THE DEVELOPMENT OF A PROGRAM
IN HUMANITIES FOR THE JUNIOR
COLLEGE CURRICULUM

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF A PROGRAM IN HUMANITIES FOR
THE JUNIOR COLLEGE CURRICULUM

DISSERTATION

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By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study is to develop a Humanities program for use in the junior college curriculum. This program shall derive as much as possible from a stated foundation of philosophy and shall be in accord with conclusions already achieved from research in the humane sciences.

The study is divided into five parts. The first chapter surveys the background of the concept and the experimental findings to suggest criteria, defines certain terms as used herein, and delineates procedures used in this study. The second chapter states and supports the criteria for planning the Humanities program. The third chapter develops the format of the course. Notes are also presented for teaching the program and utilizing the syllabus in that chapter. Certain audio-visual work and special readings are suggested for discussion. Chapter IV is an analysis of the content in the following chapter, considered in the light of each point of criteria established in the second chapter. A historical compendium is presented as a teacher's guide or
student's text and is separately bound. The fifth chapter of this study consists of content from within one of the ten time zones comprising the historical compendium. Chapter VI contains recommendations which have grown out of the study.

Background and Significance of the Study

The concept of general education is one whose origins are ancient. As early as 500 B.C. the Chinese philosopher and teacher Kung Fu Tse insisted that young gentlemen should know about chariot driving in addition to learning prescribed books of rules. The early Greek thinkers included some who taught that the mind of man should never be circumscribed by courses of study even then compartmentalized by some teachers. When Socrates made his famous discourse on the nature of love, he was demonstrating a kind of teaching to students around him at the time, for he was not only teaching mathematical axioms, history, and geography, but was cutting across the lines of those categories and adding new thinking that included critical thought about the nature of love. Socrates was never criticized for neglecting to teach mathematics, but was condemned for other reasons which included an attack on the compartmentalized system of learning then officially sanctioned. Some of the Renaissance teachers, in looking back to Greek and Roman times, were able to present thoughts
relating and embracing various of the scholarly disciplines. As proof, one may note the bridge at Florence designed from a plan of Michelangelo's which he had intended for use only as a tomb ornament, and, as an example of one person relating his own work in two widely different fields, Leonardo da Vinci could transfer his military engineering plans into the scheme for his painting of the Last Supper.

Such examples to the contrary, the Medieval period eventually became one in which education was a compartmentalized thing. According to Borrowman, education had then come to have an agreed-upon content, and liberal education consisted of the classical seven liberal arts (3, p. 3).

Shortly after this country was founded, the theory of formal discipline prevailed in education, and perennialist philosophy triumphed by standing on earlier precedents (3, p. 3). In exception to that general trend, Benjamin Franklin designed the academy to provide an opportunity for students to "learn those things that are likely to be most useful and most ornamental" (3, p. 42).

The liberal tradition in education may be traced through the academy (3, p. 42), the New England high school (3, p. 42), the common school (3, p. 43), the work of Charles William Eliot at Harvard in 1865 in restoring free choice among a number of studies (3, p. 83). Borrowman points out that any liberal program, no matter how compartmentalized, has a certain function, which he calls "perspective": "And
perspective must be seen as having at least three dimensions — time, community, and methodology" (3, p. 4). For the student to see things in a broad scope, he must have a concern for things and events which came before and for things and events to come after his immediate view. There must also be some understanding of the different forces which the local and world community bring to bear on a given situation (3, p. 4). Yet the core program, or a program in which one course combined thoughts from several formerly compartmentalized studies, was not to appear until the early part of the present century (1, p. 337).

In the period following 1910, some colleges sought to break down the stress on isolated disciplines, and there was increasing experimentation "to reintegrate general education" (3, p. 136). Columbia College offered a study of "man and his institutions" called "Contemporary Civilization." Later, Meiklejohn's Experimental College at the University of Wisconsin and the direct experience program at Antioch and Whittier Colleges contributed to the general education program. John Dewey pointed out that the curriculum, with its organization of subject matter, could help the student accumulate intellectual experience, and such growth could be heightened by the virtue of the logic of the curricular organization. He emphasized the value of such organization in giving people a certain "net form which renders it most available and
most significant, most fecund for future experience" (6, p. 28).

The general education movement has become an attempt to create a more inclusive concept of the old liberal arts ideal. Outside of such unifying concept which ensures both discipline and wholeness, the only remaining alternative is the continued strife and competition of the departments (3, p. 233).

The construction of Dewey's "net form" is the purpose of this study, utilizing the liberal ideal. One of the first problems is the one of concept. General education or Humanities is

... an ill-defined, and widely misunderstood academic movement, now performing the useful service of reemphasizing certain traditional goals and values (4, p. 1). The general education movement originated as a reaction against overspecialization and compartmentalization (7, p. 17). But educational leaders should try to agree on certain common objectives that can serve as a stimulus and guide to individual decision and action (8, p. 6).

Bogue noted some agreement on common objectives and commented on some of the interdisciplinary programs he was especially impressed with. In speaking of Pine Manor Junior College in Wellesley, Massachusetts, he wrote

... three of the basic courses are commendable in their approach to general education, namely, the humanities, history, and science. Our Cultural Heritage is the designation used for the humanities and is announced as a "comprehensive study of the development of philosophy, literature, architecture, sculpture, painting, and music from the Greeks to the present day (2, p. 169).

A future Humanities program based on specific areas of learning over a given period of time, logically
organized into broad areas of history, was thus suggested. This dissertation takes up that suggestion provided by Bogue and develops it by presenting the concept of scanning knowledge from the peaks of ten specific time zones. Jesse Bogue did not delineate the ideal period of time or suggest a course design; it was enough for his purposes at the time of writing merely to point the direction for an interdisciplinary Humanities program. "The need to do a critical analysis" was further emphasized by James W. Reynolds in writing about the design of a Humanities program (9, p. 1).

The consideration of certain psychological principles is a necessary step in forming the design of a Humanities program. There are some Humanities programs which have been developed without apparent correlation with learning theory.

The Harvard Report, A College Program in Action by the Columbia College Faculty, and Liberal Education Reexamined by Greene and others, include little more than casual reference to the nature of the learning process (5, p. 50).

This study derives some of its criteria for design from concepts of learning and from principles of human growth and development.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of communication within the limits of this study, the following definitions are in order.
1. Junior College. This term is used herein to denote any educational institution essentially concerned with the intellectual development of the individual beyond the high school level and short of the level required for the junior and senior years of the American college or university.

2. Humanities. This term, as written with a capital letter, is used herein to denote a program that surveys and integrates major cultural facets of our international heritage. The Humanities program, further, must provide the student with a framework of knowledge to enable him to recognize existing relationships among his varied studies. This definition is presented in order to avoid the confusion of such terms as "general education," "humanities" as spelled in lower case, "humanistics," "individual and society," and "basic integrations," all of which terms have been used at some time as synonyms for Humanities and have been used with differing meanings at other times.

3. Culture. This term is used herein to denote esthetic or intellectual attainment as distinguished from any specific stage or state of civilization in a given time and place.

4. Cultural Highlight. This term is used herein to refer to an esthetic or intellectual entity of great importance in its impact on man's development.
Limitations of the Study

The nature and scope of this study encompass the following items which might be construed as limitations.

1. In stating the foundations for the Humanities program and its design, one must make certain value judgments, although these will be held to the minimum. There is a basic assumption of value in the awareness of cultural highlights. Philosphic bases of the Humanities program will be presented in the appropriate section of the study.

2. The selection of material to be included in the section to serve as the historical compendium will be made on the basis of studying broad areas of learning, then examining smaller elements within those areas. The use of the deductive method over the inductive should not prove a limitation as long as the impact of the single item is not lost in the overview. The risk of a failure to find an overview is the danger in stressing the inductive method.

Procedures for Collecting Data

The procedures for collecting data to be used in this study may be summarized as follows:

1. Books and articles concerning the essentials of culture were read in order to define and delineate specific broad areas of learning.
2. Books and articles concerning cultural highlights were read in order to determine specific items within the broad areas of learning.

3. Research from the humane sciences was studied for its implications concerning the construction of the Humanities program.

4. Work on curriculum development was studied to aid in the construction of the proposed Humanities program.

5. Books and articles on educational philosophy were studied to assist in the further delineation of criteria for the Humanities program to be presented.

Procedures for Treating Data

The procedures for treating the collected data are as follows:

1. The background for the Humanities program and the plan for making this study are presented in Chapter I, along with the definitions needed and limitations.

2. Criteria are presented in Chapter II for establishing a Humanities program.

3. The reasoning for the divisions of content into time zones in the Humanities program is stated in Chapter III. Method of teaching the Program is discussed, and a course syllabus is presented with specific cultural highlights and recommended audio-visual aids for each time zone.
4. The time zone presented in Chapter V, with the related cultural highlights, is discussed in Chapter IV in the light of the established criteria applied to develop it and the methodology suggested for its teaching.

5. A historical compendium which may be used as a student's text or as a teacher's reference for the Humanities program is bound as a separate volume. The content of one time zone contained therein is presented in Chapter V.

6. Recommendations which have grown out of the study are presented in Chapter VI.
BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR CHAPTER I


CHAPTER II

CRITERIA

The beginning of the formulation of criteria rests on a statement of desired outcomes, therefore

The purpose of education is to effect desirable changes in conduct through wholesome and complete learning of the highest type, leading to satisfactory adjustment of the individual (a) to himself, (b) to the social group, and (c) to a changing world (16, p. 120).

Criteria formulated from such a statement are herein placed in four categories: (I) The Goal of the Program, (II) Plan of the Program, (III) Content, (IV) Practical Considerations of Program Design.

I. The Goal of the Program

The goal of the Humanities program is to help the student develop in certain ways. Unless a course has an intended effect on the student taking the course, the course is greatly diminished in its value.

A. Awareness of Varied Fields of Learning

McGrath points out that the educated man knows about various disciplines and their interrelationships:

...in order to understand the complex world in which they live and to discuss the issues of the day with their contemporaries (11, p. 145).
Learning experience should permit a sufficient variety of learning activities (20, p. 100).

Each learner differs from every other student. It therefore is necessary that a variety of opportunities should be provided for the student to interact with his environment in ways that are meaningful to him. Being able to choose from a variety will be more conducive to his growth than conforming to a set pattern (4, pp. 346-7).

No overview has merit without a variety of subject matter. Education is "a continuous reconstruction, moving from the child's present experience out into that represented by the organized bodies of truth that is called studies" (5, p. 16). Dewey goes on to state the teacher's philosophical concern with facts:

The teacher is not concerned with adding new facts to the subject field he teaches, but is concerned with subject matter only as representing a given "phase of the development of experiences" (5, p. 30). The teacher is concerned with inducing a personal experience in the student. The medium in which the student should be placed is of extreme importance for the proper direction of growth. Subject matter is one related factor in a growing experience. A misunderstanding of the double aspect of subject matter, that is, subject matter and student reaction, may cause the "curriculum and the child to be set over against each other" (5, p. 30).

There must be a combination of art and science in the Humanities program.

A narrow specialization in higher education has serious social consequences. Men in government are stifling scientific investigation, while some scientists are guilty of equally poor judgment with regard to social
policy. Deep chasms exist in our educational system and have made it increasingly difficult for people to cooperate or even discuss problems. A person must be able to look beyond his limited area of study. Science must become "more humane and the arts more realistic" (11, pp. 143-4).

B. Ability to see Relationships

The second purpose of the Humanities program is the encouragement of the student's ability to see relationships. The planning of the program must include an effort to introduce some order into "what is now a patternless collection of ideas on a variety of subjects" (11, p. 145). Relationships should be established between various disciplines. Subjects into which knowledge has been divided have no counterpart in reality. Scholars have artificially partitioned nature so that it might be more conveniently studied, but a person who looks at life through "the narrow aperture of a single discipline not only sees merely a part of the world, but sees that falsely" (11, p. 145).

Newman, in his *Idea of a University*, says: "That only is true enlargement of mind which is the power of viewing many things at once as one whole, of referring them severally to their true place in the universal system, of understanding their respective values, and determining their mutual dependence" (11, p. 145).

Knowledge of relationships can spring from an awareness of various fields clearly presented.

It has been asserted that a student's education is not integrated merely by bringing together subjects that were once remote. The seeing of unifying relationships is an active and not a passive sort of mental process; rearrangement of courses will not automatically induce a mental response. It must, however, be admitted that "the student can never see a relationship between two or more things if he
knows of only one" (11, p. 149). That fact justifies the attempt at bringing different kinds of knowledge together. Bringing sociology and economics together to focus on a situation existing in time and space is more likely to encourage a student to see relationships than merely presenting the student with the organization of a single discipline at a time (11, pp. 149-150).

Understanding thus becomes broadened.

This more natural method of presentation neither precludes thoroughness nor necessitates a superficial survey of the subject matter. In fact, the student's knowledge is enriched and his understanding is intensified and broadened by this emphasis on relationships (11, p. 146).

A person once trained to look for relationships has gained a valuable outlook: "events, opinions, individualities are all viewed as one, with correlative functions, and as gradually by successive combinations converging, one and all, to the true center" (11, p. 146).

C. Development of Critical Abilities concerning the Concrete.

A person completing the Humanities program should have certain critical abilities concerning the concrete or intrinsic aspects of items within his experience. Dressel's group lists these abilities:

1. To identify central issues.
2. To recognize underlying assumptions.
3. To evaluate evidence or authority.
   a. To recognize stereotypes and cliches.
   b. To recognize bias and emotional factors in a presentation,
   c. To distinguish between verifiable and unverifiable data.
   d. To distinguish between relevant and non-relevant.
e. To distinguish between essential and incidental.

f. To recognize the adequacy of data.

g. To determine whether facts support a generalization.

h. To check consistency.

4. To draw conclusions (9, pp. 38-9).

D. Development of Critical Abilities concerning the Esthetic

A person completing the Humanities program should have certain critical abilities concerning the esthetic or abstract aspects of items within his experience. Dressel's group submits this list of such abilities:

1. Immediate (Pre-analytical) Subjective Reaction

2. Analysis
   a. Function and Content
   b. Medium
   c. Formal Elements and Organization

3. Judgment
   a. Demonstration of a Total, Over-all, Coherent Perception of the Significance of the Work
   b. Perceptions of the Interrelations in Form and Content in the Work (11, p. 155).

The Humanities program should assist in the development of the student's perceptual abilities. Eleanor Gibson demonstrated how perceptions are made keener and more reliable through training. After taking such items as faulty vision and hearing into consideration, she points out that mental sets determine in a large measure what the person sees and hears, and practice improves judgment (12, pp. 401-31). Harlow showed that rapid (after one trial) learning which
defines insight develops gradually as the learner accumulates experience with a given class of discriminative problems (13, pp. 51-65).

E. Development of Ability to Make New Approaches

The person trained by the Humanities program should be able to think effectively. "A well-educated person is one who knows his way around in the field of ideas" (19, p. 307). Such thinking has its completely practical side. In the summer of 1959, a number of business executives met in Aspen, Colorado, to take part in a purely liberalistic program. Wilfred D. Gillen, then President of Bell Telephone Company of Pennsylvania, explained his reason for attending:

In a business as large as ours and as functionalized, there was great danger, as we had evidence that the condition was to some extent prevalent, that the road to success was to conform to a certain and accepted pattern of thought and action. We recognized that this is something that should be eradicated if possible (20, p. 80).

The Humanities program should aid in the growth of the imagination.

Unless culture be a superficial polish, a reviving of mahogany over common wood, it surely is this—the growth of the imagination, in flexibility, in scope, and in sympathy, till the life which the individual lives is informed with the life of nature and of society (7, pp. 17-8).

If a student is presented with material so arranged as to assist him in organizing his thoughts, the student should develop ability to use thoughts gained in one area
for understanding a different field. Bond found, by applying general education objectives to the teaching of a unit on genetics, that there was a transfer of learning in that students were able to overcome some of their superstitions in fields somewhat related to the course material and that they showed a more liberal attitude on some social issues. The course further showed that the students had increased their abilities to apply principles to stated case situations. (1, p. 580).

It has been asserted that any course combining material from several fields of learning must be superficial and the student would never be allowed to try his full intellectual powers. The conventional organization of subject matter for instructional purposes was a late achievement. As far as genuine intellectual work is concerned, the student who seeks to solve a problem or understand a situation without the benefit of knowledge previously arranged for him should have a more stimulating experience than if all the supporting information had been outlined for him and limited to one subject field (11, p. 147).

Corey states the value of the Humanities program by way of understatement. An argument for coherence and unity in respect to a course is based on a belief that a course so designed will "enhance availability. In other words, the 'well-organized mind' is the mind that can more quickly identify and locate and make available whatever is needed by the problematic situation" (13, p. 61).

The final value of the Humanities program lies in the student's increased ability to discover and appreciate new realms of culture or realms new to him. With this background and awareness derived from the program, he is better
equipped for future understandings.

II. Plan of the Program

There must be a plan for an effective Humanities program. The student himself does not have the experience required for planning an entire program (5, p. 21; 6, p. 173).

The student may be unaware of whole fields of learning and almost certainly will be unaware of many highlights within a field before he has studied such material. In beginning a course, the student must look for assistance to people having a background and some knowledge of the course. Such a team of persons must plan the program for the student, must, in effect, design a road map for the student to use in finding his way.

In addition to providing a map for the student, a new program must include a teacher's guide. This study presents such plans for a Humanities program. The team aiding the student will finally consist of the teacher of a given classroom, the administration of a given college, and the author and doctoral committee which have produced this study.

A. Concepts of Learning Theory

Concepts derived from learning theory have their implications for developing a Humanities program. Kingsley mentions McConnell's study reviewing the major emphases of conditioned-response, trial-and-error, and Gestalt learning.
theories with the intention of establishing their common components:

Learning situations are (1) a complex of both stimuli and responses and must be (2) described in terms of mutual relationships. (3) Motivation initiates and directs behavior and (4) leads to particular responses organized for the attainment of a particular end, which (5) if resulting in the satisfaction of the motives, becomes established. (6) The crux of learning lies in the learner's recognizing the appropriateness of his response and modifying future tries in the light of previous experience. This action is dependent upon the ability of the organism (7) to discriminate between differences and (8) generalize between similarities (15, p. 122).

B. Principles of Growth and Development

To the concepts derived from learning theory may be added certain principles of human growth and development. Many of these principles are overlapping, and none in one group is in any way contradictory of any in the other listing. Concerning growth and development, we know:

1. That the living creature is a growing organism, evolving, maturing, from small but "whole" beginnings...(the concept of growth).
2. That each human act is integrating, not additive, the organism acting and growing as a whole...(the scientific principle of integration).
3. That the delicate, highly differentiated living creature, continuously beset by the danger of instability, is equipped with sensitive means of self-regulation...(the concept of self-balance).
4. That the living creature is dynamic, always characterized by active movement; thus learning is reacting, making responses (as likewise is the building of meaning, of intelligence, of skill)...(the concept of dynamic response).
5. That man thoughtfully is a generalizing being...that central to every response is the perception of the relationships between parts of the whole situation...that the meaning of any phrase or phase is determined by such relations, in generalization, in problem solving...(the concept of generalization).

6. That the living creature is primarily a goal-seeking organism, his behavior determined by his purposes, by his attempts to satisfy his needs...(the concept of purpose).

7. That by the process of interaction between the individual and his environment the self is formed, egocentric and defensive, the product of learning...(the concept of self and personality).

8. That the individual learns to adjust to his world by patterns of behavior which have been selected and stereotyped for him by the culture...(the concept of the stereotype).

9. That indispensable technical competence in behavior (intellectual, social, manual, and other physical skills) is furthered by recurrence of learning situations in which settings are varied and marked by positive intention to learn...(the concept of habit).

10. That integrity of expression requires originality of imagined conceptions, clarity of perception (grasp of significant relationships)...technically competent objectifying of imagined conceptions...(the concept of the creative act).

These principles of growth and development (16, pp. 527-30) include more than the esthetic and intellectual elements, but these principles may provide inferences for the development of the Humanities program in that the esthetic and intellectual elements are an essential part of human growth and development.
Dewey has stated that "either identity of experience or some non-experientially qualified way of referring to existence is needed for intelligibility" (10, p. 1613). There is an additional motivation involved, however, which is not derived from specialized interest. One motivation which would assist the student in the Humanities program is the desire for orderliness and arrangement which is almost a basic drive, according to Langer (17, p. 125). Langer defines that basic drive as a seeking after organization and therefore takes issue with John Dewey who had defined the same drive as a desire to be in harmony with nature. Though there is a difference of philosophical interpretation, both agree on the need of organized thought for education.

The point of view of the teacher should be to aid students "in improving, extending, and organizing their individual and cooperative activities". The aim of the student should be to learn to improve, extend, and organize his activities, and student and teacher would therefore work together. There is a diminished concept of learning when teacher and student work in opposition to each other (2, p. 9).

C. Horizontal and Sequential Continuity

Learning experiences must provide for "continuity and sequential development" (21, p. 96). The proposed Humanities program develops in chronological order. It is true that some facets of learning—music, for example—might be better appreciated if presented to the student in a non-chronological sequence. An overview such as is
required in the Humanities program must have a sequential
development, however. One might logically argue that the
proper place to begin a study is with the student's own
time and place. To present the present with no concept
of the past, when a broad view is desired, would do the
student a disservice, though. Such a presentation would
allow the student to assume that the present is the ideal
for all comparisons. The present is a product of the past,
however, and, if the past contains errors in thought, those
errors may best be corrected by being examined in a se-
quential manner. The student may then become aware of
just which point in time marked the beginning of the
error. Once an error has been compounded for a long
period of time, correction is extremely difficult with-
out a logical examination of its beginning.

Dewey pointed out that the whole history
of development of a student's abilities may be
considered as the steps the student needs to
take "to put his blind impulses in order so
they may get clarity and gain force" (5, pp.17-18).

There must also be a horizontal continuity
(18, p.357). Learning is more effective and has
more meaning when there is an "interrelationship
between various simultaneous learnings" (21, p.106).

The combination of horizontal and vertical view-
points for the Humanities program is even more specifi-
cally stressed by Harvard's Howard E. Wilson:

The early nineteenth century influence of
trade with Asia should be traced in American art,
dress and home decoration. The African origins
of Negro culture, the Indian relationships
extending north and south through the hemisphere, the American contacts of Garibaldi, Sun Yat Sen, De Valera, and a host of others, the international emphasis of the missionary movement, the rise of hundreds of international organizations in business, science, the professions, and the arts—all of these are illustrative of the new emphasis which the world situation calls for in the study of United States history.

Scholarly development of this new emphasis in American history should lead to similar emphasis in the history curriculum. The assumptions of isolation, the treatment of national affairs in a vacuum, can no longer be tolerated for those who tell pupils the story of the national past (23, p. 251).

An effective Humanities program should also be so organized as to require as little memory recall as possible in the sense that the student should be able to concentrate on thought rather than on rote memorization of dates and yet should be able to relate facts to a time (5, pp. 27-9).

D. Methodology

A student's classwork should not be to reveal knowledge already acquired, but should be to give free play to thinking and communication. The student needs to think and to put his thoughts into words. There is a sound contact with reality when the student's language instinct is appealed to. A student should never feel he has to make a statement about material he learned of and never thought about. The student "who has a variety of materials and facts wants to talk about them" (7, pp. 48-50).

III. Content of the Program

No attempt is made herein to justify separate items of content. There are certain general principles for determining content, however, and these will be stated.
A. Inclusion of Essentials

Essential values and contributions should be stressed.

Every area of content has certain unique concepts. These concepts and their emotional ingredients stimulate the development of learning skills and outlooks. To use content effectively, it is necessary to cut through a mass of detail and uncover the essential values and contributions within a field of learning (21, p. 83).

Essential items that are presented should be considered in their historical context. Canons of evidence must be respected and hypotheses considered in studying history, but the goal of historical inquiry is to illuminate particular events and epochs. History is an exhibit of "the exceptions rather than the regularities... what men have done as creative agents" (19, p. 309).

There must be specific highlights in addition to the horizontal and vertical integrations. Whitehead sheds a clear light on the problem, commenting on the need for "concrete fact with highlight thrown on what is relevant to its preciousness" (22, p. 199).

Whitehead uses the term "sensitiveness" to indicate an apprehension of items beyond oneself. He therefore speaks of "art" as "any selection by which the concrete facts are so arranged as to elicit attention to particular values which are realizable by them" (22, p. 200).

B. Presentation of Material on a Junior College Level

The position for the Humanities program should be on the junior college level.

The branches of science are interdependent, and social science must be considered in the light of relevant scientific data. A truer perspective is established when subjects are brought into logical relationships. The student should gain
such a perspective early in his college career. Many students never pursue a compartmentalized subject to such advanced stages that they understand the relationships of that subject to other subjects. They have a need for an early realization of relationships in order to avoid learning a subject as only isolated knowledge (ll, p. 146).

IV. Practical Considerations

Finally, there must be certain practical considerations of course design so far not mentioned. Such considerations are, strangely enough, seldom included in lists of criteria. Without them, though, the whole plan may be lost.

A. Feasibility. The Humanities program must be capable of being taught in the ordinary junior college with ordinary audio-visual equipment and without the need of special community resources, though such resources may be used when available.

B. Teacher Planning. The Humanities program should be so constructed as to be capable of being taught essentially by one teacher.

C. Continuity of Program. The Humanities program should be so defined as to be essentially the same course in different semesters with different teachers.

The defining of the Humanities program is not completed by the analysis and presentation of plans, goals, suggested methodology, and teacher's guide or text. There is still a human element. With such defining, however, the human element, the thinking and creative force of the individual teacher, will find aid and encouragement.
In the last analysis, however, the success of the current efforts to broaden the student's learning to cultivate the habit of looking for unity amid separateness will, like all efforts at educational reform, depend upon the teacher. Unless those who teach courses involving several subjects know those subjects sufficiently well and have the capacity to interrelate them, it seems futile to expect students to do so. Unfortunately, there are few such teachers. This situation results from the high degree of specialization in the institutions which produce these college teachers and from academic mores which often visit opprobrium and an impoverished life on those who wish to devote their lives exclusively to the taxing responsibilities of instructing youth. Until such teachers are produced in the graduate schools, or encouraged by fitting material and psychic rewards to educate themselves later, the reshaping of courses of study will be entirely futile.

It should also be noted that many men and women, especially in the smaller liberal arts colleges, have given integrated courses for many years. They may have offered such instruction in a course listed in the catalogue as Shakespeare, or Geology, or the French Revolution, or Goethe's Works. We have all had such a teacher, one who had read widely, thought deeply, and felt intensely about the world and man. Some of these were the world's most renowned scholars. Others produced few new facts, wrote few books, spoke at few national meetings, but they vivified the minds and gave direction to the lives of youth (11, pp. 150-1).
BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR CHAPTER II


CHAPTER III

ORGANIZATION AND SYLLABUS

Time Zones

A logical explanation is in order to explain the division of content into time zones in the proposed Humanities program. There are ten of these zones, the first beginning in the thirteenth century, the last one ending in 1960.

The decision to use time zones was reached after the drawbacks in the geographic approach were considered. Nations, races and religions dwelt in their own separate regions removed from each other by distance or by walls of fear and ignorance, yet there was an interchange of some ideas, and the growth and cultural achievements of one had influence on others and could seldom be isolated.

Finally, the individual of today is influenced by the heritage of vastly separated factors in time and place. For the student of today to gain a cultural framework, he must be able to survey the broad fields of learning and varied geographical factors in a shifting pattern through time. To do that, it is necessary to consider cultural development in terms of belts of time, each belt or zone encompassing subjects and places.
History has its turning point, dear to historians: moments when its course is suddenly, as it seems, interrupted and changes direction. Often these interruptions seem the results of revolutions and wars, great human convulsions in which the substance and thought of a whole age are swept together, inflamed, and burnt up, leaving a great clearing for the spread of new ideas and institutions or the return of old... Years when new generations, disengaging themselves from the rubble of revolution and war, set themselves new tasks and breathed a changed intellectual air (14, p. 28).

The first time-belt considered is the long one extending from the year 1200 to the close of the next century, 1399. Therein began the Renaissance, and the twentieth century derives from it more than from any other time.

The key date for the student to remember is 1300, and, with that single date, all the material in the time zone may be related. Concerning this time zone, John Fiske in The Beginnings of New England said:

"...a wonderful time, but after all less memorable as the culmination of mediaeval empire and mediaeval church than as the dawning of the new era in which we live today." John Morley said, "I want to know what men thought and did in the thirteenth century--because the thirteenth century is at the root of what men do in the nineteenth century." Edward A. Freeman in The Norman Conquest calls it "The age of wonders... which wrought the body politic of England into shape which left future ages nothing to do but to improve in detail." Frederick Harrison in A Survey of the Thirteenth Century declared, "Of all the epochs of effort after a new life, that of the age of Aquinas, Roger Bacon, Saint Francis, Saint Louis, Giotto and Dante is the most spiritual, the most really instructive, and indeed the most truly philosophical." It would be hard to find a group of men so different
in character, ways of looking at things and individual intellectuality, so concordant in their estimate of an important period of history as these expressions indicate, but similar appreciation might be quoted from Thomas B. Macaulay, John Richard Green, William Stubbs, Thomas Carlyle, Walter Scott and many others.

... No phase of human achievement in the intellectual and artistic side of man is lacking in this age; many are represented by products that surpass all others. In painting and sculpture, in architecture, in the minor arts and crafts, in literature, in philosophy, in education, in social work, even in the building of hospitals and the care of the ailing, and most surprising of all in medical education and surgery, there was a wonderful accomplishment at this time, the history of which was concealed from us until comparatively recent years by an exaggeration of interest in classical antiquity and in the Renaissance. Just in proportion as we have become deeply interested once more in art, architecture, the arts and crafts, in sculpture and handsome public buildings, in the home and the city beautiful, we have learned to realize how many of the ideals we are striving for now were accomplished marvelously in this late medieval century (16, p. 558).

The next time zone is from 1400 to the year 1540. The single key date for the student to remember and thereby give relevance to the whole age is 1492. It is a date in itself already known to most students as marking Columbus' discovery of the New World, and the entire era might be thought of as the Age of Columbus. The time period was one of exploration of both physical and mental realms. The Protestant Reformation highlighted the mental outreach, and the post-Columbian explorers Cabot, Vespucci, and Magellan had done their work by the end of the time zone, the year when Elizabeth I was born.
The third period is from 1540 to 1620. The single key date is 1588, the year of the defeat of the Spanish Armada and the establishment of the dominance of England over Spain and, therefore, the reason that North America became an English-speaking area. The period is properly called the Elizabethan Age, and yet the closing of that zone does not correspond with the time of her death. The end of that time zone is rather subtly defined. The year 1620 marks the end of the Renaissance.

As the century wore on, social conscience dwindled, for social change seemed impossibly remote. Was ever an architect more effortlessly aristocratic than Palladio, or a poet than Shakespeare?

And then, suddenly, all is over. Europe is in revolution. The Renaissance, which grew up so slowly, is dead in a few years. A generation after Shakespeare, the sons of his great patrons are leading Puritan armies against the Court; all the London theaters are closed; and the very name of "courtier" is a word of abuse. It is in a spirit of hatred and revenge that the court of King Charles I, "the last Renaissance court in Europe," is finally mopped up, the royal aesthete murdered, his splendid pictures knocked down and sold, even the soaring Gothic cathedrals offered up for scrap (14, p. 120).

Before 1620 or thereabouts, the royal courts were ruled by people who liked extravagance and splendid buildings. Then Marie de Medicis and the Duke of Buckingham fade from the scene. The Count-Duke of Olivares glares from Velazquez' portrait, and Cardinal Richelieu rules with an iron will. The giddy court life is gone. The crash came in a short time. There was a new war and a decay of trade, and all the voices of discontent seemed liberated. In Spain and
Italy, manufacturers and landlords were ruined by peasants and craftsmen who were no longer willing or able to carry the burden of the extravagance of the upper classes. From 1620 onward, while their betters were denouncing swollen courts, bought offices, and unemployable graduates, there were sporadic peasant risings in Austria, Germany, France. And in the English and German towns there soon followed iconoclastic riots: the smashing of stained glass windows and gilded statues; the war on art and architecture; the revenge of the poor against the intolerable human burden of that great aesthetic achievement, the Renaissance (14, pp.120-1).

The fourth time stratum is that period from 1620 to 1690, and the key date in it is 1620, the year the Pilgrims landed their "Mayflower" on Plymouth Rock and established the first permanent English colony in the area that became the United States of America. Actually, the period includes the rule of Charles II, and the Restoration thus assumes its place as a reaction to the age of Puritanism.

The fifth period is one which might be called the Period of Dependence in contrast to the period which followed it. The period from 1690 to 1765 was a time of extreme sociological interest in that almost nothing happened, almost as if a flame were heating something, gradually pushing it to a boiling point.

Peter the Great of Russia, in his trip to Lithuania, Austria, Holland, and England, perhaps symbolized the period in his concern for progress, which, for him, consisted of learning so-called correct ways of doing things, then ordering things to be done that way. He learned about artillery and
tooth pulling, as well as ship building and commerce. Above all, he returned home conscious of new customs in manner, dress, and mechanization. He built a new capital city and founded an Academy of Science and fined all people who refused to cut their beards off (5, pp. 60-80).

The whole time zone was marked by both royal and non-royal autocrats proclaiming correct ways which most of the people would follow. In England, for example, the king did not bother to speak English, and Dr. Johnson and his club proclaimed correctness. Johnson's first dictionary corrected the language; Dryden, the drama; Pope, poetry; and Reynolds, the standards of propriety in painting. Newspapers became popular and more and more people began to think about the correctness of such dependence on anyone else's "correct" standards. The key date for that period is simply the rounded figure 1700 to mark the time correctly.

The Age of Independence began in 1765 with the passage of the Stamp Act that precipitated the American Revolutionary War. The key date is 1776, the time of the signing of the Declaration of Independence. The period ends in 1829, thus embracing the wars for independence in Europe and South America. The last twenty-five years of the eighteenth century and the first quarter of the nineteenth century brought about more social changes than any other corresponding period in human history. Perhaps the reason for this was, as has often been suggested, that about the middle of the eighteenth
century, a great many of the highest and best human interests, especially those concerning fellow-men who needed sympathy and aid, were lower than they had ever been before. Humanity had reached a nadir in social life from which there had to be an ascent and fortunately the reaction against the lamentable conditions which existed was strong enough to set up a humanitarian countermovement toward the end of the century which made itself felt during the course of the 19th century and has not been lost even yet (17, p. 29).

The period from 1829 to 1870 was one which might be designated the era of International Growing Pains. The key date is 1865, the date of Lee’s capitulation at Appomattox Court House which marked the end of the Civil War.

The eighth time zone begins with the Franco-Prussian War and the creation of the German empire in 1870 and leads up to the war date of 1914, and yet the period itself was not a war-torn era. It was that sedate time which shall always be known as the Victorian Age. The key date for that time is the rounded figure of 1900.

The ninth layer of time in the historical perspective is a sophisticated age when the world seemed to feel a certain smugness. A war had been fought "to end all wars," the world was "safe for democracy," and the period ended with the beginning of another world war. The years 1914 to 1941 have the key date of 1918, the year that marked the ending of World War I.

All of the key dates were chosen for significance, either specifically or generally, and for the student’s
ease in remembering. Many of the dates are dates of wars. It will therefore be especially significant for the student that the things emphasized herein in connection with those dates are usually things going on in fields other than warfare.

The tenth and final section brings us from 1941 to the present. The key date is 1960. In this section, perhaps more than in any other, the student will be encouraged to look about him. More and more of significance will be events within the student's immediate grasp, and the text will serve an even greater function of springboard rather than crutch.

It might be suggested that the final section be called some title indicative of newness or something dynamic to suggest the atomic age. Above those considerations, however, the title that most seems to point toward the future is preferable. The tenth section has therefore been entitled The Hopeful Age.

There are several articles of unusual significance included in the historical compendium which accompanies this study, bound in a separate volume. This compendium may serve as a student's text or teacher's reference for content for each time zone. As an example of one article of unusual significance, within the second time zone is included at some length a discussion of some of the pre-Columbian achievements in Africa south of the Sahara.
It was not until April of 1959 that such information was publicly available. One word is in order to explain the length of some articles as compared with others. Indeed, some articles within a time zone may seem to have more space devoted to them than would be justified by their importance. Dante, in his time zone, receives more space than Shakespeare in his zone. The reason is that the student will, in all likelihood, receive considerable exposure to Shakespeare in other classes and studies, while his sole awareness of Dante may stem from his Humanities program. The amount of space allotted each item in the compendium is not an indication of the comparative value of that item.

One time zone from the compendium is presented for discussion in this study and is contained in Chapter V. That material does not include the specific cultural highlights for discussion and special study. Such examples are presented in the syllabus within this chapter. Most of these examples have been touched on in the historical compendium, though only the general area of a particular achievement may have been described. Within the realm of painting, for example, the work of Michelangelo is described in the compendium, the Sistine Chapel ceiling being mentioned there and as an example in the syllabus. Pablo Picasso is mentioned in the compendium, but the example of his work for discussion appears only in the
syllabus. The selection of the paintings presented as some of the cultural highlights in the syllabus was a problem largely resolved by the 1959 exhibit of fine arts at the Texas State Fair in Dallas. In that display, the American Federation of Arts circulated illuminations of what it considered to be the fifty-one finest paintings. These works ably represent European and American paintings. All of those works are included in the syllabus, and Oriental works are also present to complete that cultural framework.

Methodology

There are ten sections to be considered as stated in this chapter. The teacher would do well to divide the allotted time for the program into twelve equal parts to allow time for tests and occasional extra time to be spent on some facet of a section which the class has found of particular interest. The first hour or two of each time allotment should be devoted to a lecture outlining the various achievements in a given time-zone and giving the student a glimpse of the general picture. Then time should be utilized in studio-visual work, the students being assigned the appropriate section in the compendium or other reference work to read after the lecture and before the time spent in audio-visual work. Items for audio-visual study are suggested in Part B of the syllabus. After the audio-visual study, an assignment should be made for short
special readings of stories or comments of specific writers. Examples of these readings are suggested in Part C of this syllabus.

After a day of discussion of the readings, most of the rest of the time allotment might be spent in reports on items of the time zone which individual members of the class find thought provoking. Reports, generally, should be limited to fifteen minutes each. Tests need not be given for each time zone, but, whenever given, should have two purposes in mind: (1) to determine the student's awareness of key facts, ability to identify and recognize; (2) to assist the student in the development of critical abilities, to compare and to evaluate. Tests may be omitted for one section, or given for one or more sections at the discretion of the teacher, who can best judge the need of each particular class.

It might be desirable for individual students to prepare reports on some of the audio-visual material, in which case the assignments in A and B would be interchanged.

Methodology presented herein should be considered as a set of suggestions rather than a dogmatic delineation. Approaches such as panels, field trips, and laboratory work should be considered as special circumstances may warrant. The final decisions as to methodology should be made by the individual teacher giving consideration to the particular classroom and community situation.
Two words of caution are necessary. It is vastly better to cover carefully a few of the audio-visual items and a few of the special readings than to cover all of the items with such haste as to produce nothing but a blur. Second, the program must not be allowed to mire itself in too many details. Such material as the titles of all the paintings considered should not be a part of the testing aspect of the program. The program is one designed to provide awareness and stimulate comparative thinking and must not turn into a course resting on memorization of names and titles. Names and titles have their relative importance, though. For example, fifteen paintings by European artists are listed in the audio-visual part of the syllabus for Section II. Of these, only three, the works of Michelangelo, Botticelli, and da Vinci, are worthy of intensive discussion in this program. The others serve to provide a feeling for the art of the period and, indeed, have great merit, though the artists and titles should not be emphasized.
General Syllabus Form

In summary, each section as defined in this chapter should consist of the following suggested parts for teaching purposes.

Class Activity Followed by Assignment

A. Lecture
   Read Section of Compendium or Other Reference Work

B. Audio-Visual Work
   Study Special Readings

C. Discussion of Special Readings
   Prepare Individual Reports

D. Individual Reports
   Review for Test or Review Section if No Test is Scheduled

E. Test (may be omitted for one section, may cover one or more sections)
   No Assignment

In the following pages, only the audio-visual work and the special readings for each section will be listed, and it is understood that they fit into the section syllabus as stated above.

Syllabus for Section I

The Beginning of the Renaissance, 1200-1400

Audio-Visual Aids:

Pictures of Gothic Cathedrals, Chartres, Amiens, Notre Dame

Pictures of Stained Glass in Chartres, Notre Dame, Sainte Chapelle

Pictures of Zapotec Structures at Monte Alban, Mexico

Painting by Giotto: "Betrayal of Christ"
Picture of Temple of Angkor Vat, Cambodia

Recordings of Gregorian Chants

Picture of Statue of Great Buddha, Kamakura, Japan

Special Readings:

Dante's *Divina Comedia*, "Inferno," Cantos XXXIII-IV (1, pp. 156-166).

Marco Polo's *Book of Various Experiences* (alternately titled *Travels of Marco Polo, The Venetian*), any chapter at teacher's discretion (10).

Boccaccio's *Decameron*, any tale of teacher's choice (3).

Syllabus for Section II

The Age of Columbus, 1400-1540

Audio-Visual Aids:

Picture of Laurenziana Library, Florence, Italy

Picture of Page from Gutenberg Bible

Picture of Ghiberti Door, San Giovanni Church, Florence, Italy

Picture of Aztec Calendar Stone in Mexico City

Picture of Suleimaniye Mosque, Constantinople

Picture of Detail or Whole of Ceiling of Sistine Chapel Painted by Michelangelo

Picture of Green Celadon Chinese Vase, Ming Dynasty

Painting by Masaccio: "Expulsion of Adam and Eve"

Painting by Fra Angelico: "The Annunciation"

Painting by Filippino Lippi: "The Holy Family with Saint Margaret and Saint John"

Painting by Piero della Francesca: "The Resurrection"

Painting by Jan van Eyck: "Wedding Portrait of Giovanni Arnolfini"
Painting by Rogier van der Weyden: "Virgin and Saint John"

Painting by Hieronymus Bosch: "The Deadly Sins"

Painting by Albrecht Dürer: "Self Portrait"

Painting by Lucas Cranach: "The Judgement of Paris"

Painting by Giovanni Bellini: "Leonardo Loredano, Doge of Venice"

Painting by Giorgione: "Pastoral Symphony"

Painting by Sandro Botticelli: "Birth of Venus"

Painting by Titian: "Saint Margaret"

Painting by Leonardo da Vinci: "Mona Lisa"

Painting by Raphael: "St. George and the Dragon"

Any landscape by Sesshu Toyo

Special Readings:

Francois Villon's "Ballade of Dead Ladies" (18, Vol. II, p. 792).


Syllabus for Section III

The Elizabethan Age, 1540-1620

Audio-Visual Aids:

Recording of Palestrina's "Le Virgine," "Flumen Babylonis"

Painting of Jacobo Tintoretto: "Susanna and the Elders"

Painting of Paolo Veronese: "Calvary"

Painting of El Greco: "Burial of the Count of Orgaz"

Painting of Pieter Bruegel Elder: "The Wedding Dance"
Painting of Peter Paul Rubens: "Diana's Nymphs Surprised by Satyrs"

Pictures of Shrine and Landscaping at Nikko, Japan

Special Readings:


Syllabus for Section IV

The Puritan Age, 1620-1690

Audio-Visual Aids:

Painting of Velazquez: "The Surrender of Breda"

Painting of Franz Hals: "Malle Babbe"

Painting of Rembrandt: "Self Portrait" (The artist as a middle-aged man; the original in the National Gallery of Art in Washington)

Painting of Jan Vermeer: "A Woman Weighing Gold"

Painting by Anthony van Dyke: "Portrait of Charles I of England"

Painting by Nicolas Poussin: "Orpheus and Eurydice"

Picture of Saint Peter's Cathedral, Rome: Saint Paul's, London

Picture of Versailles and its Gardens, Paris

Picture of Taj Mahal, Agra, India

Special Readings:


Basho: Any of the Haiku (3 or 5 line poems) translated from the Japanese by Donald Keene or Harold G. Henderson (7, pp. 384-86).
Syllabus for Section V

The Age of Dependence, 1690-1765

Audio-Visual Aids:

Recording of Bach's "Jesu, Joy of Man's Desiring"

Recording of Handel's "Hallelujah Chorus" from The Messiah

Painting by Giovanni Tiepolo: "Apollo Pursuing Daphne"

Painting by Jean Watteau: "Embarkation for Cythera"

Painting by Gainsborough: "The Blue Boy"

Picture of Mount Vernon, George Washington's Home

Picture of Chippendale Furniture

Special Readings:


Syllabus for Section VI

The Age of Independence, 1765-1829

Audio-Visual Aids:

Painting by Constable: "The Leaping Horse"

Painting by Goya: "The Witches' Sabbath"

Recording of Beethoven's Fifth Symphony, first movement

Picture of the Rosetta Stone

Special Readings:


Syllabus for Section VII

International Growing Pains, 1829-1870

Audio-Visual Aids:

Painting by Delacroix: "The Capture of Weislingen"

Painting by Ingres: "La Grande Odalisque"

Wood Block Print by Hokusai: "Great Wave off Kanagawa"

Wood Block Print by Hiroshige: Any of his prints from "Fifty-three Stages of the Tokaido"

Recording of "Battle Hymn of the Republic"

Recording of Wagner's "Magic Fire Music" or the whole final scene from Die Walküre

Picture of Suez Canal

Special Readings:


Syllabus for Section VIII

The Victorian Age, 1870-1914

Audio-Visual Aids:

Picture of the Statue of Liberty

Painting by Edmond Manet: "Le Dejeuner sur l'Herbe"
Painting by Claude Monet: "Rouen Cathedral"
Painting by Hilaire Degas: "The Millinery Shop"
Painting by Pierre Renoir: "Dance at Bougival"
Painting by Paul Cezanne: "Les Grandes Baigneuses"
Painting by Vincent van Gogh: "Church at Auvers"
Painting by Paul Gauguin: "The Yellow Christ"
Painting by Georges Seurat: "Sunday Afternoon on the Island of Grande-Jatte"
Painting by Henri Toulouse-Lautrec: "At the Cirque Fernando -- The Ring Master"

Picture of Parliament House, Westminster, in London
Picture of Rodin's Sculpture: "The Thinker"
Recording of Dvorak's Fifth Symphony, Second Movement
Picture of Wright Brothers' First Successful Airplane

Special Readings:
Mark Twain: The Adventures of Tom Sawyer, Chapter II (15, pp. 26-34).

Syllabus for Section IX
The Sophisticated Age, 1914-1941

Audio-Visual Aids:
Painting by Pablo Picasso: "Three Musicians"
Painting by Henri Matisse: "The Magnolia Branch"
Painting by Paul Klee: "Nearly Hit"
Painting by Diego Rivera: "Peasant Carrying Load"
Picture of Empire State Building, New York
Recording of Some of Gershwin's Songs from "Porgy and Bess"

Special Readings:


Winston Churchill's Speech of June 4, 1940, on the Defeat at Dunkirk (18, Vol. II, pp. 1136-41); Recording might also be utilized.

Syllabus for Section X

The Hopeful Age, 1941 to the Present

Audio-Visual Aids:

Picture of Library, University of Mexico City, Mexico

Picture of United States Embassy, New Delhi, India

Picture of Republic National Bank Building, Dallas, Texas

Recording of Khachaturian's Violin Concerto, Last Movement

Recording of Number One Item among "Top Ten" Listings of Popular Songs

Painting by Georges Roualt: "Christ Mocked by Soldiers"

Painting by Amadeo Modigliani: "Portrait of a Girl"

Painting by Georges Braque: "The Billiard Table"

Painting by Piet Mondrian: "Composition in White, Black and Red"

Picture of Atomic Bomb Explosion at Bikini
Picture of Sputnik I

Special Readings and Studies:

Bertrand Russell: "Came the Revolution" (11, pp. 9-10, 36-37).


Isak Dinesen: "The Heroine" (6, pp. 69-88).

A Ninety-Minute Television Drama of the Student's Choice
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CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND APPLICATION OF CRITERIA

In this chapter will be considered the content of the second time zone as presented in Chapter V. An analysis will be made showing the application of the criteria as developed in Chapter II in determining the content, and methodology for presentation of that content to college students will be discussed. The outline form used for Criteria in Chapter II will be followed in this chapter so that the relationship of content and criteria may be clearly shown.

I. The Goal of the Program

As stated earlier, the goal of the Humanities program is to help the student develop in certain ways. Five of these student traits will be discussed here.

A. Awareness of Varied Fields of Learning

Various disciplines are presented within this time zone in keeping with the criterion. The disciplines of the fine arts are presented in the content concerning Leonardo and his inventions, other painters, other sculptors, art and architecture, and Michelangelo. The discipline of literature is presented through the section on literature, Sir Thomas More,
Thomas a Kempis, Machiavelli. Religion receives attention through sections of content dealing with the Papacy, Savanarola, Hus, Martin Luther and the Protestant Reformation, Henry VIII and the English Reformation, and the Swiss Reformation. Geography and the exploration of the world are presented to the student by the sections dealing with pre-Columbian discoveries in America, Columbus' voyages, post-Columbian discoveries, geography, African exploration, and in sections on Latin America, the West Indies, the Isthmus of Panama, Peru, the west coast of South America, Mexico, and the expansion south of Mexico. The discipline of history is presented throughout the entire time zone, but there are certain aspects which may be more nearly classified as within the domain of the historian. The first section of content takes up the meaning of the word "Renaissance" and introduces the student to a historical era. With outstanding personalities such as Tamerlane and Joan of Arc are presented sections on the War of the Roses, the fall of Constantinople, and the Hundred Years' War. And yet wars are never the total picture of history. There is a section on African archeology presenting aspects of African development seldom considered and indeed made publicly available only within the last year. There is a section on medicine, science, and, as a man of science, Gutenberg. There is a section on education. Within the realm of sports, there is some content on the possible origins of the modern game of basketball.
B. Ability to See Relationships

The varied fields of learning as above described are presented in such a way as to help the student to see relationships. One such relationship is the concept of time. The very fact that such material is presented within a time zone suggests a relationship. The learning of a single key date to apply to all material in the time zone is a way of relating the contents not only to each other but to the framework of history. By considering the sections on certain personalities presented within a single time zone, the student may realize not only that Louis XI, Joan of Arc, Lorenzo de Medici, Tamerlane, and Suleiman strode across the face of the earth almost simultaneously, and that the work of Gutenberg, Machiavelli, Martin Luther, and Michelangelo took place at almost the same time, but also that such diverse works may well have influenced one another. As an illustration, Pope Leo X had an excessive love of art. His consequent need of money led to his corruption and dishonest sale of indulgences which stimulated many of Luther's philosophic inquiries. The newly invented printing press increased the effect Luther's thinking could have on others. Events within the once compartmentalized fields of Religion, Art, and Science may be interwoven. A report on such relationships by a student or a discussion of such relationships by the whole class would be a valuable part of the methodology of the program.
C. Developing Critical Abilities Concerning the Concrete

In order for the student to develop critical abilities concerning concrete or intrinsic elements, material is presented which includes central issues and underlying assumptions. Students must then consider the evidence or authority and draw conclusions. For one striking example, material is presented on African archaeology. The central theme or issue of the article is that there was a highly developed civilization in Africa south of the Sahara during the time of Columbus. The underlying assumptions of the article are that those people had contacts with the Far East and prospered and then had contacts with Europeans and turned backwards in their development. The student's conclusions might well relate to present American foreign policies. The consideration of evidence is, in its own right, an extremely valuable project. The presentation of the character of Martin Luther by two writers using the same information and reaching opposite conclusions through different uses of propaganda techniques would be an excellent individual or group project, or some students could write their own characterizations of some historical character, and the class could discuss whether there is bias and whether facts would warrant a generalization.

D. Development of Critical Abilities Concerning the Esthetic

Students in the Humanities program would have opportunities for developing their critical abilities concerning
esthetic or abstract aspects of items. There are items of content within the time zone on art and architecture, and a number of artists, sculptors, and writers are considered individually, such as Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo, and Sir Thomas More. But reading about art and even about some specific artist and his work is only a beginning. The work itself must be studied. Thus the need for audio-visual aids in the Humanities program is stressed. Reproductions of famous paintings, recordings of music, photographs of special items, and certain selections from the literature of the time are listed in Chapter III for each time zone. Examples within the time zone herein considered include recordings of Gregorian chants to give the student a feeling for the music of the times and to develop his own musical awareness and appreciation; reproductions of such paintings as da Vinci's "Mona Lisa" and Botticelli's "Birth of Venus" as representing European art, and one of Sesshu's landscapes to represent Oriental art; a picture of the Suleimaniye Mosque in Constantinople; and readings of selections by Thomas a Kempis, Machiavelli, and Villon. Each of the items listed reflects the thinking of the times in a certain location and within a certain medium, and yet each item has impact for the student living in the twentieth century in a country far removed from the places in which the items were made. Each item is a thing of beauty, without regard to time, whether that beauty be of sound, of building, or of thought
captured in words. The logical practicality expressed by Machiavelli is thought beautifully captured in words, and yet it is entirely different from the mystical beauty captured by Thomas a Kempis in his writing, and both differ from Villon's thinking; yet all are thoughts almost perfectly worded. It should be noted here that the Gregorian chants mentioned above were already played as material for special consideration in the preceding time zone. The repetition of that music in the presently discussed time zone is done for two reasons. First, the music continued from one time zone into the next and so is properly associated with both zones, and, second, the repetition of such unfamiliar music would be of value to the student in understanding it and realizing that such music served as a foundation for the music to be presented in the next time zone. Students might wish to prepare individual reports on some of the paintings, in which case the report would occupy some fifteen minutes. Without such reports, the teacher might merely show the audio-visual material and make a brief comment on each, although class discussion is always in order. The reading material would be for class discussion, and individual reports might be on the author or some piece of his work other than that being discussed. An example of a test question would be to allow and encourage class discussion of the "Mona Lisa," then present da Vinci's "Last Supper" as a test for critical abilities.
E. Development of Ability to Make New Approaches

The discussion of one painting and criticism of another one as described in Section D above is not only a development in critical abilities, but it is also the development of the ability to make new approaches in the field of art. There are, however, more areas than art which are subject to understanding through a new approach. Included in the content of this time zone is information about the education and educational progress of the time. This material might be considered in the light of the times and then viewed in the light of our own times. A new approach to teaching might be realized by a student using such logic. It is within the realm of probability that a consideration of the education of the earlier time zone would help the student in thinking more clearly about issues in modern schools, and a new approach provided for understanding students in the fifteenth century could stimulate the student to invent a new approach for working with a modern group. Even the reading of the story of Joan of Arc, which in itself does not involve a study of approaches, is something which has proved to stimulate the development of new approaches. At least two authors sought to capture her spirit in literary works and so furthered their own literary development, and the concept of a single person moving an army might lead to new approaches to a student's personal problems. The whole examination of tradition in one field might lead to a
questioning of tradition in another and more current field, if the student is encouraged to examine tradition critically. Here, again, the role of the teacher in presenting ideas initially, then encouraging discussion by individuals and of groups, is of great importance. Tolerance may be a new approach gained by some from an awareness of fact as distinguished from fiction regarding other people's religion. The articles on the Papacy and the Swiss Reformation might provide a factual basis for more religious toleration in that those two articles show that both Protestant and Catholic leaders had their faults and their greatnesses.

II. Plan of the Program

A. Concepts of Learning Theory

B. Principles of Growth and Development

Both concepts of learning theory and principles of human growth and development have influenced the design of the Humanities program. Since these criteria overlap in many instances, they will be considered together here. While a brief summary of each concept of learning theory and each principle of growth and development will be made herein, reference will also be made to the more complete statement of that criterion as made in Chapter IX. The reference code used herein will be a letter G or L, followed by a number. G will stand for a principle of growth and development, L will refer to a concept of learning theory, and the
number will refer to the number used in listing the particular concept or principle in Chapter II, Sections II A and II B.

Since a growing organism has small beginnings which are still whole beginnings, 0-1, an awareness of a civilization which is growing should be based on a knowledge of whole parts of the civilization. To look at an isolated facet of a civilization and seek to understand it is as difficult as understanding a part of a person without relating that part to the person's whole body. Therefore civilization is presented herein as an evolving development of a geographic whole, and content on Africa and the Americas is considered with material on Europe and the East. Further, the whole pictures of art, architecture, science, and exploration, in this zone, are presented before considering a single person or event within those fields.

Since human action is integrative, 0-2, and since a learning situation is described by the learner in terms of mutual relationships, L-2, it follows that human action should be considered as being integrative in order to learn about it with any degree of understanding. Reasoning already presented in the discussion of relationships, I B of this chapter, is also relevant to this point.

Since generalizing enters into problem solving, 0-5, and learning situations require generalizations between similarities, L-8, content is presented with as generalized a description as would be consistent with the consideration
of factual material. The content related to the War of the Roses and the Hundred Years' War is highly generalized. The very title of the time zone as "The Age of Columbus" is a generalization.

Man seeks goals, G-6, and learning lies in preparing for the future in the light of past experience, L-6. Presentation of materials designated as cultural highlights might be considered a presentation of milestones in cultural awareness, of goals of understanding. The student who has achieved a degree of understanding for each work of art and for each item of content has attained a goal in that he has become aware of something and so broadened his interests and abilities as listed in Section I. Having attained these goals, the student is ready for new understanding. Cultural highlights for this time zone have been listed in Chapter III.

Since personality develops with learning, G-7, and learning situations are a complex of stimuli and responses, L-1, it follows that individual interests should be stimulated through a variety of material, and the individual encouraged to respond in a personal way. The variety of materials included in the content of this time zone has already been mentioned in I A, and the methods of encouraging individual interests through individual reports and through allowing fullness of discussion have also been referred to.
Since the individual learns to adjust to his society by learning acceptable patterns of behavior, there would be value for the student in learning of behavior patterns of individuals. The great effects of individuals on their surroundings and the ways in which individuals responded to their surroundings are material which form a part of each time zone. Savanarola, Joan of Arc, Queen Isabella, Suleiman, and many other individuals are included in this time zone as personalities responsible for events and developments which the student will evaluate in the course of the Humanities program.

Habits of thinking develop with the encountering of learning situations in varied settings. The presentation of material in various geographic areas, varied time zones, and centering on single and interwoven fields of learning would encourage the habit of thinking in a student, since stock answers and comments would not be appropriate for the discussion the Humanities class would engage in. The teacher has the duty of keeping the student from using such answers and refusing to think. A teacher by use of leading questions may encourage a student to begin to think for himself. It is the duty of the teacher to challenge vague statements so that the student may focus his thinking. It must be here noted that the teacher's attitude toward the student must be an encouraging one rather than one which would seek to tear down and devalue the student and the material being studied.
Thus the teacher may encourage student creativity, G-10.

Motivation initiates behavior, L-3. There is already some motivation on the part of the student who begins the Humanities program. He may utilize the motivation he already has for some specialized course, and an interest in any specialty may be some motivation for learning about a general study which includes elements of that specialty within its scope. There is the further motivation which comes from the basic drive for organization and arrangement as discussed in Chapter II, Section II B. The teacher may present goals to encourage motivation. Some of these goals may be embodied in the understanding of the items presented as cultural highlights, and a looking forward to an understanding of such highlights can be stimulated by the teacher's emphasizing the merit of the work discussed. It is an important part of methodology to show a considered respect for material studied, and an excess of admiration or a scorn for the material under discussion will hinder the student's motivation. The desire for arrangement above mentioned may be met by the teacher's drawing material together and emphasizing the relationship of one part to another. The division of the Humanities program into ten zones, and the breaking down into content divisions within each zone is an arrangement designed with that desire in view.
C. Horizontal and Sequential Continuity

The Humanities program refers to existence through geographic and historic integrations. The time concept is presented by the division of material into ten time zones. Each zone then includes the major geographic areas. Within the time zone herein discussed, the geographic areas of Africa, the Americas, Europe, and the Far East are considered, and the horizontal integration extends to relate varied fields of learning of that time. These fields of learning have already been enumerated in I A above and range from sports to religion, science to exploration. With the Humanities program divided into ten time zones, the student need memorize only ten dates, one key date for each zone. Items within the zone are so grouped that the learning of even those dates should be a natural outgrowth of interest on the student’s part. Within this time zone, the single key date is 1492. That date is one already known to most students as the year marking Columbus’ discovery of the New World. It thus is a date with three advantages. It is one already known, it represents a specific achievement, and, with slight uses of the student’s imagination, may be used to characterize the entire time zone, since the major events of that time zone were an exploration into physical and mental realms before unknown.
D. Methodology

The basic method for teaching the Humanities program involves some lecturing by the teacher by way of introduction and summary. Audio-visual aids, individual reports, and class discussion comprise the majority of the program. The class is a forum for the students. The teacher's lecture may be based on the historical compendium provided, and items for special discussion and reports have already been enumerated in Chapter III. The teacher should encourage students with special interests to make reports involving those interests, while other students would report on some of the audio-visual items listed. Every student must make a reasonable number of reports during the semester, though it may not be feasible for each student to make even a short report for each time zone. It is far better to cover a few paintings and special items thoroughly than to have too many reports. The teacher must therefore be able to utilize each report for maximum class discussion and benefit. Techniques of methodology have already been mentioned in a number of the preceding sections of this chapter; examples of those techniques have been mentioned in connection with items of content within this time zone and will be considered as expansions of the basic plan or method presented in this paragraph.

The methodology presented in this study should be considered as suggestions rather than anything dogmatic.
Approaches such as panels, field trips, and laboratory work should be considered as special circumstances may warrant. The examples for discussion listed under Part I, b, c, d, and e of this chapter should suggest new approaches as well as illustrate the approach mentioned. The final decisions as to methodology should be made by the individual teacher, giving consideration to the particular classroom and community situation.

III. Content

A. Inclusion of Essentials

Every area of content involves certain unique items. These essential items may be personalities, events, or single achievements. These items should be presented in their historical context, and yet there must be a clearing away of details so that the student may glimpse the highlight and its environs. Within this time zone, excess detail has been cleared away so that each item of content is either a real highlight in man's development or is a part of the overall picture necessary for the student to grasp relationships and underlying themes. As an example within this time zone, a section on literature presents various literary figures and concepts of the time, and there are then sections devoted to Sir Thomas More and Thomas a Kempis. Essentials in art and in science are similarly dealt with through generalized sections followed by sections on such giants as Michelangelo and Gutenberg.
B. Presentation of Material on a Junior College Level

The Humanities program is designed to provide a framework for the student and is to be utilized for his further work in college. Therefore, all content is presented in such a way as to be read and understood by a student having completed his high school education. Material which would require a knowledge gained from advanced college work is not presented. As an example, references to calculus do not appear in explanations of scientific phenomena, and statements about a person or an event are made in such a way as to introduce the information to the student for the first time. The high school graduate may never have heard of Leonardo da Vinci, but he will be introduced to him through the general content section and the specific section on Leonardo. From that introduction the student will be led into deeper realms of thought, including some understanding of some of Leonardo's work and the world he lived in.

IV. Practical Considerations

A. Feasibility

The Humanities program must be capable of being taught with ordinary audio-visual equipment. Material for special study listed in Chapter III requires no special equipment except a phonograph or tape recorder, a slide projector or opaque projector, and a moderately stocked library. The teacher may then construct all of his audio-visual aids.
very inexpensively if they are not already available. An art masterpiece may be shown to the class by placing a magazine reproduction in the opaque projector, or slides may be purchased from many of the art museums or rented from commercial visual aids organizations. Photographs of other material may be similarly acquired and presented. If the school does not have a record collection, it might be possible to make tapes of various musical selections, utilizing borrowed or rented material to make the tapes. Even if the school library lacks sufficient copies of a book for all the students to read a certain passage for discussion, the passages chosen are relatively short and could be mimeographed.

B. Teacher Planning

One teacher should be in charge of the Humanities program. The historical compendium presented with this study would serve as a guide for a teacher with a general background and no special training, and the syllabus presented in Chapter III would enable that teacher to plan discussions. Methodology has already been discussed as an aid to the teacher.

C. Continuity of Program

The Humanities program should be so defined as to be essentially the same course in different semesters with different teachers. The presentation of the historical compendium as a teacher's guide and the syllabus in Chapter III provide such a delineation of the program while still giving consideration
to the differences of each class and to the teacher's own individuality.
CHAPTER V

CONTENT WITHIN A TIME ZONE

The content included within this chapter is from the second time zone of the historical compendium which is presented as a text or teacher's guide for the Humanities program and is bound as a separate volume.

The Age of Columbus: 1400-1540

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The Meaning of the Word "Renaissance"

"The word Renaissance, 'rebirth,' applied to the time is often misunderstood. For many, it means that there occurred a rebirth of interest in the intellectual life and in art and education after presumably a prolonged period of neglect in the Middle Ages, the 'Dark Ages' as they were called.

"What really happened was a renaissance or a rebirth of interest in Greek literature and art, with the stimulus to mental development which intimate contact with Greek sources has always given. Sir Henry Maine's expression, 'Whatever lives and moves in the intellectual world is Greek in origin,' is far from being absolutely true, but is eminently suggestive of Greek values. The fifteenth century, conceited by its cultivation of Greek, proceeded to despise the forefather generation that lacked similar advantages. In their interest in the revival of Greek architectural forms, erudites of the Renaissance called the pointed architecture of the Middle Ages Gothic -- as if it were worthy only of the barbarous invaders, the Goths, who had wiped out the older culture. The literature and art of the preceding time which we have learned to value highly was in similar strain spoken of as Gothic and was considered almost beneath notice. It has taken centuries to counteract the tradition thus created. Only
in our day has due sympathy for the preceding ages developed. This lack of proper critical appreciation of the work of their predecessors is probably the worst fault of the Renaissance. It has led to a reaction which has reacted on the Renaissance itself. In its admiration for Greek things generally, the Renaissance took up the Olympian religion and, without accepting it, at least allowed interest in it to sap reverence for Christianity. Goethe's corresponding state of mind in the latest renaissance of Greek in Germany illustrates what happened. There was a distinct pagan spirit abroad, and while, of course, expressions used in the fashionable Latin letters are only conceits of antiquarian elegance, there was undoubtedly a widespread lessening of reverence for Christian forms. This is not so noticeable among the really great minds of the Renaissance" (87, p. 189).

"In Burckhardt's hands, the conception of an age of the Renaissance received a new content, a novel application and valid historical meaning. He explained the growth of the new individualism by the political and social developments of Italy in the later Middle Ages, while the rebirth of classical learning was an invigorating, but only subsidiary, element in the evolution of the new philosophy of life" (11, pp. 8-9). "Burckhardt spoke of the Italian Renaissance as the first modern age--not a mere stepping-stone to the Enlightenment, but one of the high points in the historical development of humanity, to be studied for its own sake.
Only by choosing a cross-section of history and making the birth of a historic civilization the subject of his study could he hope to elucidate what seemed to him the fundamental human problem in history. Burckhardt had an abiding faith in the creative power of man" (11, pp. 9-11).

**Leonardo’s Art and Inventions**

Leonardo da Vinci (1452-1519) was not only one of the most remarkable artists of all time but was a figure whose varied genius seemed to reflect almost every facet of the Renaissance and to excel in many of those facets. At the age of twenty he became a member of the Painters’ Guild of Florence. By 1482 he was commissioned by Lorenzo de Medici to present a rare gift to Lodovico il Moro, the gift consisting of a musical instrument which Leonardo had invented and for which he had composed the music. In Milan, he seems to have become the personal representative of the duke, Lodovico il Moro, and acted as both city engineer and military engineer. He planned and constructed the Martesana Canal, built a number of public buildings, helped design the Milan Cathedral, and wrote a book on painting. About that time he painted a number of Madonnas, including the "Madonna and Saint Catherine" (96, pp. 98-99).

He became military engineer for Cesare Borgia in 1502 and probably spent the next four years simultaneously moving about Italy on military campaigns and working on his most
famous portrait, "Mona Lisa." Da Vinci was then appointed painter to King Louis XII of France. He maintained studios for painting and carried on engineering projects and studies in natural sciences in Florence and Milan and produced the two copies of the "Madonna of the Grotto." He had painted his famous "Last Supper" in 1497 (59, p. 223). In that painting the figures are tied together in compact groups of three, "and each group is linked up with the next by a carefully designed connecting gesture," (49, p. 57).

Leonardo's portraits and figures were drawn in a manner very true to life. It may be that Leonardo's interest in anatomy helped him solve many problems of depicting the human body, problems which his predecessors had been unable to solve. He reached new heights in showing coloring and light contrasts and created a whole school of painting which emphasized the mystical and poetic qualities of the human face. The landscape in the background of the "Mona Lisa" emphasizes the mystical quality of the woman's smile. Among those directly influenced by Leonardo were Raphael, Fra Bartolommeo, and Andrea del Sarto (96, pp. 99-100).

Leonardo was a man "equally interested in a unicorn and a foetus, a cannon foundry and a wildflower, a human face and a fold of drapery" (57, p. 96). He made a series of inventions from the wheelbarrow and the self-dumping derrick to locks for canals and the coffer dam. He made a number of experiments with flying toys and left drawings of an autogyro.
which, based on evidence obtained five hundred years later, would have flown if he had had a motor to use in turning the blades. His notes are still sources of ideas for both artists and scientists. Within his notes were found sketches and an outline for a poetic novel. Since this novel was never actually written, there will always be room for speculation as to whether Leonardo would have ranked as an author of equal stature with his position as an artist, city manager, diplomat, military engineer, cryptographer and inventor (87, p.188).

**Other Sculptors**

Other noted sculptors were Ghiberti, Donatello, Verocchio, Luca della Robbia, Adam Kraft, the Vischers, and the great architects, Alberti and Bruneleschi, with Bramante's early work. In all of these departments of aesthetics there are a number of other successful workers besides those named who in any period would be leaders, though in this environment they are only secondary. "More interesting monuments of painting, sculpture and architecture have been the subject of constant admiration ever since than from any other century. It was an era not only of art, and of the arts and crafts, but also of great practical discoveries; casting in bronze and porcelain sculpture and art work were both highly developed" (87, p.188).
Art and Architecture

"The still living spirit of the Renaissance made the century a period of great art. Leonardo da Vinci and Raphael died not far apart (1519-1520). The great Venetian painters, the Bellinis, Titian, flourished, and such men as Correggio and Botticelli, not to mention a whole host of lesser lights, lived from the preceding century and did some of their best painting which has always been an inspiration. Architecture decayed to some extent, but it was in this century that Michelangelo built the great dome of Saint Peter's at Rome, and some of the finest Italian palaces were planned and constructed. Sculpture under the group of men from Michelangelo and Benvenuto Cellini to John Bologna, achieved masterpieces that were to be forever famous.

"Italy was not alone in this great development of the arts, for such men as Jean Goujon and Germain Pilon were distinguished as sculptors in France, and the chateaux of the Loire are enduring monuments of French architecture; great beginnings in French paintings were made. German painting had Durer and the Holbeins and sculpture the Visschers and Adam Kraft. In Spain, as well as in the Netherlands, there came a fine initiative for the supreme period of their painting which was to follow in the next century."
"The art of the 16th century is, however, its greatest chapter. It contains all the work of Raphael, the greater part of that of Michelangelo, not a little of Leonardo da Vinci, most of Titian, not to mention a number of men who in any other period would be looked upon as of the very first rank. Raphael has been called the greatest painter of all time and while modern art criticism has discounted that flattery, scarcely anyone would be ranked above him. When he died at the age of 37 he had reached distinction as an architect and archaeologist as well as a painter. Narrow specialism was extremely rare in the Renaissance and many men did many things well. Titian is one of Raphael's great rivals; some of his Madonnas are among the most beautiful in the world. Delacroix declared that he came closest to the spirit of antiquity. Another great painter of the time whose work is growing in appreciation in our time is Correggio. Leigh Hunt declared him the most skilful artist since the ancient Greeks in the art of foreshortening. He was master of every technical device in painting and this was a time of fine technique. It is easy to trace art decadence in the century but not difficult to understand it, once it is appreciated that at the beginning Botticelli was doing his famous tondi or rondo, Leonardo da Vinci was painting the 'Mona Lisa' and Fra Bartolomeo had just come under the influence of the Venetians and the spell of their rich color. It would have
been almost impossible to expect that painting could be maintained on any such high level as all this indicates" (88, p. 54).

"The period is famous for its devotion to the arts and crafts. The furniture is noted for its charm of design and fine execution and was often designed by the great artists. Objects for church use were made the most beautiful works of art. A thurible or censor made by a pupil of Leonardo da Vinci sold at auction recently for some $60,000 because it was thought to be the most beautiful piece of bronze work of its kind in the world. Candelabra for church and home use, cups, plaques and other articles were made with similar perfection. Artistry was the keynote in every department of life. When Aldus published (1501) his Virgil in italics, the designer of the type was Francia, the famous painter at Belogna who had designed all Aldus' previous fonts of type. The home beautiful was the special cult of the time. The ladies of the Renaissance planned charming private apartments, music-rooms, art galleries and reception-rooms which reflected their personalities and are most beautiful of their kind ever created. Some of them have been reproduced in modern museums in the hope of stimulating emulation. The apartments of Lucrezia Borgia at Ferrara were particularly famous. Landscape architects made the gardens surrounding these houses beautiful and artists were appealed to to plan details of all kinds so as to be sure that all
would be beautiful as well as useful.

"Painting outside of Italy flourished wonderfully and the names of Albrecht Durer and the Holbeins in Germany, of the Clouets, Cousin and Fouquet in France and of Navarette, of Juan Bourgona, of Louis de Vargas and Pablo de Cespedes in Spain, as well as Mabuse, Van Orley, Bondeol and Justus of Ghent in the Netherlands all live in honor among those interested in the history of art. In sculpture there is a distinct descent from the preceding century, except for some great work of Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo, but the sculptures of John of Bologna deeply influenced succeeding generations and are greatly admired in our time. In France, Goujon's reliefs for the Fountain of the Innocents are among the most beautiful works of their kind ever produced. Germain Pilon's group of the Three Graces is a monument to the refined tastes of the time, and to the genius of the sculptor, even though it may show signs of the beginning of decadence. In Germany the great group of figures for the monument of the Emperor Maximilian at Innsbruck, executed early in the 16th century, shows how high were the standards of plastic art everywhere at this time. Saint Sebald's tomb, executed by the Vischers, father and son, at Nuremburg remains one of the unapproached marvels of a great period. There were many foci of fine artistry in southern Germany during the period" (88, p. 64).
Michelangelo

"The century witnessed the career of the man often declared to have been the finest intellectual and artistic genius who ever lived. Michelangelo Buonarotti. He is the most distinguished of sculptors since the Greeks. Some of his painting rivals that of the very greatest painters. His decoration of the Sistine Chapel made him forever famous and has been the subject of reverend study ever since. As an architect he is undoubtedly one of the world's supreme geniuses in construction. Without steel or steam or any mechanical aid except a mule and an inclined plane, he built the great dome of Saint Peter's, one of the architectural wonders of the world. Meant to be seen as the first object visible in Rome to the travelers who, in the old days, came over the mountains in carriages or on horseback 20 miles away, it looks more like a work of the Creator than of the creature. This greatest of sculptors, painters, architects, has written sonnets that have only been equaled by Dante and Shakespeare and have never been surpassed. In every mode of aesthetic expression, he was a master in the highest sense of the word. After having worked hard all his life, he lived to be nearly 90 in the full possession of his faculties. His personal character is equal to his genius. He was a deeply religious man who all his life had been well known for his
thoughtfulness for others. He left a sum of money in his will, the income of which was to be 'given for the love of God to the modest poor.' One of his sonnets is a prayer that he may not let himself become so occupied with the mere trifles of life as to forget that it is a preparation for another. Vittoria Colonna declared that those who admire Michelangelo's works admire but the smallest part of him. The artist is often a disappointment after his works; Michelangelo's personality had just the opposite effect. At the end he declared that 'life, which had been given us without our asking, had wonderful possibilities of good in it, and death which came unsummoned from the same Providential hand could surely not prove less full of blessing' (88, p. 54).

**Louis XI**

"The national spirit that had been aroused in France under the stimulus of Joan of Arc's inspiration served to unify the country, but the consolidation of modern France in this century is mainly due to the machinations of Louis XI. Louis is one of the most despicable characters in history. He succeeded however in bringing low the power of the nobles and consolidating France during his troubled reign with its devious political ways and his many broken pledges, in the midst of internal dissensions, until he created the beginning of the modern France that we know."
Louis succeeded in incorporating Burgundy and Picardy with the territory of Boulogne into the royal domain, and obtained, moreover, the cession of Artois and France-Comte as the dowry of the daughter of Maximilian, while he extended his rule over Armagnac and Roussillon, so that the troublous times of the preceding reigns with the nobles against the king could be no more. As Commines said on the death of the Duke of Burgundy, Charles the Bold, who for so long successfully opposed the king: 'Never afterwards did the King of France find a man bold enough to raise his head against him or to contradict his will'" (87, p.192).

**Literature**

"The French literature of the 15th century contains some writers destined to world influence, at least among literary men, ever since. The most prominent of these is undoubtedly Francois Villon (1431-84), the vagabond poet, who has had a striking revival in our time. Another is the royal poet, Charles d'Orleans (1391-1467) whose ballade for his dead wife has been a favorite poem for poets at least, for some five centuries. Villon owed his life when forfeited to the state for theft to Charles, but the poetry of the ne'er-do-well far surpassed in interest for the modern time that of his royal contemporary and benefactor. A third poet was Alain Chartier (died 1449), better
known however as an orator 'the father of French eloquence.' French prose is very well represented by Commines (1445–1517), often spoken of as a chronicler, but really one of the first of modern historians. One would think of trying to understand the period with regard to which he wrote without reading his work" (87, p. 192).

"Only England was not touched by the spirit of the time, though the response in literature in the magnificent Elizabethan period must be credited to make up for it. While it is not generally realized, the Renaissance evoked a great literature as well as a great art in all the countries of Europe. The development of this was somewhat delayed, and occurs in the 16th much more than the 15th century. It included Ariosto, Machiavelli, Lorenzo de Medici in Italy; Marguerite of Navarre and the Pleiades, in France. The culmination of Renaissance literature came in the Elizabethan period in England. Michelangelo, poet as well as artist, died just two months before Shakespeare was born, and the two men are complements of each other at the extremes of cultural Europe. The Teutonic countries presented a great development of scholarship though not of original literature" (88, p. 541).
America: Pre-Columbian Discoveries

In 790, Irish monks, searching for religious retreats and for new fields of missionary enterprise, reached Iceland, after discovering the Faroe Islands in the 7th century.

In 874, the Norsemen (Normans, Vikings) arrived in Iceland and settled.

In 981, Leif Ericsson, returning from Norway to Greenland, was driven onto the American coast, which he called Wineland (Vinland), from the grapes he found there. Wineland was probably Nova Scotia.

In 1003-1006, Thorfinn Karlsefni set out from Greenland with three ships to settle Wineland. He and his party spent three winters on the American continent. There is no general agreement regarding the localities visited by him, which have been placed by different authorities as far apart as Labrador and Florida. One recent writer puts the Helluland (Flatstone Land) of the Greenlandic-Icelandic sagas in northern Labrador; Furdustrand (Wonder Strand) on the north side of the Gulf of St. Lawrence; Straumfjord (Stream Fjord), where the first and third winters were spent, on Chaleur Bay (New Brunswick); and Hop (Lagoon) on the New England coast, either north or south of Cape Cod. Another recent writer is convinced that Karlsefni visited only the Labrador coast and both sides of the northern peninsula of Newfoundland,
straumfjord being, perhaps, in the vicinity of hare bay. wineland was first mentioned in hamburg church history of adam of bremen, but most of our knowledge derives from the norse sagas written down in the 14th century. supposed norse remains on the american continent (dighton rock, old stone millrun, newport) have all been rejected by scholars as spurious, with the exception of the kensington stone, found near kensington, minnesota, in 1898, under the roots of a tree 70 years old. the stone contains a long runic inscription recording the presence there of a group of norsemen in 1362. the stone and the inscription are clearly not forgeries, and a majority of geographers as well as many historians are disposed to accept the authenticity of the record. the philologists are less favorable, because of irregularities in the language that are hard to explain. within recent years a norse grave, with sword, shield, and two axes, is reported to have been found in ontario.

"how long the norsemen continued to visit america is obviously an open question. the last definite mention, apart from the kensington stone evidence, is for 1189 a.d., but there is some reason to believe that they came at least as far as southern labrador for ship's timber as late as 1347. after that date the greenland colonies declined, though the west colony (in southeast greenland) continued to exist until at least the mid-15th century and ships
appear to have gone there periodically, probably trading in walrus hides and tusks" (39, p. 371).

"A great many theories have been advanced in recent years, notably by the Portuguese, but also by others, to show that the Portuguese knew of the existence of America before Columbus sailed. Most of the theories rest upon conjecture and clever deductions. All we can say is that, after the translation of Ptolemy's Geography into Latin (1410), the idea of the sphericity of the earth (never entirely lost during the Middle Ages, cf. Roger Bacon's *Opus Majus* of the late 13th century) spread rapidly in scientific circles and revived the idea of reaching Asia by sailing westward. Prince Henry the Navigator, for all his interest in the African route, sent expeditions to the west. In 1427-1431 Diogo de Seville discovered seven of the Azores, which may have been known to the Italians as early as 1351. Flores and Colvo were discovered in 1451-1452. The map of Andrea Bianco (1448) shows land of the proper conformation where Brazil lies. It is clear that after 1450 many Portuguese expeditions set out in search of legendary islands (St. Brandan's, Brazil, Antilia, Island of the Seven Cities, etc.) and, according to some scholars, the Lisbon government enforced a policy of rigorous secrecy with regard to new findings. Nevertheless, no present evidence of Portuguese knowledge of American before 1492 can be regarded as conclusive" (39, p. 372).

Having followed the African coast, Dias was driven by a great storm (Dec.-Feb.) south of the tip of Africa. He turned east and soon discovered hills running to the northeast, showing him that he had rounded the Cape of Good Hope. He followed the east coast of Africa as far as Mossel Bay and the Great Fish River and then was obliged by his crew to return.

The Voyages of Columbus

"The extreme length to which Africa extended made the journey long and rounding the cape was dangerous, and so with the idea that the earth was only half the size it really is, Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, proposed to travel westward. After his scheme had been rejected as visionary by a number of governments, Columbus finally obtained the help of Isabella and rediscovered the Western Hemisphere 1492. He thought he had reached some part of the Indies, hence the name West Indies and the term Indians. Up to his death he probably never knew that he had found a New World. Amerigo Vespucci a few years later reached the Continent and described it in a widely read book and the Western Hemisphere was named America for him. In 1498 the Portuguese reached India proper by the African route and founded the Indian Empire. This led to dislocation of the eastern trade from Venice.
to Portugal” (88, p.195).

In 1451, bet. Aug. 26 and Oct. 31, Cristoforo Colonbo (Span. Cristobal Colon) was born near Genoa, the son of Domenico Colombo, a weaver. Almost nothing definite is known of his youth (general unreliability of the biography by his son Fernando). He was probably himself a weaver and probably went to sea only in 1472, when he made a trip to Scio. He seems to have come to Portugal in 1476 and to have made a voyage to England in 1477 (the story of his visit to Iceland is rejected by almost all authorities). In 1478 he appears to have made a voyage to the Madeiras and in 1482 possibly to the Guinea coast. In 1480 he married the daughter of Bartholomew Perestrello, hereditary captain of Porto Santo, near Madeira. By this time Columbus must have learned much about Portuguese discoveries and certainly about the ideas current in Lisbon. His appeal to the great Florentine geographer, Paolo Toscanelli, and the latter’s reply (1474) urging a voyage to the west, have been called in question by some writers and may be spurious. In any event the idea of seeking India or China in the west was not novel.

In 1483 or 1484, Columbus appealed to King John II of Portugal to finance a voyage to the west, but whether to seek new islands or a route to Asia is not clear. At this very time the king was authorizing self-financed expeditions to the west of the Azores (1486, Ferman Dulmo) and he might
have licensed Columbus had the latter been willing to finance himself. Others maintain that the Portuguese already know that Asia could not be reached in this way. Apparently Columbus, whose geographical knowledge appears to have been very incomplete, was regarded as a vain boaster. His project was rejected.

In 1486, Columbus, through the mediation of some Franciscan monks, was able to submit his project to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. His religious fervor and personal magnetism impressed the queen, but the project was again rejected by experts. In the following year Columbus met the three Pinzon brothers, wealthy traders and expert navigators, from whom he doubtless learned much.

In 1492, after being recalled to court, Columbus finally induced the queen to finance his expedition. It is not yet clear whether he set out to discover new islands and territories, or whether his object was to find a route to the Indies. He was made Admiral and governor of the territories to be discovered, but also carried letters to the Great Khan, which makes it probable that his purpose was twofold.

1492, Aug. 3—1493, Mar. 15, The First Voyage: Columbus left Palos with three ships, of which Martin Penson commanded one, and the famous pilot Juan la Cosa another. He left the Canaries (Sept. 6) and reached land in the Bahamas (probably Watling's Island) (Oct. 12), naming it San Salvador. He
then discovered Cuba, which he thought was the territory of the Great Khan, and Santo Domingo (Espanola). A post, Navidad, was established on Santo Domingo, after which Columbus returned (1493, Jan. 4), touching at the Azores (Feb. 15), landing at Lisbon (Mar. 4) and finally reaching Palos (Mar. 15). He announced that he had discovered the Indies, news of which spread over Europe with great rapidity and caused much excitement.

"In 1493, May 4. The Line of Demarcation. At the instance of the Spanish rulers, who feared counterclaims by Portugal, Pope Alexander VI granted to the Catholic kings exclusive right to the possession of all lands to the south and west toward India, not held by a Christian prince on Christmas Day, 1492, beyond a line drawn one hundred leagues west of the Azores and Cape Verde Islands" (39, p. 372).

"In 1493, Sept. 25--1496, June 11, Second Voyage of Columbus. He left with 17 caravels and 1500 men to establish Spanish power. On this voyage he discovered Dominica, Puerto Rico and other of the Antilles and Jamaica, explored the southern coast of Cuba and circumnavigated Espanola, where he founded the town of Isabella. He left his brother Bartholomew in charge, who in 1496 transferred the settlement to the southern coast (Santo Domingo)" (39, p. 373).
1498, May 30—1500, Nov. 25. Third Voyage of Columbus. Discovery of Trinidad Island (1498, July 31) and South America (Aug. 1) near the mouth of the Orinoco. He explored the coast westward as far as Margarita Island. He then went to Espanola, where a revolt broke out against him. He requested the crown to send out a judge. The government sent out to the Indies Francisco de Bobadilla (1499), who sent Columbus and his brother to Spain as prisoners. Columbus was released and treated with distinction, but, despite the earlier rights granted him, was never restored to his former authority or monopolistic grants. With Bobadilla direct royal control was established.

1502, May 11—1504, Nov. 7, Fourth Voyage of Columbus. He reached the coast of Honduras and passed south to Panama, returning after having suffered shipwreck at Jamaica.

1506, May 21. Columbus died in relative obscurity at Valladolid. It is reasonably clear that he believed to the end of his days that he had discovered outlying parts of Asia, despite the fact that ever since 1493 the conviction had spread among experts (e.g. Peter Martyr) that a New World had been discovered" (39, p. 372).

Post Columbian Discoveries

1497, May 2—Aug. 6, Voyage of John Cabot. Cabot was a wealthy Italian merchant (born in Genoa, resident in Venice)
who had traveled in the east (Black Sea, Alexandria, Mecca) and who settled in England about 1490. For several years he sent out expeditions from Bristol to seek the island of Brazil, in the hope of securing the valuable Brazil wood used in dying. Columbus' supposed discovery of Asia in the west spurred him on. The expedition reached land (June 24) evidently on Cape Breton Island, whence it then cruised along the southern coast to Newfoundland. Cabot was convinced that he had discovered the country of the Great Khan and intended to return, passing south along the coast to the region of Brazil wood and spices.

"1496, May. John and Sebastian Cabot sailed with six ships on a second voyage. They went north, coasted along the east coast of Greenland, thence passed to Labrador and went south by Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and the New England coast, as far as perhaps Delaware. Thence they returned to England. The date of their arrival is not known. Having found no spices, their efforts evidently no longer interested the king or country. John Cabot is not heard of after March, 1499" (39, p.373).

"1497, July 8--1499, Aug. 29 or Sept. 9, Voyage of Vasco Da Gama. This would have been undertaken sooner, excepting for internal troubles in Portugal and disputes with Castile arising from the discoveries of Columbus. Da Gama left with four ships to find the way to India, the feasibility of the voyage being perfectly clear after
the discoveries of Covilha and Dias. He rounded the cape in Nov. 1497, reached Quilimane (Jan. 1498). Mozambique (Mar.), and then Mombasa. Despite trouble with the jealous Arab traders he was finally able to get a pilot from Meland. He reached Calicut on the Malabar coast (May 22). He started for home in Aug. 1898, touched Melindi (Jan. 1899) and rounded the Cape (Mar.). The exact date of his arrival at Lisbon is disputed.

"1500, Mar. 9.—1501, June 23. Voyage of Cabral, who set out with 13 ships to establish Portuguese trade in the east: After touching Brazil he went on to India which he reached in Sept. The fleet loaded pepper and other spices and arrived safely in Lisbon. From this time on Portuguese trading fleets went regularly to India, and Lisbon soon became the chief entrepot in Europe for oriental products.

"In 1509-1515, Governorship of Alfonso de Albuquerque, who in 1507 had conquered Ormuz on the Persian Gulf. Albuquerque made Goa the capital of the Portuguese possessions (1510), and in 1511 took Malacca. He opened communication with Siam, the Moluccas and China" (39, p. 370).

"1501, May—1502, Sept. Second Voyage of Amerigo Vespucci, this time in the service of Portugal. The voyage took him south along the Brazilian coast to about 32° S. L. if not farther. It was from the published account of this voyage and from Vespucci's conviction that what had been found was a New World that the geographer Martin Waldseemuller
was led to propose that this New World be called America (1507). The name was at first applied only to South America and the use of it spread slowly until its general adoption toward the end of the 16th century" (29, p. 374).

"1519-1522. Circumnavigation of the Globe by Ferdinand Magellan (Fernao de Magalhaes, 1480-1521). Magellan was sent out by the Spanish crown to find a strait to the Moluccas. He reached the Brazilian coast near Pernambuco, explored the estuary of the Rio de la Plata and, after wintering at Port St. Julian, passed through the strait which bears his name and entered the South Sea, to which the name Mare Pacificum was given. After following the coast to about 50° S. L. he turned northwest and after months of sailing reached the Ladrones and Philippines. In the latter place he was killed in a skirmish with the natives. One of his vessels, under Sebastian del Cano, continued westward and reached Spain, thus completing the circumnavigation of the Globe" (39, p. 374).

The Papacy

"The Popes of the second half of the century, once the effects of the Great Schism passed, bulk large in history. Pope Nocholas V (1448-55) was a generous patron of the New Learning and founded the Vatican Library. Pope Calixtus III (1455-58), the first Borgia pope, continued this liberal policy as a man of cultivated mind and fine
taste. With Spanish zeal against the Mohammedans, he stirred up the rulers of Europe against the Turks. Menzel, the German historian, says 'that anything at all that was done against the Turks was wholly due to the exertions of the Pope.' He encouraged the coming of Greek scholars into Italy and such men as Theodore Gaza, George of Trebizond, Chalcondyles of Athens, Argyropulos and Gemistes Pletho of Constantinople brought with them literary treasures while their teachings stimulated an enthusiasm for Greek learning. Calixtus began the unfortunate policy of Papal nepotism by creating two nephews Cardinals on the same day and the third Duke of Spoleto and Governor of the Castle of Saint Angelo, thus initiating the prominence of the Borgia family in Italian politics. His successor was Aeneas Silvius Piccolomini the distinguished Renaissance scholar who took the name Pius II (1458-64). Born in poverty because of his father's exile, he was 18 before he began his studies but he became famous for the elegance of his Latinity, his poetry and—a strange combination—of deep knowledge of canon and civil law. In the midst of a most successful career as a diplomat, a serious illness led him to realize the emptiness of earthly ambitions and taught him as he said himself that 'the sum of all knowledge is to know how to die.' He became as distinguished for his piety as for his learning and having passed through the various degrees of the hierarchy, was elected Pope. He
made it the task of his life to rouse the Christian nations against the Turks but with little avail. He tried to bring about the conversion of the Mohammedan ruler to Christianity with like failure. The Christian Princes were divided by their own ambitions, the Sultan Mohammed was bent on his. The failure of his efforts hastened his death. His successor Pope Paul II (1464-71) feared the danger of religion of pagan learning unless properly regulated and endeavored to moderate the tide of enthusiasm. As a result he became the subject of bitter aspersion in the scholarly writings of the time. His successor, Pope Sixtus IV (1471-84), is a most difficult character to estimate. He enlarged the Vatican Library, appointing the scholarly Platina, in disgrace under his predecessor, its librarian. He built the Sistine Chapel and invited Perugino, Ghirlandaio and other great painters to decorate it. He adorned Rome with a number of magnificent public structures and was a munificent patron of literature and the painting press. He continued, however, the unfortunate nepotism which marked papal policies at this time, and used some most dishonorable means to further his political aims. His successor Innocent VIII (1484-92) had been married earlier in life and his son had married the daughter of Lorenzo de'Medici. As Pope, he entered into a close alliance with the de'Medici and made Lorenzo's son, Giovanni, a Cardinal when only 13. He debased papal power for political purposes, yet devoted
himself to allying the Christian princes and peoples in a new Crusade against the Turks but without success. He succeeded however in reconciling the rivalries of the great noble houses in Rome and putting an end to the feuds which had disturbed the city so that the Romans conferred on him the honorable title of 'Father of his country.' Innocent's successor was another Borgia, Pope Alexander VI (1492-1503), whose character is one of the most disputed in history. Roscoe, the English historian of Lorenzo de' Medici, began the protest against the traditional history of Alexander. His life was irregular before he ascended the papal throne. He had suffered for the faults of his children, whom he idolized. Historians are agreed now that he has been fearfully calumniated. The charges of poisoning and other horrible crimes imputed to him by the scandal mongers of the time have been completely disproved. As a Spaniard making his way in Italy, he was the subject of bitter ill-will and his repression of the feudal aristocracy at Rome and his political opposition to the French made him enemies who stopped at no mode of discrediting him. His daughter Lucrezia has been completely vindicated by Gregorovius and though her name was a by-word in history, her people of Ferrara followed her to the tomb as a saint and her husband, the Duke d' Este, was inconsolable" (87, p.193).
Savonarola

"The end of the century was the scene of the career of Girolamo Savonarola (1452-98) who about the time Columbus discovered America, alarmed by the pagan elements which had been stealing into social customs during the Renaissance, preached penance and reform to the Florentines. He stirred them so deeply that the women brought their finery and jewelry and the ornaments, personal and of the household, and piled them in the streets to be burned. The fervid preacher then suggested that Florence should become a Theocracy and Christ be proclaimed king. This invasion of politics brought about his downfall, and he was condemned to death, burned, and his ashes thrown into the Arno.

"Savonarola has often been proclaimed a pre-Reformation reformer, but he was a faithful Dominican, the prior of his monastery, and a devout adherent of the old Church. He recognized abuses and strove to correct them and never doubted for a moment that the mission of the Church to men had been impaired by these abuses. Even popes since have suggested the possibility of his canonization and his name has been thoroughly vindicated" (87, p.193).

Hus

"The early century was the scene of the rebellion of John Hus, the Bohemian reformer, who had taken up Wyclif's
doctrines and was condemned for them by the Council of Constance (1415). He was handed over to the civil authorities and put to death because it was felt that the teaching of his doctrines would be subversive of authority in both Church and State. Hus's doctrines had been examined by Jean Gerson, the Chancellor of the University of Paris, who warned against their heretical character. Hus's execution was followed the next year by that of Jerome of Prague, but this was only the beginning of very serious religious disturbances which waged in Bohemia for more than a generation. The most important question was whether the laity should partake of the chalice as well as of the Host of the Sacrament of communion, and it was not settled until 1485, when King Wladislaw granted equal liberties and rights to both parties. By degrees then, the Utraquists (from Latin, utraque, both, in reference to the Sacrament in both kinds) conformed to the Roman rites and in the next century resisted the Lutheran reform even better than the Subunists (under one kind)" (87, pp. 193-94).

**Martin Luther and the Protestant Reformation**

"The most disputed character of the century is Martin Luther. Lord Acton once declared his life the most difficult problem in historical writing. The movement initiated
by him separated the Teutonic peoples from the Pope and then made their monarchs the head of both Church and State (Cujus regio ejus religio). There had been unfortunate abuses within the Church and many felt that these could not be corrected without breaking away from Rome. A number of deeply religious people followed Luther out of the Church for this reason. Political motives and the confiscation of the property of the Church and of the religious orders helped the movement. Sweden affords a typical example of this. Most of this property had been held in trust for the poor and for education. In the religious conflict which followed, social organization for the benefit of the poor and education suffered severely. Fewer universities were founded, the attendance was smaller, intellectual life declined (Erasmus), there was less academic freedom (Pascal). Luther's doctrine of liberty of judgement and personal interpretation of the Scriptures soon led to a multiplication of sects, each bitterly opposed to the others. Calvin in Switzerland and Knox in Scotland are as difficult to estimate properly as Luther. They too gathered round them many of those in their environment most deeply interested in religion. Rev. Dr. Briggs suggested that there were other and greater reformers in the century than these popular heroes. He mentioned Sir Thomas Moore, Erasmus and John Von Staupitz as 'the three  irenic spirits . . .the beacons of the greater
reformation that was impending. Luther's movement began a reaction for sadly needed reform in the Church which was directed by the Council of Trent (1545-63). Henry VIII, after having received the title of Defender of the Faith for writing against Luther, broke with Rome over the affair of Anne Boleyn and became by act of Parliament the head of the Church as well as of the State. The Anglican Church as such did not come into existence until under the boy king, Edward VI (1547-53). Queen Mary (1553-58) restored Catholicism. Anglicanism was firmly established by Elizabeth (1558-1603).

"The Protestant Reformation undoubtedly brought about a great reawakening of personal religion and aroused the clergy to an ampler sense of their duties in leadership with regard to their flocks. Religion had come to be for a great many people a convention, lacking those personal elements of relationship between man and his Creator which foster the spiritual life. The Renaissance served to set the intellect of Europe rather definitely against religion, though the great leaders were exceptions to this and a profound reawakening of the spiritual life of the people was needed. The movement is too close to us even yet to be properly appreciated in its entire significance though the World War has helped to its understanding" (88, p. 56).
Henry VIII and the English Reformation

"1509-1547. Henry VIII. He was six times married:

"In 1511, Henry, a member of the Holy League, received from the pope the title of Most Christian King" (39, p. 375).

"In 1527, Henry, desiring to divorce his wife in order to marry Anne Boleyn, alleged the invalidity of marriage with a deceased brother's wife, and appealed to Rome. The delays of the pope and the scruples of Wolsey enraged the king, who in 1529 deprived the latter of the great seal and gave it to Sir Thomas Moore (1478-1535; published Utopia in Latin, 1516). Sentence and pardon of Wolsey, who, however, died in disgrace (1530). At the suggestion of Cranmer (1489-1556) the question was referred to the universities of England and Europe, and a number deciding
in the king's favor, Henry married Anne Boleyn. Henry also broke with the Church of Rome. Confiscation of the annates, followed by the resignation of Sir Thomas More (1532).

"The pope excommunicated Henry and annulled his divorce from Catharine, which Cranmer, now Archbishop of Canterbury, had pronounced. After the birth of Elizabeth, Parliament confirmed the divorce, recognized Elizabeth as heir to the throne (1534), and secured the succession to the other children of Anne in case of the death of the princess.

"In 1534, the Act of Supremacy, appointed the king and his successors Protector and only Supreme Head of the Church and Clergy of England. This may be taken as the decisive beginning of the English Reformation. The break with Rome had political and personal origins; at first there was no real differences on dogma and liturgy. Refusal to take the oath of supremacy was made high treason, under which vote Sir Thomas More was condemned and beheaded (1535).

"In 1536, Publication of Tindale's translation of the Bible was published by Coverdale, under authority from the king" (39, p. 376).

**Swiss Reformation**

"Swiss military prestige had reached its zenith in the latter part of the 15th century. Swiss mercenaries took an important part in the Italian expedition of Charles VIII
and continued to form a crucial part of the French and Italian armies" (39, p. 409).

The beginning of the Reformation in Switzerland was under the leadership of Ulrich Zwingli (b. 1484; educated at Basel and Bern; priest at Glarus, 1506; after taking part in the Italian campaigns, became priest at Einsiedeln, 1516; preached at Zurich, 1518). Zwingli denounced indulgences and other abuses in the Church and made a great impression in Zurich. In 1521 he denounced the hiring of mercenaries, and in 1522 condemned fasts and celibacy (he himself married in 1524). The town, following his teaching, abolished confession (1524) and closed the monasteries. Zwingli acted independently of Luther, from whom he was separated chiefly by difference of opinion on transubstantiation.

"In 1524, five cantons (Lucerne, Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden, and Zug) banded together against Zurich and the Reformation movement.

"In 1528, Bern and Basel accepted the Reformation, and were followed by three others. Freiburg and Solothurn remained Catholic and sided with the original five (rural) cantons.

"In 1531, there was a war of the Catholic cantons against Zurich. The Zurichers were defeated in the battle of Kappel (Oct. 11) and Zwingli was killed. Thus the division of the confederation was complete; the weakness
resulting therefrom made impossible all effective action in the ensuing century.

"In 1536, Geneva (allied with Bern) adopted the Reformation, largely through the efforts of William Farel. In the same year John Calvin (1509-1564) arrived in the city. His teaching made a deep impression, but also aroused much opposition. In 1538 he was banished and retired to Strassburg" (39, p.409).

**Geography**

"The physical science of the time came in geography. The Portuguese proved hardy navigators and under the inspiration of Prince Henry the Navigator (1394-1460) penetrated farther and farther into the mysterious seas to the south of them baring the secrets of the African coast. In 1448 the Azores were discovered. About the middle of the century, the Guinea coast was explored and some of the black men carried to Portugal as slaves, creating the negro problem as well as the slave trade. The explorations continued because it was hoped to find a trade route to the Indies. It was not until 1486 that Bartholomew Diaz reached the southern part of Africa which he called the Cape of Good Hope, because at last the road to India lay open" (87, p.195).
"Medicine received a new impulze at the end of the 15th century, and the two most important personages in it are Leonicenus and Linacre. Leonicenus was professor of medicine at Padua, Bologna, and Ferrara and noted for his knowledge of Latin as well as of medicine. He made a famous translation of the Aphorisms of Hippocrates. He was no mere translator and commentator however, but a practical scientist whose most important work was the correction of the botanical errors in Fliny's Natural History. Leonicenus also wrote on certain clinical problems of his day, notable lues. The problem of whether syphilis was introduced into Europe from America or not at the end of this century is considered by some as unsolved, but there are now many documents and traditions pointing to its European existence for centuries before, and the treatment of it by mercury had even been worked out. The technique of some of the surgeons of this century show that the old form of anaesthesia survived, and that a great many operations subsequently abandoned, to be revived at the end of the 19th century were being performed.

"The greatest benefit conferred upon medicine at this time was the printing in magnificent scholarly editions of some of the classics in medicine. This led to their
preservation, and though many of them were lost sight of and their significance unappreciated until the last generation, the printed editions were in many libraries waiting for modern students and ready to be reprinted. Above all, the Renaissance printers preserved for us the books of the great teachers of the late Middle Ages, of the surgeons of Salerno, of Theodoric and Bruno, of Guy de Chauliac, and of others which were circulating in manuscript and were liable to be lost. The Italian medical schools were waking up to the study not only of Greek medicine but also of clinical medicine by observation and the value of pathology for the real meaning of disease. Beniveini (died 1502), besides being an able surgeon wrote 'the only work on pathology which owes nothing to any one,' (Malgaigne). Medical students from many countries in Europe found their way to Italy; among them Linacre from distant England, and Copernicus, physician as well as astronomer, from Poland, so that the tradition of going to Italy for advanced medical studies became the condition so notable in the next century" (87, p. 195).

Gutenberg

"This century saw the invention of printing which has been declared the most important and the most perilous discovery in the annals of history. Printing blocks for the making of playing cards and of certain pious pictures
had been in use during the late Middle Ages. On these were cut some lines of text and from this to the making of whole pages in this way was but a step and a number of books were printed in this fashion in the first half of the 15th century. The next step was the invention of moveable letters and this was accomplished very probably by John Gutenberg (1400-1468) of Minz in Germany. The oldest printed book from moveable types was a Latin Bible issued by Gutenberg and Faust at Mainz about 1455. Before the close of the century, there were presses everywhere. Italy particularly took up the new art with the greatest enthusiasm and Venice alone had some two hundred printing presses before 1500. The most important chapter in the history of printing is the story of Aldus Manutius (1450-1515) who established the Aldine Press. He published some magnificent editions of the classical authors, securing as editors some of the great scholars of the time. The most beautiful printed books ever issued were produced during this first half century of printing. When William Morris in England in the last generation of the 19th century wanted to restore printing to the art that it had been, from the mere cheap handicraft that it had become, he went back to take as models for his work some of the beautiful printed editions of the later 15th century. It was a time too of beautiful bindings, so that books fitted admirably into the charming interiors that were being made at this time.
The first half of the century had seen the making of beautiful illuminated books so that the printers had fine models before them and it is not surprising to hear that when a great book collector of the time was asked to purchase printed books, he scornfully refused to add any 'machine made volumes' to the beautiful collection of hand-made books that had been his life's devotion. Books were extremely valuable and even printed books were very dear, so that in libraries to which any number of people were admitted, books were chained to the shelves, quite as in our time we lock up expensive editions" (87, p. 194).

Science

"As the Renaissance advanced, the Greek classics were read not only for their value as literature but also for their content in science. The result was a reawakening of interest in the physical sciences which was destined to produce important results. This study of Ptolemy aroused an interest in mathematics and astronomy, while the issue of Galen in the original reawakened attention to clinical medicine. Purbach at Vienna (1423-1461) and Johann Mueller (1436-1476) known as Regiomontanus after the fashion of Latinizing the names of scholars at that time, devoted themselves to the study of Ptolemy, and though both died in early middle life, their names have been deservedly remembered. The most important personality
in the scientific development of the time was Nicholas of Cusa, a fellow student at the University of Padua of Toscanelli who influenced Columbus so much. The attitude of the Church toward science at the time is well illustrated by the fact that Cusanus as he is called was made Bishop of Brixen, Apostolic Delegate to Germany and finally Cardinal. Cantor in his *History of Mathematics* devotes a score of pages to Nicholas. His ideas in astronomy are well represented by his declarations that the earth was not the centre of the universe; that it moved in the heavens as the other stars and could not be absolutely at rest. His thoughts with regard to the constitution of the sun are surprising anticipations of modern ideas. He suggested the correction of the calendar and the use of laboratory methods in the study of disease that give him a place in the history of medicine. Cusanus' best known work is his *De Docta Ignorantia*, (On Learned Ignorance)--in which he points out how many things there are which people think they know that are not so.

"The curiosity of men was aroused, and astronomy received an impetus which was to culminate in the career of Copernicus, who was 27 before the century closed" (87, pp. 194-195).

"The foundations of the physical sciences were laid broad and deep in this period. The greatest scientific discovery is that of Copernicus, who revolutionized man's
thinking as to the universe more than any other who ever lived. He did not make many observations nor were those he made particularly exact, but he reached a magnificent generalization, the Copernican theory, which has come to be accepted teaching as to the universe. His theory was not acceptable to his generation and practically all the mathematicians and astronomers objected to it. It was not generally accepted until the generation after Galileo in the following century. Copernicus' studies had been made in Italy; it was there, according to tradition, that he first hinted of his theory, and when he published his book it was dedicated with permission to Pope Paul III. Until Galileo's unfortunate insistence on teaching the theory as absolute science, there was no hint of opposition. Copernicus' greatest scientific contemporary was Leonardo da Vinci, whose work in science belongs to this century (died 1519). Leonardo discovered capillarity and diffraction, made observations on resistance, on density, on the weight of air, on dust figures, on vibrating surfaces and on friction and its effects. Duval has claimed a place for him in the history of the biological sciences for his original observations in botany, zoology, palaeontology and physiology. He developed practical engineering, studied the problems of flying and made a series of very practical inventions. He was a zealous dissector and made sketches of his work which, rediscovered in recent years,
show clearly that his proposal to write a textbook of human anatomy was quite serious" (88, p. 57).

Sir Thomas More

"One of the supremely great men of history was Sir Thomas More (beheaded 1535). A close personal friend of King Henry VIII, he was sent on an embassy into the Netherlands (1516), and while there wrote 'Utopia,' probably the most interesting practical of the books on ideal republics ever written. He had been, before this, one of the group of men, including Erasmus, Linacre and Dean Colet, most prominent in the Renaissance in England. Erasmus thought him one of the greatest minds of the time. On the fall of Wolsey, Henry VIII insisted on making More, Lord Chancellor. Wolsey declared him the most suitable to be his successor, but the post was accepted not without misgivings on the part of More. His well-known sympathy for the poor and his sterling uprightness of character had made him popular, so that his installation took place 'to the joy and applause of the whole kingdom.' His career fulfilled expectations. He is the only man who ever cleared the docket of the Court of Chancery. More refused to take the oath of Supremacy, that is, that the king was the head of the Church. Practically all the bishops of England except John Fisher had consented to take the oath by some evasion of conscience, but More
persisted in refusing. He was executed for treason going to the scaffold with a joke on his lips. Lord Campbell ("Lives of the Lord Chancellors") says, 'Considering the splendor of his talent, the greatness of his acquirements and the innocence of his life, we must regard his murder as the blackest crime that has ever been perpetrated in England under the form of the law.' He adds, 'The mean, sordid, unprincipled chancellors who succeeded him made the latter half of the reign of Henry VIII the most disgraceful period in our annals.' (88, p. 57).

**Famous Women**

"The most interesting feature of this revival of education in the 15th century was that women were admitted to it as well as men. Vittorino da Feltre made two conditions on his coming to teach at Mantua:—one was that poor students who showed ability should be allowed to enter his classes, and that women should also be students. Some of the women were his favorite pupils. Cecilia Gonzaga began the study of Greek under his direction at the age of seven, could read Chrysostom at eight, and could write Greek with singular purity at the age of 12. Issotta Nogarola the favorite pupil of Guarino of Verona, the serious rival of Vittorino da Feltre as a teacher, is scarcely less famous than Cecilia Gonzaga and there are many stories which reveal how deep was feminine interest
in education at this time. Sandys in his Harvard lectures on 'The Revival of Learning,' notes that 'the studious temper was often associated with habits of piety and strong religious feeling,' and names some of these learned young ladies who later entered religious orders. Most towns in Italy of any importance had their school of New Learning and with it opportunities of higher feminine education.

It would seem that by the end of the century as many young women in proportion to the rather meagre population of the time were enjoying the privilege of education as in our time.

"The distinguished women of the Italian Renaissance include besides the Gonzagas and the d'Estes, such names as Vittoria Colonna of the great Roman family of that name, Lucrezia Tornabuoni, the mother of Lorenzo the Magnificent, and such less well known names as Tullia d'Aragona, noted for her precociousness, Olympia Morata, Hippolita Sforza, Battista Montefeltro, both famous for addresses delivered in Latin on important occasions, Leonora Cibo and Pellegrima Lascara who translated the Aeneid of Virgil and the Odes of Horace, and other who might be mentioned. These learned women of the Renaissance made erudition fashionable and study a social duty, but they are famous mainly for making their homes beautiful and devoting themselves to the beautification of their surroundings. These traits have only come to be properly
appreciated since we have paid more attention in recent years to the house and garden beautiful and have realized that the home and its surroundings must reflect the owner's tastes. The models left by the Renaissance women are now an inspiration and exemplar" (87, pp.191-92).

"Women of the century played an extremely important role in its political as well as its intellectual life. The most important character of the first half was Joan of Arc. The greatest personage of the second part was Isabella of Castile, the greatest of women rulers and one of the greatest of all rulers. Joan's career ended at the stake but Isabella after the expulsion of the Moors and Columbus' discoveries, lived to be the ruler of one of the largest empires the world has ever seen. Her character was equal to the occasion, hence her place in history. She and her husband were so poor on their marriage that they could not give the presents usual according to Spanish custom. She is said to have repaired one of her husband's coats no less than seven times. Beautiful specimens of her needlework are shown in many Spanish churches. Anxious to learn Latin, she shared her children's lessons. She made a magnificent collection of books, fostered the universities, was a generous patron of Cardinal Ximenes who did do much for Spanish scholarship at this time, helped him to found the University of Alcala, invited prominent scholars to Spain and made it clear in every way that she felt education to
be the most important thing for her people. Under her reign, the Inquisition was established but nothing shows so well the original intention of the institution as a means to prevent internal dissension among her people as Isabella's well known tenderness of heart. In the midst of the almost continual wars of her early reign, she found time and means to organize camp hospitals, the first it is said, in history. She was solicitous to spare captured enemies and insisted that wounded prisoners must be treated like their own wounded. The poor were always her special care and nothing so aroused her indignation and her prompt action for justice as to learn that a noble had been imposing on them. She often put herself to great personal inconvenience to maintain their rights. When Columbus offered some of the Indians he had brought home with him to some of the Spanish nobles, the Queen indignantly demanded, 'Who gave permission to Columbus to parcel out my subjects to anyone?' Hearing that some of the Indians were held as slaves in Spain, she ordered that they should be returned to their own country at the expense of the person who held them. She was a woman of inexhaustible energy. The mother of many children, she spent nights in the saddle when maternal duties might seem to make that impossible. She was the very life of her soldiers in their struggle with the Moors. Her reign issued in a period of greatness for Spain which lasted for many generations. She encouraged education
for women so successfully that in the following century practically every university in Spain had women professors. Prescott compares her to Queen Elizabeth, but sets Isabella far above her English rival" (87, p.192).

"The century embraced the careers of a number of women in whom interest has never died. The list includes Vittoria Colonna and Marguerite of Navarre who corresponded with each other, Isabella and Beatrice d'Este, Saint Teresa. Vittoria Colonna, called the Saint of the Renaissance, was a wonderful character of fine intelligence and broad education who deeply influenced her own and subsequent generations. She wrote some religious poetry that is still republished, but it was her personality that counted. Her deep impression on Michelangelo in his old age, as demonstrated by his sonnets to her, some of the greatest ever written to a woman, reveal her power. The contrast to her would seem to be Licrezia Borgia, whose name has become the byword for all that is worst in feminine human nature, but Gregorovius has vindicated her. Her contemporaries deeply loved and respected her. Aldus, the great printer, who knew her well, praises her charity to the poor, her unselfish devotion to the afflicted and her ability as a ruler. Chevalier Bayard declared 'that neither in her time nor for many years before has there been such a glorious princess.' When she died at the early age of 40, all of Ferrara, where the last 20 years of her life were spent, followed her body to the
tomb as that of a saint. Her popular reputation in a lesson of the fallibility of historical traditions without contemporary documents.

"Saint Teresa of Spain has been called the greatest of intellectual women. Her works are still issued, edition after edition, in many languages. A number of 'Lives' of her have been written, even in English in this present century. Cardinal Manning, himself the most practical of men, declared that 'she was one of those sovereign souls that are born from time to time, as if to show what her race was created for at first and to what it is still destined.' The Spaniards call her their Doctor of the Church, and her statue, the only one of a woman, is among the Fathers and Doctors of the Church in Rome, with the title Mater Spiritualium. She is the world authority on mystical theology and an unsurpassed writer of the Spanish prose. It has often been said that from behind her convent grill she, more than any other, was the barrier against that divisive religious movement which caused such bitter dissensions in most other countries of Europe, but spared Spain. In striking contrast to her is Marguerite of Navarre, sister of Francis I of France, herself a queen, whose volume of stories, the 'Heptameron,' is still popular in every language, while her poems, 'Les Marguerites de la Reine Marguerite' are known to all lovers of literature. She had an extremely beautiful character and radiated the finest
influence over her generation. In order to neutralize the evil done by certain immoral stories current at court in her time, she retold them in literary form, adding morals to them. Like so many good people, she had the idea that human passions may be influenced for the better by sweet reasonableness. Instead of doing good, her book has done harm. Most people read the stories and not the morals; or when they read both, forget the morals promptly, while the evil suggestions remain.

"The founder of feminine education in the century was Angela of Merici. A young woman of the lower middle class, of a small town of Italy, she recognized that not only the better class women but all women needed to be educated in order to bring up their children properly and influence those around them for the best. She established a little community for the teaching of girls. Under her direction this movement spread and she wrote a rule for the women who had come to share her work. In approving this constitution, Pope Paul III said to Saint Ignatius, the founder of the Jesuits, 'I have given you, sisters.' The Ursuline schools spread over Italy in a single generation and they had houses in Paris and Bordeaux in the second half of the century. They opened a school in Canada in 1639 and one in New Orleans in 1726. They were the first to offer more than a common-school education for girls, in the northern United States at least, though their house at Charlestown,
Mass., was burned down by a mob in 1834. Most of the pupils at the convent at the time were from some of the old Puritan families of New England. The Ursulines have taken up college work for women in our time very successfully and they have schools all over the world with many thousands of members at work" (88, p. 58).

**Education**

"The 15th century saw a revolution in education and as always happens with such an event, there was a wide-spread awakening of interest in educational matters. The Latin and Greek classics became the favorite foundation in education under the name of the Humanities or the New Learning. The universities at first, with some notable exceptions, as Florence, refused to admit these studies to their curriculum. They had as the basis of their teaching the seven liberal arts, the Trivium and the Quadrivium, which were really seven important disciplines taught from a scientific standpoint. Very much the same situation developed then as in the last generation of the 19th century when university faculties, conservative as always, refused to place the classical training of undergraduates which had finally gained ground in the Renaissance by the newly developed physical sciences. Denied admittance to the universities of the 15th century, the classics were taught in special schools of the New Learning, founded by princes and cities,
and special schoolmasters were invited to take charge of these schools. The greatest of these teachers of the Humanities was Vittorino da Feltre, who was invited to Mantua to teach the Gonzagas and their friends. His course included besides Latin and Greek, philosophy, mathematics, grammar, logic, music, singing, and dancing. He emphasized however that the principal aim of education was to teach scholars 'to live the simple life, to tell the truth, and to remember that true scholarship is inseparable from virtue and a sense of lofty gratitude towards the Creator.' The training of the body was not neglected. Outdoor sports were insisted upon for both women and men so as to secure a healthy mind in a healthy body. Virgil, Cicero, Homer and Demosthenes were read with running comments. Greek themes, that is, exercises from the vernacular into Greek were insisted upon, and certain of the more elegant passages had to be learned by heart. Vittorino believed in solid mental development secured through hard work, not showy erudition. A contemporary declared that 'for virtue, learning, and a rare and excellent way of teaching good manners, this man surpassed all others.' Vittorino was one of the great schoolmasters of all time. The details of his teaching methods are of special interest because they formed the model for other teachers.

"Italy was not alone in developing schools of the New Learning in this century. The Humanities were the subject
of profound attention in the Teutonic countries and such distinguished teachers as Rudolph Agricola, Reuchlin who was known as 'the three-tongued wonder of Germany,' Jacob Wimpfelung to whom the title of 'schoolmaster of Germany' has been given, did their work largely in this century. Erasmus was 35 years of age before the century closed and in its later years exercised a deep influence on the classical scholarship of England during his stay there. The most important classical schools outside of Italy at this time were those of the Brothers of the Common Life. The best proof of their success as teachers is to be found in the names of such pupils as Cardinal Nicholas of Cusa, Thomas a Kempis, Agricola, Alexander Hegius, Erasmus, Wimpfelung, not to mention others scarcely less prominent in the intellectual life of the time. The main purpose of their teaching was to afford instruction to the poor and often they assisted those who were unable to pay their living expenses.

"Their schools multiplied rapidly, as well in numbers as in attendance, and Deventer the most famous of them counted some two thousand students about the time of the discovery of America. The period owed much to 'those humble minded, patient teachers and thinkers whose devotion and fire of soul for a century and a half made the choice treasures of palaces and convents and universities a common possession along the low-lying shores of the Netherlands."
The 15th century continued that striking evolution of education which had marked the 14th. Altogether 18 universities were founded in the 14th century, and some 29 in the 15th. Saint Andrew's in Scotland is a type of the university foundation of the time. It was established by Bishop Wardlaw in 1411, but he was very proud to announce to the masters and students that his authority for doing so came from the Pope, and when the university had completed its first year a formal Papal Bull of erection was issued. The practice, in a word, was not unlike that in effect in our time, schools being required to do some work and a report as to their efficiency and the need for them being demanded before formal recognition by authorities. Glasgow followed Saint Andrew's in 1454, and Aberdeen received its charter 1477. Altogether some 80 universities, for there is some dispute as to whether certain institutions deserve the name of university or not, had been founded before the 16th century.

No less than seven universities were founded in Germany in the second half of the century, and this fact alone shows how deep was the interest in things intellectual at this time. They are Greifswald (1456); Basel and Freiburg (1460); Ingelstadt (1472); Treves (1473); and Tubingen and Mainz (1477). As Wittenberg was founded in 1502 and Frankfort-on-the-Oder in 1506 no less than nine universities were established in Germany in these 50 years. The
endowment of these came in the order of importance from the clergy, the princes, nobles and burghers, though even the poorer classes and those living on the land were sufficiently interested in education to leave legacies for the benefit of needy students which did much to encourage the educational movement" (87, p.194).

Thomas a Kempis: Imitatio Christi

"The greatest literary product of the brethren is the 'Imitatio Christi,' now universally attributed to Thomas a Kempis. This has been declared 'the most influential book that ever came from the hand of man, the Scriptures having come from the hand of God.' It has been popular all down the ages among all classes of people and has not lost its popularity in our time. When, some years ago, lists of the ten best books of the world were asked for from the most distinguished living writers, the 'Imitation' was almost invariably placed among the first five with the Bible, Shakespeare, Homer and Dante. It is a marvel of knowledge of the human mind and its motives" (87, p.191). The work contains thoughts of great psychological insight. The whole "Imitatio" is divided into four books. The first contains admonitions useful for a spiritual life; the second, admonitions leading to the interior life or the elements of life other than the purely spiritual ones. The third book contains thoughts on interior consolation and includes the
famous passage on love. The fourth book exhorts the reader to partake of Holy Communion. The practical ideas within the book are notable, and there are many statements made on analyzing one's self and therefore gaining more understanding in ways of working with others.

**Lorenzo de Medici**

"Italy was the most significant country for the early Renaissance and the important political development there was the prominence of Florence and the rise of the Medici family. Florence at the end of the Middle Ages was a city of beautiful buildings, unsurpassed works of art, with its citizens famous for practical interest in commerce and in the development of trade, but even more interested in the arts and crafts. The most important family in Florence was the de Medici, whose name first appeared in the chronicles of the 13th century, and may have been due to the fact that they were members of the Guild of the Apothecaries at the time when these dealt not only in drugs but in perfumes, jewels, and precious Eastern stuffs of various kinds, and thus laid the foundation of an immense fortune. Giovanni, the son of Bicci de Medici, the founder of the family, ignored politics and devoted himself to trade and especially to international banking. The fortune thus acquired gave his descendants their immense influence in the city. Giovanni died in 1429, leaving two sons, Cosimo and Lorenzo.
Cosimo's descendants exercised the most absolute sway over Florence for generations. The younger branch of the family reached distinction later, becoming Dukes of Tuscany. Cosimo, without holding any office in Florence, established a domination over the city, all the more surprising because Florence was a pure democracy whose citizens were jealous of their liberty. In spite of this, without official title, the de Medici ruled Florence for more than a century. Historians have searched history for parallels. 'It was a very different matter than with the lords or tyrants in old Greece, and it was much more than Pericles was to Athens, for the authority was passed on from father to son. It was more like the power of Augustus and the other Roman Emperors who respected the forms of the Commonwealth.' The best parallel for an American would be that of a political 'boss' holding no office yet dictating elections and maintaining power quite apart from the completely democratic form of our government. The one great difference is that the Medici exercised their power for the benefit of the city and had as much pride in maintaining Florence's prestige as any of her citizens, though of course, they carefully looked out for the family interests.

"The greatest of the Medici was Lorenzo, the grandson of Cosimo, who owed his popularity to the immense prestige which his grandfather had left him as an inheritance. After Cosimo's death, the citizens of Florence conferred on him
for all that he had done for the city, the title of Pater Patriae (Father of his Country). Lorenzo was very much less interested in the commercial affairs of the house than his ancestors but was possessed of distinct literary talent, and had, besides, a fine taste in literature and the arts. He was a thoroughly practical politician, however, and succeeded in neutralizing the schemes of his enemies of whom there were not a few. His brother Giuliano became a victim to a conspiracy from which Lorenzo escaped but very narrowly. Lorenzo died at the age of 53 in 1492, but what he accomplished for Florence by his patronage of arts and letters during his short life eminently merited for him the title of the Magnificent, which he has received in history. His influence served to make Florence the centre of the intellectual and artistic world of the period, and the men who gathered around him achieved some of the greatest masterpieces that the world has ever known. His own part in the literature of the time, for he was a poet of merit, gave him a distinction from the other Maecenases of history. The Medici palace became an academy. Distinguished scholars like Politian and Pico della Mirandola were in constant attendance upon Lorenzo, and the Platonic academy they organized, fostered the knowledge of Greek literature and art as well as philosophy. In addition, however, scholarship and classic erudition were not more welcomed
at court than poetry in the vernacular. Pulci gave readings of his 'Morganti Maggiore,' and Lorenzo read his own poems and encouraged Italian poetry in every form. Artists found a munificent patron in him. It is said that Lorenzo himself could speak with equal fluency on painting, sculpture, music, philosophy and poetry. He was imbued with the idea of creating a true national literature for Italy and refining the Tuscan speech as his country's language. His faults are evident and particularly his thorough-going ways with his enemies and his readiness to meet treachery and underhand means by similar weapons. He was a beneficent autocrat in so far as his autocracy replaced the democracy of Florence" (87, pp. 190-191).

Lorenzo's effort to conciliate Pope Sixtus IV netted him a confirmation of the Medici banking privileges and the appointment as receiver of the papal revenues.

Pope Sixtus and Ferrante of Naples were asked to join the alliance of Florence, Venice, and Milan (concluded in 1474), but Ferrante, feeling isolated, and Sixtus, angered at Lorenzo's opposition to his nephews, the Riarios, drew together. Italy became divided into two camps. The Fazzi family, rivals of Medici, were given the lucrative position as receivers of the papal revenues.

The Fazzi Plot was in 1478. "The Riarios (apparently without Sixtus' knowledge), plotted to have Lorenzo and Giuliano assassinated in the cathedral at Easter mass."
Giuliano was killed, Lorenzo wounded. The Medici almost exterminated the Pazzi and hounded the fugitives all over Italy" (39, p. 295).

Machiavelli

"The characteristic product of the time in contrast with Savanarola, showing how the same period may produce the opposite extremes, is Machiavelli. He was born in the next decade after Savanarola (1469), and went through the penitential period at Florence as an acquaintance, at least, of the great Dominican, and yet was the writer early in the next century of works in political philosophy that represent a climax of utter lack of principle" (87, p. 193).

He read the classics and almost every piece of literature that came within his grasp in order to derive lessons in statecraft. He constantly sought to penetrate into the secrets of the successful empire builders of the past. He held a number of diplomatic posts in Italy and France and learned some lessons firsthand from Cesare Borgia.

Machiavelli finally conceived the idea of giving a scientific basis to politics. Morals were of value only when politically useful. Exiled for a time from Florence, he wrote some poems and satiric dramas, including "Mandragnola". He is best known for his books, The Prince and Discourses on the First Ten Books of Titus Livius, the
former being a study of monarchial institutions, the latter on republican institutions.

Means are constantly examined to see how they might aid in building a state. Effectiveness is the measure of value (40, pp. 25-26). Machiavelli only dimly foresaw nationalism, but he clearly expressed the realistic use of power from the political center of a state and so emphasized "the methods by which unity could be achieved. Therein lies the importance of The Prince in the subsequent history of the Western world. Machiavelli wrote a grammar of power . . ." (40, p. 34).

War of the Roses

"The Wars of the Roses absorbed English attention for a generation and caused an immense amount of suffering and death before it could be settled whether the House of York, whose symbol was the white rose, or the House of Lancaster of the red rose should rule in England. The Lancastrians were supported mainly by the north of England, the Yorkists by the south. More important than any of the kings of the time was the Duke of Warwick, the king-maker as he came to be called, whose adhesion to one side or the other again and again turned the scale. The pathetic character of the time is Henry VI, the gentle, kindly but weak monarch who probably deserves the name of saint which some people have accorded him, though others have proclaimed him simply a
fool. He will ever be recalled for his liberality in the cause of religion and learning and for his foundations at Eton and Cambridge. The villain of the Wars of the Roses is Richard III, whom historians have been vindicating in recent years and who was undoubtedly an able man and popular among the people. The stigma upon his name for the murder of the little Princes in the Tower of London has never been wiped out, and this makes it easy to understand who historians should have been ready to credit other evil traditions with regard to him.

"After varying fortunes, the Yorkists winning the first battle at Saint Albans, 1455, and others in 1459 and 1460, Margaret, the undaunted wife of Henry VI, refusing to accept the compromise by which Henry was to reign for life and be succeeded by the Duke of York, moved heaven and earth for her son Edward, and won the battle of Wakefield, where York was slain. She also won the second Battle of Saint Albans. Decisively defeated by Warwick at Towton Heath, Margaret still kept up the struggle until her son was slain at Tewkesbury (1471). When the Yorkists won Tewkesbury, York seemed assured of the throne. The death of Edward IV, however, leaving Edward and Richard, the little Princes in the care of their uncle, Richard Duke of Gloucester, who murdered them, gave the chance for Lancaster in the person of Henry VII to make a popular appeal, gather an army and defeat Richard at Bosworth."
By marrying Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of Edward IV, Henry united the two houses. He proved to be a very thrifty king who imposed taxes and gathered immense sums of money, consolidating the kingdom for his son Henry VII, who proceeded to spend royally until his treasury was exhausted" (87, p.190).

**Tamerlane**

"The 15th century holds the transition between the Middle Ages and modern history. The end of the Middle Ages is usually said to be the Fall of Constantinople in 1453, though occasionally it has been suggested that a better date for a boundary between the two periods would be the discovery of America in 1492. The fall of Constantinople is the most important military and political event of the century. It was led up to from the very beginning. Tamerlane, Timur the Mongol or the Lame, a successor of Jhenghis Khan, occupied the Caucasus, Armenia and Mesopotamia" (87, p.188).

"He invaded Persia, took Ispahan, and made a pyramid of human skulls of his victims, defeated the Russians and sacked Moscow, invaded India successfully and took Bajazet the Sultan of the Turks prisoner after the great battle just as the next century opened (1402)" (86, p.555).

"Just at the beginning of the 15th century he was forced by a rebellion in Syria to turn, and in 1401
destroyed Aleppo, burned Damascus and stormed Bagdad. He defeated Bajazet or Bajezid, the Sultan of the Turks, who died in prison in 1403, but Timur himself followed his prisoner to death in 1405. Timur's empire then fell to pieces and left the Turks free for their long contemplated capture of Constantinople" (87, p.189).

The Fall of Constantinople

"A series of attacks were made upon the city. It was clearly but a question of time before the capital of the Eastern Empire would fall. The recognition of this impending disaster aroused some of the serious thinkers of Europe to the necessity for a Crusade, but without avail. A series of Popes took up the subject and the result was at least a bringing together of the Eastern and Western Churches. A council was held at Ferrara for the union of the Latins and the Greeks, but in spite of Cardinal Bessarion's influence, and the fact of Pope Eugenious IV, the long years of religious differences between the peoples prevented the reunion from being more than short-lived. A European army was sent to aid the Greeks, and the Turks were defeated, Sophia and Nissa being conquered by Hunyadi the Magyar Christian hero (1443). Another expedition under the heroic Skanderbeg (Castriota), Prince of Alania, was defeated (1444). The Hungarians and Albanians were the only champions of Western Christianity, and their efforts
proved vain against the overpowering numbers of the Turks. In the spring of 1453 Mohammed besieged Constantinople by both land and sea with 150,000 men, 420 ships, and the place fell by storm, 23 May" (87, p.188).

The 100 Years War

"The year of the fall of Constantinople (1453) was also that of the end of the Hundred Years' War between France and England, which had served to hamper the intellectual development of both these countries to a very serious extent. Now they might have had time for other thoughts and the Renaissance been given an opportunity to exert itself to the full, but it was seriously set back in England by the unfortunate civil wars of the Roses and by internal dissensions of many kinds in France. The English who had laid claims to French territory ever since the time of William the Conqueror had been able to vindicate those claims to some extent in the later 14th century, but Henry V with a small army of English soldiers won the battle of Agincourt, 1415, and marrying the French king's daughter, was to succeed to the title of King of France on the death of the poor mad French monarch, Charles VI. His son Charles VII found a following in France that enabled him to hold out for a time against the English under the Duke of Bedford, but he was nearly at the end of his resources in every way when Joan of Arc, a young shepherd maiden of Domremy, offered to lead his army, awakened the
country, relieved Orleans, and had Charles crowned King of France at Rheims” (37, p.188).

**Joan of Arc**

"Her marvelous story is one of the strangest in history. This country girl from the confines of Lorraine was at the age of 17 the general-in-chief of the armies of France. When her heavenly appointed task, as she proclaimed it, was done, she asked to be allowed to withdraw into obscurity once more, but her presence was deemed too valuable for the morale of the French army to permit this and after a time she was captured by the English. To discredit her they put her to death as a witch, but her trial only served to emphasize her virtues. Her life, the only one in all history as Mark Twain has said, every detail of which we have under oath from eye witnesses, remains the marvel of history" (37, pp 189-190).

**Suleiman**

"Suleiman I (The Magnificent) was the only son of Selim. Born in 1520, he became a highly cultivated but proud and ambitious ruler, generally rated as the greatest of the sultans. In reality he left affairs largely to his famous viziers. Ibrahim Pasha, son of a Greek Parga, practically ruled the Empire from 1523 to 1536. In 1524, after an attempt of the Turkist governor of Egypt to set himself up
as sultan, Ibrahim completely reorganized the government of the country, with more effective control by the Turks" (39, p. 428).

Belgrade, after several assaults was captured. In the succeeding years the Turks raided regularly in Hungary and Austria, creating a panic throughout central Europe.

In 1522, Rhodes was captured. It had become the headquarters for Catalan and Maltese pirates who threatened Turkish communications with Egypt. The Knights of St. John put up a valiant defense, but the help expected from the west did not materialize. They thereupon capitulated. In 1530 they were established at Malta by Charles V.

In 1529 was the first siege of Vienna. "After several assaults the Turks withdrew (Oct. 16), partly because of valiant resistance of the garrison, partly because of wretched weather and inability to bring up the heavy artillery. But Suleiman rejected repeated offers of Ferdinand to pay tribute for Hungary in return for recognition.

In 1538, the Holy League allied against the Turks (Charles V, the pope, and Venice). Abortive efforts of Charles V to buy off Khaireseddin. After a defeat at sea (Battle of Prevesa) the Venetians made peace (1540), losing Nauplion, their last station in the Morea, and paying a large indemnity.

A Turkish naval expedition went through the Red Sea to the northwest coast of India. The entire east coast
of the Red Sea (Yemen, Aden) was taken over" (39, p. 428).

In 1541, Suleiman campaigned in Hungary. "He marched to Buda and took over control during the minority of John Sigismund Zapolya. Direct Turkish administrative control was established" (39, p. 428).

**African Exploration and Development**

"In 1492, an Ethiopian embassy reached Venice. There were others in 1403 and 1427. In 1452 Ethiopian emissaries arrived at Lisbon and in 1481 at Rome. The object of these embassies, and of those sent in return (especially by the pope in 1453) was to establish a Christian alliance against the Moslem Mamelukes in Egypt and later against the Ottoman Turks. Nothing came of this project, but the exchange of missions served to acquaint Europe with that part of Africa" (39, p. 363).

Prince Henry the Navigator was the greatest patron of cosmography and discovery. "Prince Henry, as general of the Order of Christ, was able to turn the crusading enthusiasm as well as the funds of the order into the fields of science and discovery. From 1418 onward, the prince sent out, almost annually, expeditions carefully prepared and ably conducted. There can be little doubt that the religious factor dominated the work of the prince, though the scientific and commercial factors were hardly less important. That Prince Henry hoped to open up direct communications with Guinea by sea is clear. That he
hoped ultimately to find a sea-route to Ethiopia and thence to India has been questioned by some, but is reasonably certain" (39, p.363).

In 1435, an expedition was sent by Prince Henry to conquer the Canary Islands from Castille, but failed. He did succeed in gaining a treaty which allowed the Canaries to remain the property of Castille while West Africa, Guinea, and the islands of the ocean were assigned to Portugal. The Portuguese explorers then began a long series of expeditions along the coast of West Africa. The Africans themselves sought colonies and waged organized warfare. In 1468, the Songhoy ruler recaptured Timbuktu from the Tuaregs. By the year 1490, the Portuguese had ascended the Congo River for about 200 miles and converted the King of the Congo Empire. They established a post at Sao Salvador and exercised a wide influence in the region until the end of the 16th century. In 1505-1507, the Portuguese took Sofala and Kilwa from the Arabs and founded Mozambique. In 1513 they ascended the Zambezi, establishing posts at Sena and Tete. Missionaries probably penetrated much of the hinterland, but details are not known.

In 1517, Egypt was conquered by Selim I. The country was put under a Turkish governor, but the Mamluk beys were left in effectual control, acting as a landholding oligarchy. The Spanish conquest of Tunis completed the conquest of the North African coast begun in 1494 with the acquisition of Melilla. (39, p. 329).
African Archaeology

"When Vasco da Gama's four small ships had passed the Cape of Good Hope in 1498 and sailed northward along an East African coast that was utterly unknown to Europe then, their near-mutinous crews, weary from months of battling with gray Atlantic loneliness, were astonished to come upon busy ports and populous cities. To their relief and joy they found themselves among sailors who knew the seaways to India and beyond; who sailed with charts and compasses and quadrants as good as their own, or better; whose knowledge of the world was wider even than theirs. They anchored in havens that were thick with ocean shipping. They went ashore to cities 'with many fair houses of stones and mortar, very well arranged in streets.' They watched flourishing maritime trade in gold and iron and ivory and tortoise shell and slaves, and saw that they had blundered on a world of commerce that was wider and perhaps wealthier than anything that Europe knew. And when at last they sailed for India, it was with an Arab pilot, Ahmad ibn Majid, who knew the voyage well.

"It has long seemed likely that new knowledge of this Indian Ocean trade, ranging as it did from Southeast Africa to Southeast China, would throw new light not only on the civilization of the city-states and trading stations of the
East African coast but also on their suppliers in the hinterland--among whom the people of the kingdom of Monomotapa, whose capital was probably at Great Zimbabwe, were prominent. For the whole culture of Great Zimbabwe, Miss Caton-Thompson thought, 'the trade connexion with India is undoubtedly strong--indeed, I believe it to be the primary stimulus which led to the development of the indigenous Zimbabwe culture.'

"The latest findings of archeology tend to confirm this. They also suggest that the light will be stronger than was generally supposed, and more plentiful. Exports from East and South-central Africa were mainly in raw material, and this offers no evidence of date, for it has vanished. But imports into Africa yield much more promising answers. From India these imports were mostly in textiles, which have disappeared, but they were also in beads and pottery; and, from China, in porcelain. Nearly all these 'hard stuffs' can be dated with a fair accuracy. And they are there, in East Africa, in no meager quantity. 'I have never in my life,' remarked a leading British archaeologist, Sir Mortimer Wheeler, after visiting Tanganyika a few years ago, 'seen so much broken china as I have seen in the past fortnight along the coast and the Kilwa islands: literally, fragments of Chinese porcelain by the shovelful . . . . In fact, I think it is fair to say that as far as the Middle Ages
are concerned, from the tenth century onwards, the buried history of Tanganyika is written in Chinese porcelain.*

"Since Wheeler said this, a group of British archaeologists, led by Dr. Gervase Mathew, has completed a preliminary survey of pre-European sites along the coast of British East Africa; those for Tanganyika alone number as many as sixty-four. Most of these are medieval, ranging from the tenth to the fourteenth centuries; but some are earlier than that. A few are contemporary with the great years of Ptolemaic and Roman expansion. Coins are also proving useful. Reporting to a conference on African history and archaeology held under the auspices of London University's School of Oriental and African Studies in July, 1957, Dr. Freeman-Grenville wrote of coins discovered on Zanzibar and nearby East African islands, 'Sassanian and Farthian: Roman, Byzantine, Ummayad, Mamluk: a hoard of 176 Chinese coins ranging from the seventh to the thirteenth centuries.' Having come so near to accurate dating of these coastal cities, modern research is now on firmer ground for tackling the much greater problems of the hinterland.

"These few examples may be enough to show that this 'rediscovery of Africa'—of African history in the thousand years or so before European penetration—is no longer the product of wishful sentiment or mere enthusiasm. They could be multiplied by many other examples from other
parts of the continent. M. Mauny and his colleagues of the Institut Français de l'Afrique Noire, at Dakar in French West Africa, have important findings to their credit. In the region of Lake Chad, M. Leboeuf and others have excavated a hitherto legendary civilization that worked finely in bronze and iron from at least the tenth century onwards. Further north, M. Vercoutter, director of antiquities of the republic of the Sudan, is completing a comprehensive survey of attested sites of the great Kushite civilization that flourished on the middle Nile for a thousand years after about 800 B.C. Dr. Mathew and Mr. Lanning have had important things to report from Uganda. Dr. Clark and Dr. Summers have published valuable contributions from Rhodesia. Dr. Biobaku has investigated Yoruba origins in southwestern Nigeria. Dr. Dike, another Nigerian scholar, is now in charge of writing the history of Benin" (17, p. 42).

"During the Middle Ages much of Africa was familiar to the Arabs. Ibn Batuta, greatest of land travelers, between the years 1325 and 1349 journeyed from his home in Morocco across Northern Africa, through Egypt, the Near East, Arabia, eastern Africa, and thence to India. Later he traveled northward to the Crimea and thence through central Asia to India. After spending eight years at Delhi, he went on to Ceylon and China. On his return to Morocco in 1349, he set out across the Sahara and visited
Timbuktu and the Niger region. His remarkable journeys serve to record not only the Arab trade from Egypt down the east coast to Africa and to India and beyond, but also the regular caravan trade from southern Morocco across the desert to the kingdom of Ghana (i.e. Guinea) in Nigeria" (39, p. 669).

**Latin America**

"In the broader sense the conquest and colonization of Spanish America progressed logically outward from the earliest colony in Santo Domingo until by 1600 the territory from New Mexico and Florida on the north to Chile and the Rio de la Plata on the south was, with the exception of Brazil, effectively under the rule of the crown of Castile.

"The motives which inspired the Castilian sovereigns to create a vast empire in the Americas were the desire to achieve more extensive realms, propagate Christianity, and obtain increased revenues. The early conquistadores were impelled by several motives which varied in intensity with regard to individuals, time, and place: desire to gain wealth and position, desire to add to the glory of the Castilian crown, zeal to propagate Christianity, and love of adventure. The most important of the early conquests were achieved at no direct cost to the crown. Individual leaders by their own initiative, in the name
of the sovereign or by virtue of royal patents, conquered territory at their own expense, hoping to receive or to be assigned authority and revenues in the lands subjugated. In this manner, Cortes conquered Mexico, Alvarado Guatemala, Pizarro Peru, Jimenez de Quesada New Granada, and Montejo Yucatan. The crown of Castile soon established direct and absolute control and evolved complex machinery of government to rule its vast colonial empire. The Church, over which the crown exercised patronage, achieved complete organization and exercised vast influence. The military triumphs of the Spaniards over incredible numerical odds was the triumph of indomitable representatives of a more highly developed society over those of a lesser. The conquest was accompanied by great cruelty, but it was no greater than that of contemporary conquest elsewhere. Ruthless exploitation of the natives followed colonization, but such was the common lot of subject peoples during the period. The intent of the Castilian crown toward the Indian masses, if not the actual practice, was beneficent. While the production of gold and silver was the chief source of crown revenues in the Indies and became the basis of much private wealth, agriculture, grazing, and commerce were soon highly developed and local industries of various types came into existence. Certain colonies like Chile, Yucatan, and the Rio de la Plata were almost exclusively agricultural and pastoral. A relatively large measure of intellectual
activity came into being in the larger cities and within the Church. The existence of a large Indian population, many groups of which possessed high cultures of long standing, and the impact of European culture and Christianity on the New World civilizations led to fundamentally important social, cultural, and racial developments" (39, p.46).

The West Indies and the Isthmus

"Santo Domingo became the first seat of Spanish government in the Indies. Immigration to Espanola, although not heavy, increased and mining and agriculture were developed.

"In 1501, Negro slavery was introduced. The Indian population rapidly disappeared as a result of warfare, enslavement, and disease.

"From 1508-1511, Puerto Rico was conquered, San Juan being founded, and Jamaica was settled.

"In the years 1511-1515, Diego Velasquez, as lieutenant of the viceroy, Diego Columbus, conquered Cuba and founded Santiago and San Cristobal de la Habana.

"In the years 1509-1513, under royal patents, Alonso de Ojeda founded a colony on the coast of South America east of the Isthmus of Panama and Diego de Nicuesa founded Nombre de Dios on the Isthmus. The settlement founded by Ojeda was transferred to the Isthmus at the suggestion of Vasco Nunez de Balboa (1474-1519). There the colonists
united with those of Nicuesa.

Balboa became governor of the colony in 1513 and as such he discovered the South Sea (Pacific Ocean) and took possession for the crown of Castile.

"In 1514-1519, Avila dispatched expeditions by land and sea to adjacent areas, including the Gulf of San Miguel, founded Panama as the seat of government, re-founded Nombre de Dios, and established a route across the Isthmus. Balboa, as adelantado of the South Sea and subordinate to Avila, continued explorations on the Pacific coast, but as a result of quarrels with the governor, was executed by him (1519)" (39, p.48).

Peru and the West Coast of South America

"Francisco Pizarro (1470-1541), under authority of Avila, in association with Diego de Almagro (1475-1538) and Hernando de Luque, a priest, determined upon the conquest of Peru. An initial expedition reached the San Juan River and a second the Gulf of Guayaquil and Tumbez, where evidence of the high civilization and great wealth of the Inca was encountered.

"In 1528-1529, Pizarro went to Spain and concluded a capitulation with the crown by which he was granted the right of discovery and conquest in Peru for a distance of 200 leagues south of the Gulf of Guayaquil with the offices of adelantado, governor, and captain general.
Almagro was assigned command of the fortress of Tumbez, and Luque was named Bishop of Tumbez.

"Returning to Panama, accompanied by his brothers, Gonzalo (c. 1505-1543) and Hernando, and a small group of recruits, Pizarro organized an expedition of 180 men, with 27 horses and two pieces of artillery, and sailed for the conquest. Pizarro consolidated his position at Tumbez and founded San Miguel. After having been joined by further recruits, Pizarro moved into the interior with 62 horses and 102 foot, invited by the Inca Arahualpa, and reached Cajamarca on the central plateau, near which the Indian monarch was encamped with a large army.

"In 1532, when Atahualpa visited the Spanish camp, Pizarro seized him. This bold stroke produced great moral effect among the Inca and paralyzed the machinery of government. While a prisoner, Atahualpa caused his rival half-brother Huascar to be murdered.

"The Inca paid an enormous ransom in gold and silver, but for political reasons was executed by the Spaniards. Having been joined by Almagro, Pizarro occupied Cuzco, the Inca capital, and set up Manco, brother of Huascar, as Inca.

"In 1535, Pizarro, having left Cuzco, founded Lima which became the capital of the later viceroyalty of Peru. In Pizarro's absence the natives revolted under Manco and conducted a lengthy but unsuccessful siege of Cuzco. This
was the only serious attempt of the Incas to expel the Spaniards (1535-1536).

"In the following years the area of Spanish dominion was greatly extended. In the south the region about Lake Titicaca was reduced and Chuquisaca founded (1536-1539). The rich silver mines of Potosí were opened 1545. To the north the region of Quito, where lieutenants of Atahualpa had established control after his seizure, was reduced in 1534 by Pizarro's subordinate, Belalcazar (1495-1550). Pedro de Alvarado, governor of Guatemala, having heard of rich lands in Peru, led an expedition of some 500 men from Central America and sought to secure control of Quito in 1534-1535. Alvarado was ultimately induced to relinquish his claims in return for monetary compensation. Belalcazar founded Cali and Popayan (1535-1536) and advanced to the Bogota plateau, where in 1539 he encountered Quesada. In the same year Gonzalo Pizarro, governor of Quito, led an expedition across the Andes and reached the upper Amazon. One of his lieutenants, Francisco de Orellana, seeking to gain territory for himself, continued down the Amazon and reached the sea (1541). He went to Spain and secured authority to conquer the Amazonian area, but died on the return to the New World. His followers accomplished nothing.

In 1541, a large group of the partisans of Almagro assassinated Pizarro and set up Almafro's son as governor,
but the younger Almagro was, in turn, overthrown by the royal governor Vaca de Castro (1542).

"In the meantime the Spaniards had begun expansion into Chile" (39, p. 489).

**The Conquest of Mexico**

"1518-1519. To continue the discoveries of Hernandez de Cordoba, Diego Velasquez and Hernando Cortes (1485-1546) organized an expedition of some 600 men, with 17 horses and 10 cannon. Cortes was put in command. Sailing from Cuba despite Velasquez' orders, he followed the coast of Yucatan, subjugated Tabasco and reached San Juan de Ulloa. There he renounced the authority of Velasquez and, acting as a direct agent of the crown, founded Villa Rica de la Vera Cruz. Cortes was elected chief magistrate by the soldiers and sent representatives to Spain to secure confirmation.

"After negotiations with Moctezuma (Montezuma), ruler of the Aztecs, and after winning the support of Totonac, a people subject to the Aztec, Cortes moved into the interior, overcame Tlaxcala, and formed an alliance with the republic. Moving on the Aztec capital, Cortes thwarted atreacherous attempt to destroy his force at Colula and entered Tenochtitlan (1519, Nov. 8), where he was amicably received by Moctezuma. To safeguard his position, Cortes soon made the native ruler a prisoner, and the latter and his chiefs swore fealty to the Castilian sovereign."
Meanwhile (1520) Velasquez, named royal adelantado of the lands discovered by Hernandez de Cordoba and Grijalva, sent an expedition under Panfilo de Narvaez to reduce Cortes to obedience. Cortes, placing Pedro de Alvarado (1485-1541) in command at Tenochtitlan, went to the coast and by combined subterfuge and vigorous action won over the majority of the force of Narvaez, thereupon returning to the Aztec capital. Harsh rule by Alvarado aroused the Aztecs to revolt against the Spaniards and Moctezuma, and Cortes was forced to evacuate Tenochtitlan with heavy losses (1520, June 30). Moctezuma, who had been injured by his own subjects, died or was killed by the Spaniards at the time of the evacuation. Cortes retreated around the northern end of Lake Tezcuco, overcame an overwhelming Aztec army at Otumba (1520, July 7), and reached Tlaxcala, which remained loyal. At Tlaxcala Cortes reorganized his forces. He then conquered the province of Tepeaca, founding Segura de la Frontera. An expedition was sent into southern Vera Cruz, and two outposts were established. Having received reinforcements, among them the members of the Garay expedition to Panuco, Cortes established his base at Tezcuco and undertook the investment of Tenochtitlan by land and water. After a prolonged and desperate siege the Spaniards, aided by a horde of native allies, captured the Aztec capital, making prisoner Guatemoc, who had become emperor and had organized resistance. Spanish
control was firmly established over the immediate vicinity and the conquest was rapidly extended. Tenochtitlan was razed and Mexico City, which became the seat of government of the later viceroyalty of New Spain, was erected. A bitter suit between Cortes and Velasquez, carried on before the crown during the period of the conquest, terminated in favor of Cortes and the emperor named him governor and captain-general of New Spain (1522, Oct. 15)" (39, p.496).

**Basket-ball**

According to official records, basket-ball's history begins in 1891, when a lecturer in psychology at the Young Men's Christian Association Training School, in Springfield, Mass., suggested, as an exercise of inventiveness, a game that would comply with certain conditions. One of his pupils, James Naismith, taking note of the hypothetical conditions indoors-limited area, limited number of contestants, equally applicable to either sex, etc.,--applied his mind to meet those conditions and invented 'basket-ball' (43, p.179).

Vaillant, however, provides proof that the basic concept of basket-ball is quite a bit more ancient than 1891; he mentions the fifteenth century Aztec game *tlachtli,* "played in a court shaped like the capital I, walls extended on either side of the I, and in the middle of each a stove or wooden ring was set vertically, in contrast to
the horizontal position of a basket-ball hoop. The players tried to pass through this ring a hard rubber ball, which they could strike only with their elbows, hips or legs" (82, p 198).

Expansion to the South of Mexico

"In 1522-1524, Cristobal de Olid subdued Colima and part of Jalisco. Another settlement was made in Michoacan, the territory of the independent and civilized Tarascans, whose ruler had given allegiance to Cortes. Farther south Oaxaca and Tehuantepec were reduced, the latter by Alvarado.

"1523-1525. Embassies from certain towns of Guatemala having made submission, Cortes sent Alvarado to that region. Alvarado conquered the civilized Quiche and Cakchiquel and founded the city of Guatemala. The conquest was then extended into Salvador, and Alvarado became governor of the general district of Guatemala. Chiapas was reduced by expeditions from New Spain (1523-1528).

"The conquest of Yucatan was assigned to Francisco de Montejo (c. 1473-1553) as adelantado. The first attempt of Montejo to conquer the Maya failed after eight years of effort, and he was diverted to Honduras upon appointment as governor. The final conquest and colonization of Yucatan were achieved by the son and nephew of Montejo under his general direction. Campeche, Merida, Valladolid, and Salamanca (Bacalar) were founded (1539-1545)" (39, p. 154).
Summary of Events

1401. The Renaissance in Italy awakens the spirit for learning and the fine arts.

1403. Yunglo, son of Hong-wu, dethrones his nephew and makes Peking the capital of China. Frames the Chinese code of laws. Maintains a fleet that dominates the East, and receives foreign ambassadors.

1405. Death of Tamerlane.

1411. Saint Andrew's University, Scotland, founded.


1414-1418. Council of Constance, Schism healed.


1416. Jerome of Prague burned for heresy.

1420. Hussite wars begin.

1422. Henry V of England becomes King of France. Constantinople besieged by Amurath, the Turkish emperor.

1429. Joan of Arc raises the siege of Orleans.

1431. Joan of Arc burned at Rouen by the English.

1440. Printing, long known by the Chinese, invented in Germany by Gutenberg.

1443. The Azores discovered by Portuguese navigators.


1451. The English evacuate Rouen and other French towns.
1453. The Turks capture Constantinople under Mohamet II, and with the extinction of the Comneni and Palaeologi the Eastern Empire ends.

1454. Glasgow University founded.


1456. Siege of Belgrade. Turks repulsed by Hunyadi.
1456-1477. Seven universities founded in Germany.
1461. Louis XI of France begins to reign.
1462. Louis XI imprisoned by Charles the Bold.
1469. Machiavelli born.
1469-1492. Lorenzo de Medici, ruler of Florence.
1477. Aberdeen University founded.
1479. The kingdom of Spain formed by the union of Aragon and Castile.

1484. The Inquisition established in Spain.
1485. King Ladislas of Bohemia grants religious liberty.

1486. Bartholomew Diaz reaches the Cape of Good Hope.
1487. The Court of Star Chamber instituted in England.
1492. Columbus redisCOVERS America. Granada falls and the Moors are driven out of Spain.
1494. Charles VIII invades Italy.
1498. Portuguese navigators reach India around the Cape of Good Hope. Savonarola condemned to death and burned.
1498. Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape of Good Hope to India.
1500-1501. Portuguese discover Brazil.
1502. The island of Saint Helena discovered.
1508-1512. Michelangelo painted ceiling of Sistine Chapel.
1511. Erasmus' In Praise of Folly.
1515. England and Scotland at war. The battle of Flodden.
1517. Martin Luther began the Reformation in Germany.
1520. Raphael dies.
1521. Mexico City was besieged.
1527. Pizarro invades Peru.
1520-1566. Suleiman the Magnificent.
1534. Luther's German translation of the Bible.
1521. Luther at the Diet of Worms. Turks take Belgrade.
Henry VIII of England is titled Defender of the Faith by the Pope.
1522. Circumnavigation of the world completed by Magellan.


1527. Rome taken and sacked by the French under the Constable of Bourbon.

1528. Durer, the renowned German artist dies.

1529. Henry VIII quarrels with the Pope over his refusal to grant a divorce.


1534. Ignatius Loyola founds the Company of Jesus.


1536. Printing introduced in Mexico.

1539. The Bible printed in English. Monasteries suppressed in England and Wales.

1541. Calvin introduced Reformation into Geneva.

1543. Copernicus published his theory of the rotation of the earth around the sun.
BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR CHAPTER V

Students' References


CHAPTER VI

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Further study of great value would produce a book for the program presented in this dissertation to supplement this study and the historical compendium presented with this study. The book would contain descriptions, discussions, and illustrations of the audio-visual items and special readings listed in the syllabus for this program and would also include an anthology of the various poems and short stories mentioned and other appropriate material.

2. A slightly less voluminous work would be a paper containing descriptions, discussions, and illustrations of the audio-visual items and special readings listed in the syllabus for this program. The work would also include specific recommendations to the Librarian as to commercially available color slides, film strips, books containing illustrations, and books containing literary selections mentioned in the syllabus and other works by the same authors or in the same genre.

3. A Science Program might be constructed on the general plan of this Humanities Program, presenting the various phases of scientific achievement only touched on in the more general Humanities Program. Discussion of
twin stars, the unified field theory, fossils, genetic structure, synthetic fibers, behavior derivations, seismography, and virus mutation, to list examples from some of the various sciences, would give the student an awareness and foundation for understanding not to be gained from any of the compartmentalized college science programs.

4. A Civic Inspection program might be constructed on the general plan of this Humanities Program, presenting the various phases of achievement in the immediate time or space-zone of the students. The students would work individually or in groups and survey sociological, scientific, and artistic developments that are current or local, and community resources would be emphasized in that study.

5. A Guidance Program might be constructed on the general plan of this Humanities Program, presenting the various phases of current professional and industrial achievement. Emphasis would be placed on the student becoming aware of the relationship of the individual and the occupation. Vocational guidance tests would be included as one part of the program. Discussion following the tests should be presented so the student interprets his test results in the light of his awareness of the commercial situation currently existing. Finally, the student should reach an understanding of the strength and meaning of the test scores as they relate to him and to his present and planned environment.
6. One exhibit to be planned, the thinking of which would spring from this Humanities Program, would be such interdepartmental working together as would produce a science exhibit containing models, drawings, and a written commentary on some single phase of either historic or current scientific achievement.

7. Another exhibit resulting from interdepartmental working would be the presentation of an opera in which the singing and orchestral parts would be provided by means of a high fidelity phonograph system. With the musical aspects thus no longer a major problem, the emphasis on art, psychology and literature could be presented within a musical and dramatic framework, and the staging would involve a highly creative interaction.

8. A series of library exhibits might be in order, the first one presenting an illustrated explanation of the use of the card catalogue, index to periodical literature and index to journals for a science student working on a special project. As the school term progressed, the library exhibits should change to include items illustrating certain material currently being covered in some of the science courses. Exhibits might also be similarly geared with material covered in almost any introductory course such as art or literature. Exhibits could also be timed to point up a current item in the community such as the completion of a new school, the coming of
some special musical event, or a coming motion picture of unusual significance. Such exhibits would require the working together of several departments and would not be done by the library department alone.

9. Interdepartmental seminars would be of great value in the discussion of educational methodology and administration. Public school and college teachers and administrators could thus provide the future teacher with greater insight into his subject specialty, and a closer liaison would be established between different college departments and between the college and the public schools.

10. An extracurricular activity committee might be established to provide a liaison between the college and the people of the community and would have three main functions. The committee would provide a meeting ground for students in different departments, would provide an opportunity for members of the community to meet college faculty and learn of college activities, and would provide programs and such things as travel movies, activity clubs, and discussions in which students and townspeople might participate. Such a committee would supplement the work of single departments which would continue to be responsible for specialized projects such as book reviews, plays and concerts. The public relations aspect of the program would be on an equal level with the concern for students understanding and sharing in extra-curricular activities of an interdepartmental nature.
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