being the following concepts concerning the function and

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\(^{12}\)Rolla M. Tryon, The Social Sciences as School Subjects, pp. 86-88, 91.
importance of this subject in the curriculums of the schools of the United States:

1. History is a valuable means for emphasizing the futility of war and the blessings of peace.

2. History develops the spirit of altruism and understanding as a way of combatting narrow provincialism and of bringing about co-operativeness among the peoples of the nation and of the world.

3. History is a valuable tool for advancing the cause of world peace by cultivating the good will of pupils toward all peoples by means of a sympathetic and unbiased study of their history, customs, and traditions.

4. History is a powerful instrument for cultivating an international-mindedness among citizens.

5. The supreme value of history lies in its potentialities for making the existing state of things, nationally and internationally, intelligible to the citizens.  

In terms of specific-habit psychology, the values of history have been stated as follows:

1. History helps to develop in pupils the habits of weighing evidence and of considering all angles of a question.

\[^{13}\text{ibid.}, \text{pp. 92-93.}\]
2. History aids pupils in establishing the habits of correct thinking and of sound methods of study as well as the habit of acting as worthy and useful members of various groups and as intelligent citizens.

This idea that history would help in the development of specific habits led to the belief that history would prove valuable in the formation of certain skills and abilities, such as how to read and take notes, to make an outline, to organize and retain information, to use reference books, to compile bibliographies, to collect and weigh evidence, to read books and periodicals understandingly, to interpret maps and graphs, and to organize one's thoughts in a logical manner either for writing or for presenting a discussion of a topic convincingly to a group. Certainly, all of these skills and appreciations may be expected to result from a careful and conscientious study of history.

One of the greatest services which history can render to the younger generation is to present the truth about persons and events. National heroes have a habit of becoming surrounded by legend and folklore, until it becomes difficult to determine which is truth and which is fiction; and pivotal events in a nation's history often become embroidered with imaginary details and with dramatic fabrications that obscure the real truth, discoloring fact with fiction. It is the

\[14\] Ibid., pp. 96-97.
function of history to tell the truth, though it may be less impressive than the mass of legend and folklore that often surround personages and events.

... if the lessons of history are to be fully appreciated, both sides of every question should be understood; the foibles and follies as well as the heroism or righteousness must be understood, and there is no room for that commodity nowadays known as "bunk." Undoubtedly, a better understanding among nations and improved prospects for international peace would result if this ideal could be attained. Doubtless, a better judgment of men and events in our own country can be had if the full truth is told, even though it involves a certain amount of debunking of national gods. 15

 Especially since the World War of 1914-1918, there has been a growing demand for functional training in the social studies. It has been the general belief that a thorough study of the social studies would acquaint the pupils with the causes of war and supply them with a basis on which to work for peace, so that there would never be a recurrence of world conflict. Although this theory has not proved to be valid, there is no question that a thorough training in the various fields of the social studies will give young people valuable preparation for living in the present-day complex world, for helping to solve its problems, and for understanding how those problems came into existence in the first place. Young people should be trained to participate effectively and co-operatively in a modern world rather than to

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master a few unassociated, disconnected, and well-nigh useless historical facts about the Egyptians, the Babylonians, or the nomadic tribes of other lands. "Live, dynamic, functional social training is what is needed, and not cold-storage historical facts."\textsuperscript{16}

In keeping with this objective, it can be said that the principal goals of the social studies—and of history, specifically—are to help each pupil to

1. Become a democratic person, guided by democratic values in human relationships and appreciative of the sacrifices made by people for democracy in its evolution here and throughout the world.
2. Develop social attitudes consistent with democratic values, such as co-operation, open-mindedness, social concern, self-respect, creativeness.
3. Develop democratic group-action skills and social competency in intergroup situations.
4. Acquire functional information, concepts, and basic understandings of how man interacts with his physical and social environment in the satisfaction of human needs.
5. Gain insight into spiritual, economic, and political values as forces in human behavior and human relationships.
6. Understand basic social functions and social processes as they operate at home and in cultures throughout the world.
7. Gain skill in critical thinking and problem-solving as these skills function in human relationships.
8. Develop skills and techniques in the use of materials of instruction in the social studies.
9. Gain appreciation and understanding of the contributions of cultures, groups, and individuals to the advancement of civilization.

\textsuperscript{16}Tryon, op. cit., pp. 210-211.
10. Develop an enduring interest in human problems, coupled with a sense of responsibility to act courageously and with integrity in ways conducive to social progress. 17

Whether or not these outcomes result from the study of history and of the other social studies depends to a considerable degree upon the efficiency and purposes of the teacher. If he has the proper attitudes, and if he possesses a true understanding of the functions of the social studies, the teacher will impart some of these worth-while outcomes to his pupils. If the teacher is lacking in these values and in these worth-while concepts and purposes, one can hardly expect his pupils to develop them to any appreciable degree. In order to achieve worth-while goals in history and in the other social studies, the teacher of these subjects must enter into the following activities and recognize the following purposes in his work:

1. Examining the present content of social-studies courses and eliminating material which may lead to prejudice, intolerance, and antagonism toward other peoples.
2. Introducing content and experiences throughout the social-studies program which will contribute to the development of an understanding and appreciation of the peoples of other nations.
3. Emphasizing world unity, world heroes, the victories of peace, and the welfare of mankind in historical study.
4. Introducing more content from anthropology to show the extent to which human behavior is culturally determined.
5. Utilizing content from geography and economics to develop an understanding of the distribution of world

17 Michaelis, op. cit., p. 12.
population in relation to natural resources, the extent of specialization and interdependence in the production of goods, the rapidly shrinking size of the world due to advances in transportation and communication, and the relationship of standards of living to world cooperation.

6. Using content from social psychology and elsewhere to develop an understanding of the formation of public opinion and its effects upon human action.

7. Studying other cultures and world history extensively and using material from and experiences in art, literature, music, and the dance as well as factual information in such study. The study of world cultures and world history should be required of high-school students.

8. Utilizing motion pictures, the radio, newspapers, museums, pageants, model assemblies, international correspondence, student exchanges, and other materials and techniques more extensively.

9. Using symbols of world unity in documents, people, flags, music, and the like as they exist in the various nations, and are developed therein.

10. Using problem-solving and pupil-teacher planning techniques more extensively so that the ability to think reflectively and act democratically in the solution of world problems will be increased.  

Within the past two decades a great quantity of the professional literature in education has been centered around discussions of the social studies and the desirability of giving them an important if not a pre-eminent place in the public-school curriculum. This trend toward a greater stress on the social studies has been directly influenced by the nature and ideals of the particular culture or society characteristic of the United States. Social and economic realities

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and problems have determined the direction which social-studies pro-
grams have taken. Some of the more outstanding trends influencing
these programs have been summarized as follows in the Fourteenth
Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educa-
tion Association:

1. Present-day society is dynamic, constantly changing due to
   political and economic forces, and there are no fixed
   answers to social and economic problems.

2. Society is democratic in nature and in concept, although de-
   mocracy in its perfect state is yet unrealized. The objec-
   tives of the social studies in the American schools are
   different from those in a totalitarian nation, for courses
   in these areas must meet the needs of the people.

3. World communities are interdependent. Events of the past
   few years have brought about a change in the meaning of
   the term "boundaries." There is increasing recognition
   of the fact that the world is composed of communities, re-
   sulting in a "one world" concept.

4. The status of family life is constantly changing. The role
   of the woman in the home has been changed to enable her
   to be mother, factory worker, and housekeeper all at the
   same time. Many woman have also entered the profes-
   sional fields, and still have attained success as homemakers.
5. There is increasing awareness of the need for conservation of natural and human resources. This need is felt keenly in everyday life: shortages of steel and lumber have resulted in housing shortages; the need for soil and water conservation is felt during the annual floods, droughts, and dust storms; and the need for conservation of human resources has been shown by the high percentages of rejection of men by the military forces because of physical defects. \(^\text{19}\)

The Fourteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association offers the following definition of the social studies, which will shed some light upon the function and importance of history:

Since today's education is aimed at social efficiency, all subjects should and do contribute to this end, but the subjects which relate directly to the organization and development of human society and to man as a member of the group are thought of as social studies. They may be listed as geography, history, civics, economics, political science, and sociology. \(^\text{20}\)

Further elaboration upon the meaning and implications of this field of study is presented in the following excerpt:

The social sciences, broadly interpreted, include any body of organized knowledge relating to the behavior


\(^\text{20}\)Ibid.
of human beings living together. They include history, civics, political science, economics, geography, anthropology, sociology, and psychology. If these subjects are treated primarily from the point of view of the specialist interested in facts as facts, that is, in gathering, analyzing and organizing data and formulating theories and principles, they are called social sciences. But if they are treated primarily from the point of view of understanding the world, training pupils to become good citizens, inculcating ideals, attitudes and habits consistent with democratic living, they are called social studies. The dividing line is indistinct if it exists at all. 21

Wesley broadens the above definitions by eliminating any mention of subject matter. He states that the social studies deal with human relationships and that "the field of the social studies deals . . . primarily with groups, institutions, societies, and states." 13 Individuals are dealt with only incidentally and then for the purpose of securing additional light on social institutions. The field deals with physical environment only incidentally, and then for the purpose of understanding social relationships more clearly. These relationships, Wesley makes it clear, constitute the content of the social-studies program, the curriculum in the various phases of "social living."

Alexander and Saylor see the social studies as "problems of living." 22 Rugg defines them as the means of becoming acquainted

22 Wesley, Teaching Social Studies in High Schools, p. 29.
with "the problems of American life." Adams, writing in a publication of the National Council for the Social Studies, defines the social studies as "growth in social adjustment" with their main theme the improvement of human relations. She states:

Recent years have witnessed a growing public concern for the improvement of human relations. The tensions that are current throughout the world and in every community highlight the necessity for establishing understandings among people as well as among nations. All those who have faith in democracy realize the urgency of this need for satisfactory personal and social adjustment if the values of the American way of life are to be insured and increased. These differences in opinion, when synthesized, yield the conclusion that the social studies are not any specific subject area but deal with human relationships in all their phases, as well as with the environment in which these relationships occur. All that has been said up to now, and that will be said hereafter, concerning the social studies as a field is true also of history as one subject-matter area in the social-studies field. For the most part, the definition, purposes, functions, and objectives of history are so similar to those pertaining to the social-studies field that they are almost identical.

The Fourteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association lists the following definite


purposes and objectives in the teaching and learning of the social studies:

1. It is the purpose of the social studies to give to pupils the truest and most realistic knowledge that is possible of the community, state, nation, and the world—the social and physical setting—in which they live, are to live, and make their way.

2. A second purpose of instruction in the social studies grows out of the first, namely, preparation of pupils for promoting a wiser and more effective co-operation among regions, areas, groups, communities, states, and nations—a co-operation, inter-racial, inter-religious, and inter-economic.

3. A third purpose of instruction in the social studies is to develop character; to give the pupils a love of truth, an appreciation of the beautiful, a bent toward the good, and a desire and will to use knowledge for beneficent social ends.

4. A fourth purpose of the social studies, although it may come under the head of method, is both a purpose and a prerequisite to the attainment of other purposes; it is training in the intellectual processes indispensable to the functioning society. 26

Wesley implies that the objectives of the social studies may be stated in terms of social competence and changed behavior as a result of instruction in this field. 27 In another place Wesley has listed eight significant functions of the social studies, all of which are aimed at the development of well-rounded, efficient, and happy adjustment to the social groups with which one comes into contact, and all of which are readily adaptable to the teaching and learning of history:

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26 Department of Superintendence, op. cit., p. 157.

27 Wesley, Teaching Social Studies in High Schools, p. 110.
1. The first function of the social studies is to furnish experience in human relationships.

2. The second function of the social studies is to supply information concerning human relationships.

3. The third function of the social studies is to supply and vitalize social concepts.

4. The fourth function of the social studies is to teach certain skills and furnish opportunity for their exercise.

5. The fifth function of the social studies is to supply materials and activities for building character.

6. The sixth function of the social studies is to supply the materials and activities for the formation of social attitudes.

7. The seventh function of the social studies is to afford opportunities for social interaction.

8. The eighth function of the social studies is to furnish exercise in problem solving.

Along similar lines, Beard has set up the following objectives or functions of the social studies: (1) to develop ethical responsibilities; (2) to foster the social virtues by pointing out wholesome examples; (3) to provide for the maintenance and improvement of American society; (4) to nourish the free spirit of science; and (5) to prepare youth for associational life and activities.

A course of study for the public schools of Texas sets up the following specific objectives for the social studies in the schools:

1. To develop an understanding of the importance of environment to man's way of life.

2. To develop an interest in the lives of people outside their own group.

3. To develop tolerance for people who are different.

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29 Charles A. Beard, A Charter for the Social Sciences, p. 56.
4. To increase skill in the use of books and materials.
5. To give practice in increased ability to express ideas in speech and unity.
6. To give experience in the development of poise, social graces and ease in social situations.
7. To develop the ability to be alone and like it.

Thus it is seen that all of these lists of objectives for the social studies recognize that the primary aim of this field of instruction should be the development of proficiency in social living. Harmonious human relationships must be fostered, intergroup adjustments should be realized, intercultural understandings should result, and children, above all, should realize that all people and all groups have significant contributions to make to the general welfare of all.

A report of the Committee on the Function of Social Studies in General Education set up four distinct areas as contents of the social-studies curriculum: (1) immediate personal-social relationships, (2) social-civic relationships, (3) economic relationships, and (4) personal living. It is not difficult to determine the many ways in which a study of history can contribute to each of these specific areas, in bringing about broader understandings, in developing appreciations of human welfare in social, political, and economic relationships and groups, and in providing background knowledge for understanding the various conditions in which men live and work.

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In the social studies the underlying purpose is to develop within the pupils an understanding of how men and women live and behave in group relations, and a knowledge of the various factors that determine such behavior. From this point of view and in keeping with this idea, an effort should be made to construct all courses and curricula to conform throughout to this major objective of effective social living. One author has written:

... I assume that man's social life, social in the broad sense of the term, is a highly organized existence, that men live in interdependent relations with each other, that these relations are so arranged that they fit like the parts of a jig-saw puzzle, that these relations are multiform, and that, in reality, they are not separable in the sense in which we separate them for study in our various academic disciplines—that is, as has been said, "Life is a unity."32

If this be true—and it is the assertion of modern educational thought—then the task of the social studies is to demonstrate the unity of human living. They should incorporate all the phases of experience which enter into the everyday lives of people in modern society, and these phases of experience should be so interrelated that each makes up an essential part of meaningful life activities. In accordance with this concept, the task is to organize courses and subject matter in such a way as to contribute to the realization of this purpose. Naturally, courses and curricula will vary according to

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local circumstances and according to the needs and interests of youth in the environment in which they find themselves. But everywhere the fundamental principles should be the same: to make education realistic, practical, and functional in everyday life—to promote effective social living.

Therefore, it becomes necessary to establish aims and objectives for the social studies in order to assure that they will fulfill their primary mission of interpreting the techniques and interrelationships of group life to the young. Wesley has listed sixteen such objectives for the social studies in general and has indicated that the pupil should develop these traits to the limit of his ability, in both elementary and secondary schools:

1. To acquire and understand social concepts.
2. To develop study and reading skills.
3. To develop a wholesome personality.
4. To develop desirable traits.
5. To learn the techniques of co-operation.
6. To understand the interdependence of people and nations.
7. To assume responsibility.
8. To prepare for useful work.
9. To become a prudent consumer.
10. To become a participating citizen.
11. To develop critical thinking.
12. To respect all races and groups.
13. To uphold democracy.
14. To cultivate esthetic and intellectual interests.
15. To understand social institutions.
16. To promote world peace. 33

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33 Wesley, Teaching Social Studies in High Schools, p. 125.
Whereas Wesley maintains that the above objectives are typical of many that might be listed for the social studies in general, he, at the same time, lists specific objectives for the various subject-matter fields that are usually considered within the area of the social studies. Although his objectives are listed by subjects, it is to be understood that in the modern plan now in use in many schools whereby the social studies are taught more or less as an integrated field, the divisions between objectives as well as subject-matter areas will tend to disappear as the pupils deal with such materials as meet their current needs, solve their present problems, enable them to understand man's relationships with men, and help them to develop sound concepts of social living. Wesley's specific objectives for history serve to emphasize the significant function which that subject performs in the curriculum of the school. His objectives for history are as follows:

1. To develop an appreciation of our social heritage.
2. To learn the techniques of finding materials.
3. To learn the historical method.
4. To develop a love of historical reading.
5. To develop a scientific attitude.
6. To develop the capacity of suspended judgment.
7. To acquire a perspective for understanding contemporary issues.
8. To learn the facts necessary for an understanding of current writings and discussions.
9. To acquire a sense of time.
10. To understand relationships.
11. To understand generalizations.
12. To develop a reasoned basis for patriotism.
13. To broaden and extend interests and sympathies.
14. To facilitate the process of synthesizing.
15. To learn and understand instances of social, economic, and political processes.
16. To develop intelligent citizenship.
17. To promote international understanding.

Along similar lines, Johnson has listed seven objectives for the study of history in high schools. Her objectives, which are condensed and paraphrased below, include or imply most of those quoted from Wesley, above:

1. To teach historic facts.

2. To train for wise, practical, and effective citizenship.

3. To inspire loyalty and patriotism.

4. To develop tolerance toward the opinions of others, and charity in dealing with the mistakes of men, whether within one's own nation or in international affairs.

5. To develop the ability and to create the desire in youth to read worth-while literature in books, magazines, and newspapers.

6. To develop the power of creative imagination to enable one to visualize events of the present and of the past and thus make them realistic and meaningful.

7. To prepare the pupil for solving the social, economic, and political problems which, as a citizen of a democracy,

34Ibid., p. 126.
the mist face, along with other citizens, as he determines what is right and what is wrong in connection with current issues.

Thus it becomes obvious that the objectives and functions of history and those of the other social studies are so closely related and so similar that they are almost identical in their meanings and implications.

Moffatt has written that

The purposes of the social studies program . . . are to offer the pupils an objective account of affairs and situations as they are found at present in all quarters of the world, without reference to prejudices and preconceptions. Truth and facts are placed first. The second objective is better preparation for acting with co-operation and mutual consent in a more peaceful, prospering world. Character, indeed, is the result of a love of truth, for the pupils come to know what is proper and right and they wish to use that knowledge. The pupil must exercise his reasoning power, for if there is a given desirable social end to be attained, there must be some means of approaching the goal, and to find the means requires reasoning and reflection upon the array of facts learned.

Levi has summed up all of the aims and objectives of instruction in the social studies in his statement of what he calls the five over-all aims of this field, as follows:

1. To provide a genuine understanding of the society within whose frame we live.
2. To exhibit those conflicts of value which underlie all political and economic decisions.

35Amanda Johnson, op. cit., pp. 6-8.
36Maurice P. Moffatt, Social Studies Instruction, pp. 28-29.
3. To provide the social knowledge which is a prerequisite to wise decisions of social policy.
4. To enlarge social sensitivity in those areas in which institutional change is desirable.
5. To prepare and encourage the individual toward intelligent social action. 37

Swindler, on the other hand, has formulated ten general aims for the teaching of the social studies, all of which he contends are essential to an effective program. These objectives, which also are readily applicable to the teaching and learning of history, may be paraphrased as follows:

1. Promotion of socio-civic efficiency.
2. Developing efficiency in the use of information as the basis for forming judgments and as an end within itself.
3. Making the present world intelligible.
4. Creating a desire for intelligent, willing participation in civic and social activities.
5. Developing knowledge and appreciation of civic duties, rights, and responsibilities.
6. Developing the power to evaluate facts, and fostering clear, independent thinking and judgment.
7. Developing knowledge and appreciation of principles underlying sound and enduring government and society.

37 Albert William Levi, General Education in the Social Studies, p. 3.
8. Promoting broad interests, tolerance, sympathy, etc.

9. Increasing knowledge and appreciation of the past as a background for the present.

10. Furthering love of country and intelligent patriotism. 38

In the presentation of goals or objectives for the social studies, Levi has formulated what he calls "principles of education for citizenship." These principles are, in reality, aims to be sought in the teaching and learning of history and of the other social studies, in the development of efficiency in social living, in the promotion of understanding and mutual effort on the part of all members of society for the general welfare. Levi states them as follows:

1. The student should understand that the conflicts of modern society, among which World War II has loomed large, have arisen not only as a basic conflict of values, but also because there are deep-seated maladjustments in our modern society.

2. The student should be brought to a realization that in order for the democratic ideal to succeed, we must have in our society greater security, a more equitable distribution of economic opportunities, more attention to the welfare of society as a whole, and much more popular agreement upon the basic values, principles, and activities which are a part of the democratic way of life.

3. The student should be brought up to see that democracy is not only a matter of forms of procedure and political institutions, but also is primarily a great social faith which is grounded in a moral attitude and a philosophy of life.

4. The student should be made sensitive to the fact that many persons have only a superficial, partial, or

actually false idea of what democracy means and that the advantages of acquiring property with ease or of rising in the social world, or of becoming a member of the elite, or of being without civic obligations and able to do as one pleases are dangerous parodies of the true democratic theme.

5. The student should be familiarized with some of the real components of the democratic philosophy of life, among which the following would loom large:

A) The belief that political power should be vested in those whose interest is affected by its exercise.
B) A belief in the basic dignity, worth, and importance of the human person.
C) A belief in the supremacy of the common good.
D) A belief in the essential equality of persons of all races, religions, and nationalities.
E) A belief in the method of compromise through intelligence rather than the appeal to force in the solution of political and social issues.
F) A belief in the basic importance of preservation of civil liberties, including those of speech, religion, the press, and of assembly.
G) A belief that all individuals in society have both the right and obligation to work.
H) A belief that the stratification of American society into rigid social classes is undesirable.

6. Students should be brought to see that the general principles of democracy have relevance in different fields and the way in which these general principles are applicable to economic institutions, political institutions, and social relationships.

7. The student should be brought to face frankly the weaknesses and failures of our democracy in the past and to analyze the causes and sources of these weaknesses and failures.

8. The student should also be acquainted with the successes and advantages of democracy, the achievements which it has made, the resources which it has, and the promise which it offers for the future.

The real problem of the social studies in general education is to give individuals a working knowledge of the social life of which they are a part and to make them sensitive
to those social values which must be perpetuated. Their purpose is, therefore, to provide knowledge of fact and value to the end of intelligent action.\(^{39}\)

If one makes a careful, thoughtful study of the various lists of aims and objectives for the social studies and for history presented above, together with many other such lists which might have been included, he cannot but be surprised by the high degree of similarity existing among all of the statements of objectives. True, some lists are short while others are long, but the brief ones are more general in nature and are of such a nature as to include most of the implications mentioned by the more comprehensive lists.

If these objectives are accepted as legitimate ones—as valid pictures of the purpose and function of the social studies and of history in the curriculum—the pronounced similarity in many of the objectives for the various social-studies fields must be accepted, also. It follows, then, that there must be a close relationship among the social studies, since they have objectives which are so nearly identical and which certainly have for their purpose the development of individuals capable of living competently within the social, political, and economic groups which surround them.

The preceding pages of this chapter have indicated the place and function of history and of the social studies in the curriculum of the

secondary school, as interpreted by historians and educators. Objectives, aims, and purposes of this general field and of history, specifically, have been presented as a means of indicating the role which history and its companion subjects occupy in the modern school as a means of training young people for effective citizenship. Before they can live efficiently and understandingly in the present-day world, they must know something of the study of mankind in the past and must have a knowledge and an appreciation of the development of the various institutions in which men live and work and of the problems which have arisen as a result of institutional life and of recurring changes in the social, economic, and political orders. All of this, history and the other social studies offer to the student. Therefore, the place and function of history in the curriculum of the secondary school is one of prime importance.

It is recognized, of course, that the objectives and purposes of history as outlined in this chapter represent statements of the ideal situation, and are not to be taken as indications of what actually is the case in regard to the role of history in the curriculum of the secondary school. For instance, although one of the primary objectives in the study of history is to inspire loyalty and patriotism, there is no assurance that history will, even if studied diligently and conscientiously, produce patriots. To train for wise, practical, and effective citizenship is another of the principal purposes advocated for the study of
history in high schools; but it stands to reason that history will not, of itself, produce competent citizens, endowed with the high ideals and purposes for society which citizenship in a democracy implies. Also, whether or not history develops an attitude of tolerance toward the opinions and peculiarities of others is certainly open to question, although it is reasonable to believe that, through an understanding of other people such as history affords, attitudes of tolerance may develop. A study of history may or may not inspire feelings of charity in dealing with the mistakes of men, whether within one's own nation or in international affairs. At the same time, though, history will throw some light on why these mistakes are made, and perhaps this understanding will tend to soften public attitudes toward the instigators of the mistakes.

The study of history may or may not prepare the pupil for solving the social, economic, and political problems which, as a citizen of a democracy, he must face, along with other citizens, as he determines what is right and what is wrong in connection with current issues. But a knowledge of history will give him a better understanding of why these problems arise and why they must be tackled in the interest of promoting general human welfare.

These comments are not intended to disparage or to minimize the importance of history as a subject of study in the schools. But it
must be recognized that values may be ascribed to history which history, within itself, is incapable of fulfilling. When all is said and done, the most that can be said for history is that it serves as a means for acquainting pupils with the past and for making the present more intelligible to them. What they do with this knowledge is a personal and individual affair and is not within the power of history itself to determine. The knowledge and appreciations which history affords will inspire many pupils to become better citizens, to develop patriotic sentiments, and to live according to attitudes of tolerance and charity toward others. Using the knowledge and understanding that come from a study of history, some pupils may be equipped to contribute to the solution of the social, economic, and political problems that confront mankind at the present time.

But history, within itself, cannot accomplish these things. What it can do itself is to afford knowledge and understanding of the great saga of man's progress in order that pupils may know what has happened in the past and thereby be better able to understand what is transpiring in the present. But the abstract values claimed for a study of history, such as patriotism, good citizenship, tolerance, charity, and the ability to solve the problems of society, are not to be accepted as the invariable and inevitable benefits which always result when history is studied. Although a knowledge of history may afford
individuals the means for attaining these abstract values, it does not guarantee that they shall be attained. Certainly, historical knowledge and understanding are never a hindrance to the development of these desirable traits; but whether such knowledge and understanding make any significant contribution toward their development depends upon the individual and upon what he does with what he has learned in his study of history.
CHAPTER V

METHODS OF USING HISTORY TO ENABLE IT TO FULFILL ITS PROPER FUNCTION IN THE CURRICULUM

Not until comparatively recent years have educators recognized the fact that history taught and learned purely from the textbook fell far short of any possibility of fulfilling the significant objectives which have long been held up as goals and ideals in this field of learning. It is questionable, for instance, how much inspiration toward good citizenship and patriotism can be engendered in a traditional history class, in which the textbook is the sole or almost the only means of attaining knowledge and experience. Modern educators realize that history, dealing as it does so much with the past, must somehow be made "living" and vital for the present day if it is to have much significance for students. It must be made a tool for understanding the past and for interpreting and appreciating the present. To this end, new and modern methods in the teaching and learning of history have been perfected.

Perhaps the only generalization in regard to method that teachers of history could agree upon is that there is no one "best" method in
presenting history to pupils. All of the methods have their values and purposes, and the best method is one that integrates all of the methods into one meaningful and worth-while procedure. Although there is no "best" method for teaching history, it is not to be supposed that all of the new and intensive efforts in recent years on behalf of developing better methods have been wasted and meaningless. They have contributed richly to the total knowledge of the best techniques to be employed, and they have helped to make history more interesting and vital to the learners. In recent years,

... We have made progress in improving reading materials and in teaching pupils to use them. We know a great deal more about the use of visual and auditory aids, and we are returning to the use of basic historical sources in order to make the past live in the lives of students. Richer and more interesting programs of learning have been built by adding local, state, and regional materials to courses. Without losing ourselves in a meaningless minuteness, we can make teaching more interesting and more vital. Procedures should vary because there is nothing more deadly than lifeless, pedantic, lock-step method. A teacher is obligated, if he is to do a skillful and masterful job, to use those methods that he can administer most skillfully and that a particular group responds to most enthusiastically. 1

It is now recognized that the fundamental condition of making history effective in the classroom is to invest the past with an air of reality. 2 If that is not done, history has little meaning because of


its remoteness from the lives, interests, and problems of the learners. Into this effort to make history realistic and meaningful must go a variety of methods and approaches. In connection with American history, for example, it must be remembered that America has had "a rich experience, and no single approach will do full justice to what we have achieved."\(^3\)

Wesley, reporting for the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges of the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, and the National Council for the Social Studies, wrote that the members of this committee were convinced that material in American history must be interesting, timely, and pertinent; and that students must have an understanding of geography, economics, sociology, government, and especially of world history if they are to approach an understanding of the history of their own nation.\(^4\)

A history lesson should be filled with interest and enthusiasm, and it would be if the teachers were so intimately at home in the field as to be able to guide their pupils to see man thinking, planning, acting, and shaping events through the centuries. Also, the teacher should be able to show the learner how age links with age, and how

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\(^4\)Ibid., p. 13.
important causal relationships have a bearing upon all human progress and institutional growth. 5

Johnson has said that often one of the weakest spots in history teaching is the history teacher, which, of course, implies weakness in method and procedure. Johnson continues by asserting that,

It is no small thing to become an efficient teacher. It requires more than knowledge and professional training. It requires power to interpret data of all kinds—power to weigh and sift evidence and draw inferences; it requires a sense of perspective and proportion to evaluate facts properly and to know what to eliminate and what to keep; it requires ability to make clear to others what they do not understand—to explain so clearly that a child can grasp what it is all about; it requires common sense, strength of character, vision, and above all, that human touch which inspires love and confidence. 6

Too long, the purely verbal method has dominated the teaching of history—the teacher asks questions and the pupil answers them on the basis of what he has read in the textbook. In any plan of teaching, of course, the verbal method fulfills an important function, but it is no longer recognized as of supreme significance. In order to eliminate excessive verbalism in the history class, the alternative is not to substitute some sort of picture-history. Instead, "The need is for a well-planned program of activities, varied to meet the needs of the


learners, and emphasizing the concrete in order that the abstract may have fuller meaning." 7

Wesley, in discussing method in that light as it relates to teaching of history, has formulated some general statements which he calls essential characteristics of good method:

A successful method, one which is calculated to achieve specified objectives, must possess certain characteristics. First of all, it should be accurate and sincere. It must rest upon a scrupulous regard for scientific accuracy. This involves honesty on the part of pupils, teachers, and authors. Moralizing inserts and propagandizing interpretations vitiate a method by arousing the distrust of students.

A good method must be artistic. The teacher should have a sure sense of the relevant and the irrelevant. As artist, the teacher must be aware of proportion and perspective. Bald facts are not synonymous with truth. The teacher, through his method, must seek to interpret and synthesize.

A good method must be personal. It must be one which the teacher has evolved, and not the empty formalism of an imported routine. It must be personal for both the teacher and the pupils. The teacher's contributions should rest upon that actuality which is possible only through experience. The good method must also relate itself to the experience of the pupils. The successful method is not apparent; it is not easily described; it envelops teacher and pupils. It is a process and not an act. 8

Modern educators now realize that, in the past, too much emphasis was laid in history and in the other social studies upon the mere teaching and learning of facts, although this meant that little or


no consideration was given to improvement in reasoning and to the development of skills, judgment, and habits, as well as to the fostering of wholesome attitudes and ideals. In order to accomplish the present aims of the social studies—and, indeed, of education itself—all training must be directed toward the development of worthy citizens. 9 In fact, one of the seven "cardinal principles" of education formulated by the National Education Association and widely accepted is "Education for good citizenship." 10

The activities of the school and of the classroom must be socialized in order that they may reproduce real-life situations, or approximate them as closely as possible. The individual and collective interests of the pupils must also be taken into consideration. The current educational philosophy with respect to an expanded curriculum and activity instead of passivity on the part of pupils has produced revolutionary effects upon instructional methods. In recent years the central place in the school, at least in theory, has been given to the pupil. It is believed that in the learning process the activity of the teacher cannot be substituted for that of the pupil, and for this reason any method of instruction which is not based upon the pupil-activity concept is out of line with modern educational theories. 11

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10 Ibid., p. 34.

11 Ibid., pp. 68, 71.
The trend in method is . . . away from rigid formalism in teaching procedures. Education should be natural and informal. In the social studies, even more than in any other subject in the secondary school, socialization is necessary. Through his own activities intermingled with the activities of the group, the pupil can learn and develop. Education must begin with the child and must be adapted to the needs and requirements of the child as he grows. Only in this manner, according to the new philosophy, can the individual be made socially efficient.

The new philosophy . . . is based upon a new psychology and upon modern scientific procedure. It emphasizes the pupil, at least in theory; it regards learning as an active process; it considers the interests of the pupils individually and collectively; and it lays stress on education as being a constant process of reorganizing and reconstructing experience.\(^{12}\)

If the teaching procedures fail to recognize individual differences among the pupils, that is, if all pupils are taught as though they were all alike, many will find social and historical problems to be dry, lifeless, and unreal. This will be true even of those problems which most directly affect the pupils' immediate lives. No one would assert that adults are all alike in their vocational preferences and pursuits; but the educational plan often attempts to treat all children as if they were identical in preparing them to assume their places in society, without recognizing that children in school are as different in their needs and interests as are adults in the working world. Each pupil must be recognized as an individual who learns what he experiences.

\(^{12}\)Ibid., pp. 71, 73.
or what has real meaning to him. It is essential to stress individual differences and to realize that each pupil has his own concerns and problems.

The National Council for the Social Studies has recommended the following as suggestive procedures for making the social studies—including history—realistic and vital and for recognizing individual differences among members of the group of learners:

1. Provide for community participation through surveys, community services of various types, interviews, field trips, and observations.

2. Use visual aids and audio-visual aids, including recordings, radio, films, television, exhibits, maps, and charts.

3. Employ varied reading materials, including pamphlets, magazines, fiction, and supplementary books appropriate to the various levels of maturity.

4. Provide for dramatizations, including documentary plays, pageants, and informal skits or pantomimes.

5. Share ideas and materials through panel discussions, symposiums, forums, town meetings, group planning, and informal discussions.
6. Provide for laboratory work, such as making maps, charts, and models.  

Although history was the first of the social-studies subjects to be included in the educational curriculum, it has retained pre-eminence to the present day and is still the most prominent subject in the social-studies field. The first method of teaching history was to have the pupil memorize the textbook word for word, or nearly so. This meant that the so-called superior pupil would be able to repeat the exact words of the textbook when called upon to do so. The teacher's duty under this system was to correct the pupils' variations from the phraseology of the textbook. Now long out of use, this method of strict textbook memorization was succeeded by a method which permitted the pupil to relate in his own words the facts and conclusions of the textbook. This method is still too much in evidence in the schools of today, in other subjects as well as in history.

In history, as in other subjects, a knowledge of facts is necessary in order to see relationships and to reason intelligently; but facts are not ends in themselves. Therefore, any profitable and worthwhile use of the textbook requires that facts be dealt with in their correct relationships instead of in isolation. Since the textbook is the

13 National Council for the Social Studies, The Social Studies Look Beyond the War, p. 32.
principal source of historical facts for pupils in the secondary school, it is obvious that the textbook cannot be discarded, nor should it be. The difficulty is that too often the textbook is relied upon to such an extent that other valuable methods and approaches to history are crowded out of the classroom.

One plan for the use of the textbook is to provide an opportunity for the pupils and the teacher to study the text together in class. With all books open, the teacher explains the main topics, the relationships among sub-topics, and the meaning of facts. Provision is made for supplementing the textbook material by other reading as well as by the comments of the teacher. From time to time, the pupils read silently from the text, either the entire scope of a broad subject or special sections of the material; then the teacher asks a few practical, pertinent questions to judge how well the pupils are comprehending the significant portions of the material. Pupils are encouraged to discuss the subject matter freely and to ask questions. One serious objection to this procedure is that it does not encourage independent study on the part of the pupil outside of the classroom, except in cases of special research projects that may, from time to time, be carried on. However, the skilled teacher can arouse interest in related topics or in acquiring more information than the class time allows, and this thirst for more knowledge can become the basis
and the motivation for outside reading and of various activities and projects.  

What Johnson wrote in 1932 is still true in many schools, although not so prevalent as formerly: "Too much dependence upon a textbook which is slavishly followed page by page, when it ought to serve as a mere guide pointing the way, is a glaring weakness of present-day history teaching." At the same time, though, no defense can be found today for the exclusive use of textbook teaching as such. Before the development of so many different teaching techniques and before so many aids to teaching and learning became available, the textbook was virtually the only source of knowledge and educational experience, but such is no longer true.

Although the placing of too much reliance upon the textbook is frowned upon, it cannot be discarded, nor should it be, for...

... The textbook in all the social sciences is still the most convenient and best-organized condensed summary of available fundamental information. It is still the one most useful book for giving an introductory survey for perspective on any topic or unit in history, geography, or civics. Textbooks may have the disadvantage of excessive detail, but, in general, they are still the best adaptations in vocabulary and style that we have for the immature.
In spite of all of its faults and weaknesses, the textbook method of instruction possesses certain advantages, which may be summarized as follows:

1. The textbook furnishes a reasonably accurate account of the subject, field, or areas under consideration.

2. It presents an organized synthesis of subject matter.

3. The textbook recognizes the limitations of the pupil and tries to meet his needs by various means, such as simplified diction, captioned sections, questions, references, projects, activities suggested for individual or group effort, summaries, and numerous charts, maps, and pictures.

4. The textbook provides a common basis upon which to master reading and the processes of analyzing, outlining, and summarizing.

5. It furnishes the class with a common minimum core of content.

6. The textbook furnishes a definite basis for specific assignments, research, drills, and projects. 17

But it is not fair to mention the advantages of the textbook method without naming also certain disadvantages, some of which have already been indicated indirectly:

17Wesley, Teaching Social Studies in High Schools, p. 489.
1. The textbook covers a wide scope of material in a limited space, thus decreasing the possibility of scholarly treatment and bringing about errors in detail, interpretation, and point of view.

2. It is possible for the textbook to present only the minimum essentials in summary form, omitting a wealth of colorful detail that would give life and interest to the account if it could be included.

3. There is always the serious danger that the textbook itself, and alone, will mark the limits of the content of the course. This weakness, more than any other, has evidently been responsible for the disrepute into which the textbook as a tool of learning has fallen; yet, the fault lies in the way in which the text is used and not in the text itself. Properly utilized, the textbook should be only one of several methods for teaching and learning the social studies in general, and history in particular.

4. There is also the danger of formalizing and routinizing class procedures because of the definite and convenient content of the textbook. It is easy to drift into the rut of "covering" so many pages each day, thus bringing about undesirable and deadening routine. 18

18 Ibid., p. 490.
Another traditional procedure in education which has received much criticism within recent years is the lecture. Although it is usually recognized now that even the formal lecture may be of real value at the college level, such a technique is certainly unsuitable for elementary and secondary schools. In its broader sense, however, the lecture can be thought of as anything the teacher "tells," and as such it is a valuable technique of instruction at all academic levels, although caution must be exercised not to overwork it or to make it the primary teaching procedure, especially at the intermediate and elementary levels.

Although the formal lecture emphasizes the pre-eminence of the teacher in the educational program, the present tendency in the United States is to have the teacher as far in the background as possible. However, there is still a place for the lecture, or "telling" method, when used with discretion. The lecture as a teaching and learning device is often carried to the extreme on the elementary and intermediate levels: the teacher, if he cannot think of anything else to do, if he lacks initiative, or if he is a rigid disciplinarian, lectures and requires the pupils to pay close attention to what he says.

Although the use of the lecture method varies with the different academic subjects, there appears to be more justification for its use in the social studies than in most other subjects. The very nature of
the subject matter in this field, the vast scope of content, and the complex interrelationships that should be understood make it easy for the pupil to become lost and confused in a maze of facts. In such situations the brief lecture can be used frequently to clarify, to point out relationships, and to suggest practical applications of the facts being learned.

The uses of the lecture have been summarized in the following manner:

1. To give overview of a large unit, large topic, or large division of the course.
2. To aid and supplement the pupils' reading.
3. To give a background of a topic so that the pupils might more intelligently undertake their work.
4. To save time for the pupil so that he will have a greater amount of time for more significant study.
5. To arouse interest in the pupil.
6. To give an intelligent assignment.
7. To make summaries. 19

It is interesting to note the similarity between the above list of uses of the lecture method and the list of "values" assigned to the lecture by the Texas State Department of Education, as follows:

1. To give an overview of the next lesson or of a longer period or unit to be taken up.
2. To give the class some practice in the art of taking notes.
3. To supply necessary information when the library is inadequate or when the subject is such that the teacher can best present it to the class.

19 Bining and Bining, op. cit., pp. 79-80.
4. To unfold and illustrate a point of view.
5. To evoke enthusiasm or whole-hearted sanction or condemnation.  

Wesley, an outstanding authority concerning the teaching of the social studies, sees several advantages in the wise use of the lecture. These may be briefly paraphrased as follows:

1. The spoken word is usually far more effective than the printed.
2. The lecture adapts itself to immediate repetition for emphasis and to modification for clarity.
3. It provides experience in listening and concentrating.
4. The lecture can save time in many classroom situations.
5. The lecture requires adequate preparation on the part of the teacher—an advantage which is readily transferred to the class.
6. The lecture serves as a stimulus to the more capable pupils to work out projects or to do original study or research.

In conjunction with Wesley's list of advantages for the lecture should be given also his analysis of disadvantages, as follows:

1. Extensive use of the lecture tends to substitute the teacher for the pupil in the learning situation.

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21 Wesley, Teaching Social Studies in High Schools, pp. 496-497.
2. Excessive use of the lecture tends to substitute the teacher for the textbook and for related reference materials.

3. The lecture places too great reliance upon vicarious learning.

4. The lecture lessens the pupils' opportunity to learn by doing and by their own study.

5. The lecture quickly develops into deadening monotony.²²

Closely related to the lecture method of teaching is the use of questions, which has always been recognized as an important phase of instructional procedure. Today, the use of questions is losing much of its traditional purpose of drawing out from the pupils what they had learned from the textbook. Now, questions are aimed primarily at guiding study and at challenging children to find out certain facts for themselves. In the traditional school, the teacher did all the questioning, but educators are now of the opinion that questions show interest on the part of the pupil and that they should flow freely in both directions—from the teacher to the pupil and from the pupil to the teacher. Authorities assert that the most effective questioning by the teacher occurs in the class in which the pupils are encouraged to ask questions of their own, and always feel free to do so. The fundamental condition which is necessary to induce pupils to ask questions

²²Ibid., pp. 497-498.
is their faith that the teacher can answer them or can help them to find the answers for themselves. Only in rare cases will pupils ask questions for the deliberate purpose of embarrassing their instructor. The question is a natural expression of the thinking mind, and is to be encouraged in all educational situations.

The most effective way to use questions is to give assistance to the pupils in discovering the answers for themselves. When pupils can be inspired to ask the teacher for help in finding the answer rather than to give the ready-made answer verbally, vital learning situations result. But even so, there will be many questions in a normal educational situation which the teacher will answer forthrightly. When the teacher, because of timidity, over-cautiousness, or ignorance, fails too frequently to answer questions, he will soon discover that he no longer has any to answer. At the same time the teacher who does not receive a number of unsolicited questions should seriously examine his instructional methods and his general attitude in the class. 23

Wesley has listed twelve functions of the question-and-answer method in teaching the social studies:

1. To test the pupil’s preparation of his lesson.
2. To discover errors and misunderstandings.
3. To provide review and drill.
4. To stimulate interest.

23 Ibid., pp. 465-466.
5. To supply incentives.
6. To emphasize important points.
7. To develop varied types of thinking.
8. To afford the pupil an opportunity to talk.
9. To establish relationships.
10. To develop an organization of content.
11. To insure proper interpretations.
12. To secure attention.

Another teaching technique often employed in the field of the social studies is that of the socialized recitation, which has become a popular procedure in recent years. In this situation the teacher functions as a guide, a director, and a co-operator, rather than as a taskmaster, a tester, and a disciplinarian. Careful planning on the part of the teacher and the making of suggestions calling for the cooperation and activity of the pupils are the most characteristic phases of class management in so far as the instructor is concerned. Social routine takes the place of teacher-dictated routine. Specific responsibilities for the pupils are arranged for largely by the pupils themselves, usually by means of committees to make over-all plans. By making frequent changes in the personnel of committee membership, all pupils are given the experience of group leadership, of social cooperation, and of observation and constructive criticism of individual efforts.

\[24\text{Ibid., p. 460.}\]

\[25\text{Stormzand and Lewis, } \text{op. cit., pp. 78-79.}\]
Important features of the socialized recitation have been summarized as follows:

1. Guidance of a discussion under the leadership of a student chairman.
2. Specific materials presented by a few leaders, usually as directed or planned by a student program committee.
3. A common background of information familiar to all members of the class.
4. Free, random, informal, but courteous discussion of ideas or questions presented by pupil program committee, discussion leaders, or chairman.
5. Occasional interruptions by the teacher to control and direct the pupil discussion. 26

In the broader sense, any class session which exhibits evidence of group consciousness and the feeling of individual responsibility toward the group is a socialized recitation. In this form of class procedure the period is not one in which the teacher monopolizes the floor, but one in which the feeling of co-operation among the group in accomplishing the work at hand is the dominant motive. Although the socialized recitation as it has existed in its more liberal forms in the educational plan has been criticized because it seems to be a step toward the elimination of the teacher from the classroom, such is not the case, for the pupils are always in need of guidance from an experienced leader. The teacher may become an exceedingly active member of the group, not dominating but tactfully guiding and

26 Ibid., pp. 89-90.
suggesting; and he may often serve advantageously as chairman during the class periods. 27

Since the prime objective of the social studies, as of education itself, is to produce competent citizens for the American democracy, it follows logically that pupils should be trained in developing an interest in and an understanding of events that are happening round about them in their local communities, in the nation, and in the world. As has already been indicated in this paper, one of the primary objectives of history is to interpret the present and to make it meaningful and real to the pupils, with all of its complex factors, its problems, and its challenges. In history and in the other social-studies subjects, considerable progress has been made in this direction in recent years by the use of so-called "current events," which consist either of analyzing clippings or articles from newspapers and magazines or of a systematic study of specially published newspapers available to the schools and carefully edited for the different grade levels. In the lower grades these prepared newspapers serve a vital purpose, since the pupils on these levels may not be able to read regular newspapers with any degree of proficiency. In the intermediate grades and especially on the secondary level, however the pupils usually prefer to select their reports from the daily press or to summarize

27 Bining and Bining, op. cit., pp. 150-151.
pertinent magazine articles. Thus, initiative is encouraged and origi-
nality fostered.

Current events began to find a place in the curriculum of the . . . school just prior to the outbreak of the World War, but it was that catastrophe which gave the impetus to the introduction of the subject into a large number of schools. . . . Americans began to realize their ignorance, not only of international events and happenings, but also of the national problems that were before their eyes.

In view of the ignorance about current issues, many regarded the school as failing in its task of teaching pupils to understand the complex world in which they lived. About the same time the demand was made that all courses of instruction in the schools should be practical and should prove this through their functional values. Many believed that the study of current happenings and problems would invariably aid pupils to understand their political, economic, and social environment and prepare them for useful living. In view of all this it was not hard for current events to find its way into the curriculum. The teaching of this subject has become contagious, so that today we find it endorsed by most educators, included in courses of study all over the country, and required by law in many states. 28

To make history vital, to enable the pupil to read newspapers intelligently, and to enable the pupil to realize and understand the major problems of the world in which he lives are perhaps the aims of major importance in the use of current events in the social studies. 29

If an event which occurs at the present time will help to develop an understanding of the past or point the way of action for the future, that event should be known and understood. More than this, it should

28 Ibid., pp. 261-262.
29 Ibid., p. 264.
be considered in its relationships to past, present, and future events. It is also essential that pupils be taught to read newspapers and magazines to assist them in understanding the problems of the present. Today more than ever before is there an acute need to understand the problems of life. Human environment and man's activities have become increasingly complex, and if democracy is to be successful, if the many problems are to be solved, it is necessary that Americans be familiar with what is happening in the world and with possible solutions for the many problems. The settlement of these questions requires critical thinking and unbiased judgment as well as a discriminating electorate and an educated public opinion. All of these considerations become vital phases of the use of current events in the history class.

One of the most revolutionary conceptions in modern education is the widespread use of various types of visual and audio-visual aids. Such aids are particularly valuable in the natural and in the social sciences, in which so many understandings and appreciations are essential and in which so many relationships should be comprehended accurately. "One look-see is worth a hundred tellings," according to an old Chinese proverb whose truth is being demonstrated daily in hundreds of classrooms throughout the nation.

30Ibid., p. 265.
Eight steps in the effective use of visual aids in the teaching
and learning of the social studies have been formulated by Wesley, as
follows:

1. Use visual aids as supplementary learning devices and not
   as substitutes for teaching.

2. Select the type of visual aid that promises to be most help-
   ful in the particular learning situation.

3. Plan the use of the aid in such a careful way as to have it
   appear at the most opportune stage of the learning process.

4. Prepare the class for the intelligent use of the visual aid
   by telling them what to look for.

5. Introduce the aid by reminding the children of the problem
   or situation which seemed to call for the use of the particu-
   lar aid now about to be experienced.

6. Discuss and explain the aid so as to assure its effective-
   ness.

7. Review the results of the demonstration.

8. Measure the results. 31

Visual aids properly used cannot justly be regarded
as supplementary learning; they are fundamental. They
furnish experience; they facilitate the association of object
and word; they save the pupil's time; they provide simple
and authentic information; they enrich and extend one's
appreciation; they furnish pleasant entertainment; they

31 Wesley, Teaching Social Studies in High Schools, p. 341.
provide a simplified view of complicated data; they stimulate the imagination; and they develop the pupil's power of observation. Visual aids may need explanations, but they do not need translators; they speak a universal language of form, color, position, and motion. They constitute one of the royal roads to learning. 32

Such visual devices as the stereopticon, glass slides, and filmstrips are especially advantageous in teaching the social studies. Since these aids adapt themselves to prolonged observation and can be carefully studied for lengthy periods of time if desired, they are particularly valuable for conveying concepts of details. They are excellent for presenting buildings, statues, ruins, paintings, roads, bridges, dress and costumes, weapons, and various types of scenes in which motion is not important. They are especially effective for showing phases and scenes of ancient and medieval history as well as of modern, and for emphasizing any concrete object, as well as maps, graphs, and charts. 33

Visual and auditory aids, such as maps, globes, charts, graphs, models, mounted pictures, specimens, slides, slide-films, sound silent motion pictures, filmstrips, radio and television programs, and recordings, have demonstrated their effectiveness both in and out of school as educational devices. Yet too few of these newer tools of learning have been readily available to teachers, and their use has

32 Ibid., pp. 340-341.

33 Bining and Bining, op. cit., p. 317.
been all too limited, although great strides have been made in recent years. Some of these aids, particularly motion pictures and other types of projections, involve considerable expense, but no teacher today has any excuse for not employing the more common and inexpensive visual aids such as may be found in every community and in every school library, no matter how limited.

Perhaps the motion picture is the visual aid that has received most emphasis in recent years. Whenever any highly successful educational device is perfected and becomes widely accepted, there is a tendency for some teachers to consider it as a panacea for the solution of all instructional problems and to use it to excess. To prevent this from happening in the case of the motion picture, which is both an auditory and a visual aid, it should be remembered that,

... The motion picture in any form cannot be more than a visual aid. But as an aid it has much value, for from it the pupil may receive an emotional and concrete basis for mental abstractions which is often more adequate than collateral reading or reference work.

It has been proved by experimentation that audio-visual experiences help pupils to gain correct concepts in a shorter period of time than is true when such aids are not employed. D. C. Knowlton and J. W. Tilton in their extensive research with American history films

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34 National Council for the Social Studies, The Social Studies Look Beyond the War, p. 32.

35 Bining and Bining, op. cit., p. 314.
(reported in their book, *Motion Pictures in History Teaching*), found that the experimental group taught with the aid of films not only learned more than the groups which did not see the films, but that members of the experimental group actually completed the minimum essentials of the courses in less time. The estimated saving in a forty-week school year was one and one-half weeks. 36

Much has been claimed for the use of motion pictures, not only in history, but in the other social studies as well. Films on social life, on industrial activity, and on civic affairs may now be obtained. It has been claimed that the proper use of motion pictures in the schools is the best way to portray life in movement whether of the past or the present. They stimulate the imagination of the pupils and arouse interest which leads to increasing mental effort. They aid the memory, help in assimilation, and have many other values because they present material closer to reality than the presentation of the teacher, the text, or reference books. As to the place motion pictures will occupy in the teaching of the social studies and in school work in general, only the future can tell. The expense has been the chief factor in preventing the general use of this excellent visual aid. 37

Another valuable technique in the teaching of history and the other social studies, and one which is closely related to and often includes visual aids, is the use of community resources in making the social-studies program more meaningful and vital. Some teachers, even in these modern progressive days, feel that to transform the


37 Bining and Bining, *op. cit.*, p. 317.
community into a social-studies laboratory requires too much time, and therefore they are apt to look with disfavor and skepticism upon the use of community resources in the educational program.

It is true that the utilization of community resources for educational purposes does require much time for careful planning and for using procedures that will bring the best possible results; but, at the same time, the rewards to be derived from a conscientious use of the community as an aid to teaching and learning nullify any objections and render highly worth-while any time devoted to this phase of education. Community resources provide an opportunity to obtain first-hand information, stimulating ideas, and new experiences, as well as topics or questions to be studied. "Through the use of community resources pupils discover important matters to discuss, read about, write about, and do something about." Teaching and learning are vitalized and made more meaningful when community resources are utilized. At the same time, good school-and-community relationships are fostered, since parents and other laymen participate in the program of the school, either by visiting the class or by having the class visit them in their places of business. Usually, both teacher and

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pupils will be amazed at what the community affords in the way of educational materials; and they are all readily available to the school.

The community should be the laboratory in which the children in the school learn; only in this way can the greatest educational gain be achieved. The way in which this is done, however, will vary from school to school and from teacher to teacher. Unless community study is based on sound theory and practice, it will degenerate into a fad. Above all, the teacher must be careful to go only so far as he is ready to go. In our enthusiasm, we tend to dive in headfirst before we find our depth. Some teachers will use the community only to furnish illustrations for textbook topics; others will use the textbook only as background material for community activities. Some few able teachers will be able to organize class activities entirely about community agencies. Whatever technique is used, the teacher must feel that he is master of the method he employs. 39

Every community, no matter how small, possesses a variety of resources which are useful in history and in the other social studies. These resources include people with exceptional talents or hobbies, vocations, skills, experiences, collections, films, and pictures, who have something to show or demonstrate or tell about. Also, they include community institutions and agencies of local government, business, industry, religion, and public service. Opportunities to study conservation of wild life, forests, soils, irrigation, and human beings are also at hand. Furthermore, the geographic, geological, and

botanical resources are not to be neglected. Of importance also are the historical resources, illustrated by historical sites and museums, old papers, documents, records, and the like. 40

Carefully chosen community activities should have a part in the classwork of every teacher. On whatever the level of difficulty and in whatever the curriculum organization, every teacher can utilize community resources. To fail to do so is to neglect the richest educational material available. Before the teacher introduces the community to the classroom, however, he will want to explore it for himself. And that exploration will be a thrilling experience. 41

Community resources useful for instructional purposes may be divided into physical phenomena, social institutions, and such intangibles as customs, beliefs, and traditions. Although in many instances there is no sharp line of distinction between these groups, there is the general difference that exists between tangible external objects on the one hand and intangible ideas, customs, institutions, and functions on the other. Among the physical phenomena that merit attention are hills, mountains, soil, lakes, roads, stores, banks, factories, churches, hospitals, and historical sites. As examples of tangible institutions may be named families, schools, clubs, political parties, courts of law, organizations of various types, and unions. Instances of intangibles are practices in courtship, the attitudes toward

41 Ibid., p. 25.
amusements, labor, politics, racial groups, and religion, and the beliefs in private property, democracy, and economic opportunity.

Thus it is seen that the community consists of the functioning agencies and ideas as well as of the physical phenomena. 42

As a significant means of utilizing community resources for educational purposes, the school field trip should be recognized and utilized, particularly by classes in history and the other social studies.

The school field trip, taken in connection with and closely correlated with the topic being studied, should prove to be an effective device in bringing out the best in each individual pupil. Properly planned and conducted, the field trip offers not only an opportunity to view social and historical phenomena in their natural settings, but it also should stimulate pupils to a variety of activities. These activities should furnish an opportunity for the individual to express himself according to his own peculiar abilities. Too often the only followup activity in connection with school trips has been a teacher-required essay on "What I Liked Best on Our Trip." A well-drawn plan of an historical site, a poem written after a visit to the slums, or a series of pupil-made photographs may show even more penetration, synthesis or factual knowledge than the essay. In individual work lies the opportunity for each pupil to add to the group knowledge in his own way. For example, this may be the opportunity for the fellow who finds it difficult to put his feelings into words to express himself through the medium of cartoon, sketch, or model. 43

42 Wesley, Teaching Social Studies in High Schools, p. 414.

A carefully planned field trip—and it will be of little value if it is not carefully planned—involves (1) adequate preparation of the class as to what they will see and what they should look for; (2) arrangements in advance, when necessary, with those in charge of the places to be visited; (3) adherence to a carefully planned procedure during the visit; and (4) checking and synthesizing the results of the trip into the proper relationship to the larger pattern of the total instructional program.\(^4^4\) If these steps are followed in connection with each field trip, they will yield highly worth-while benefits.

To conclude this chapter, we should repeat what was said in the beginning—there is no one "best" method for the teaching of history. The most imperative challenge to the teacher of history is to make the subject real and vital to the pupils. In order to do this, he must call upon and employ many different procedures and techniques. Certainly, the use of the textbook exclusively as a means of teaching history is no longer considered good practice. At the same time, it should be recognized, also, that history cannot be taught and learned solely by the use of visual aids, community resources, the socialized recitation, the lecture, or any other single method, to the exclusion of all others. Effective work in history demands the use of many methods and of many techniques in making history meaningful and interesting to the pupils.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As a result of this study, the following conclusions have been formulated:

1. American history entered the curriculum of the schools of the United States as a result of the patriotic fervor engendered by the Revolutionary War.

2. The Civil War added increased impetus to the general recognition of the value of American history in the schools, and shortly following that sectional conflict the history of America was almost universally included in the courses of study, being required in most states through legislative action.

3. Until the last quarter of the nineteenth century, American history was primarily concerned with the learning of dates and of details. After that time, more attention was increasingly devoted to the social, economic, and political aspects of history, with decreasing emphasis upon military campaigns.
4. The World War of 1914-1918 brought into history a consciousness of international relationships between the United States and the nations of western Europe; and thereafter American history became increasingly flavored with elements of internationalism which sought to develop in the pupils an understanding of the interdependence of nations and of peoples.

5. Although some of the principal objectives of history in the curriculum of the secondary school include the development of good citizenship, patriotism, tolerance, and understanding of current affairs, it must be recognized that history, within itself, does not have the power to turn these objectives into realities. History can only supply the facts concerning the past and the present and cannot determine what the result of knowing those facts may be. Ideally, history hopes to inspire pupils to utilize those facts in developing patriotism, good citizenship, tolerance, and all the other desirable traits which are considered essential to efficient citizenship in a democracy.

6. The most important consideration in the teaching of history is to relate it to the present in such a way that history itself will become vital and meaningful and the present, intelligible.
7. Although history may be approached from a strictly chronological point of view or, on the other hand, from a counter-chronological method of presentation, neither of these methods should be utilized to the exclusion of the other. The past and the present should be integrated and correlated in such a way that the past is appreciated and the present is understood. Since history is a continuous stream flowing through both the past and the present, it is a highly questionable method of approach to cut off this stream at any point and divert it from running its natural course, which serves to unite the past with the present.

8. The only real value in a chronological treatment of history is that utilized by the professional historian in doing his writing of history, or that employed by the student who is interested in tracing some historical topic or development from a research point of view; in which case, of course, he will want to do his reading in chronological sequence in order to gain correct interpretations.

9. History is virtually meaningless if it is confined to isolated facts and dates. Instead, it should be interpreted and taught as a tool for developing understandings and appreciations of the activities and problems of mankind.
10. There is no one "best" method of teaching history, but several methods which are effective.

11. History should not be taught by means of any one method exclusively; but, rather, by a combination of a number of methods, all working together to provide pupils with understandings and appreciations which are valuable to them in present-day society.

12. All of the social studies—history, sociology, geography, civics, economics, and psychology—are all to be used as tools in the solving of immediate problems with which students are confronted. The primary outcome desired from the utilization of these subjects fields is the development of citizens skilled in living in a democratic society. This goal is of far more importance than the acquisition of a knowledge of the facts of history. The facts derived from study will, of course, contribute to the development of efficiency in living in the society of the present day.

Among the recommendations which appear to be warranted by this study are the following:

1. The teacher of history should recognize that he, in his class, is dealing with the story of mankind and that, to a great
extent, his pupils' efficiency in the present-day world will depend largely upon how well they learn the fundamental truths and elements of that dramatic story.

2. Worthy goals and objectives should always be kept in mind in the teaching and learning of history.

3. The teacher should be careful to integrate the past and the present so that the pupils will have an adequate understanding of both and of their interrelationships and meanings to each other.

4. The teacher of history should constantly experiment with different methods of teaching and should integrate and correlate these various approaches in such a way that the subject matter may be interesting and vital, loaded with meaning for the pupils, and carrying with it many valuable implications involved in an effective interpretation of the story of the past and of the meaning of the present.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


