THE CHANGING CONCEPTION
of
TEACHING UNITED STATES HISTORY

And

ITS INFLUENCE UPON THE PRACTICE OF TEACHING
UNITED STATES HISTORY IN GRADES
SEVEN AND EIGHT IN THE SCHOOLS OF KANSAS

by

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A century and a half ago a new nation came into being. A group of people formerly attached to and a part of another nation was recognized as a separate people and organized to govern themselves. This event had been preceded by a long period of dispute with the parent country which had brought on a war in defense of their rights and finally for independence. In all past time the events which have taken place in the struggle leading to the establishment of a separate nation have been written into history. The leaders in the struggle have become the heroes in the literature of the people. These accounts have been taught to the youths in the school and related to them in the home at the fireside. The efforts of the school and home are supplemented by the group or nation. Festivals and holidays are fixed to add to the emotional appeal, which helps to create sentiment and develops attitudes that determine conduct and behavior. Thus loyalty and patriotism come into being.

The events leading to the establishment of this new government had been stirring and thrilling. The new land which constituted its territory was marvelous in beauty and unexcelled in resources. The people organizing this government believed in education. Even before the independence of the government, schools had been established in many places. Would it not have been strange indeed if the history of the establishment of the new nation had not found a place in the pioneer schools?
This history is now universally recognized as one of the basic subjects of our public schools.

To state that great changes have taken place in the conditions and manner of living since the United States government was established is but common place. The changes in the relation of people in society since that time have been profound. The democratic ideal of government has been accepted as a fact. As a result of the industrial revolution the interdependence of people has grown apace, and with it there has been a corresponding expansion of the needs of the individual and the group. These changes have brought new problems to the school and to the government. It seems evident that new conceptions of the function and responsibility of the school should accompany these changes.

The American public school has passed through many stages of change and development. Today every phase of it is undergoing the most searching scrutiny. The aims of the school, its plan of organization, as well as its methods, are questioned. New theories and plans are proposed. Likewise the teaching of history has been influenced by the changing conditions which have so markedly influenced the aims and organization of the public schools.

In order to more clearly understand any situation and the problems arising therefrom, it is helpful to trace the stages of development leading to the situation. The current theories of history teaching in the elementary school can be best understood by briefly tracing the teaching of United States history
in the elementary schools. It is the purpose of this study to trace from its beginning the development of the teaching of United States history in elementary schools and point out some of the factors or forces causing a change in the conception of teaching it, and finally to discover in what way the current theories of teaching elementary history are now influencing the teaching of United States history in grades seven and eight of the schools of Kansas. The material of the study naturally falls into two parts, the historical part and the investigation of present practices.

For the historical part an effort has been made to collect from available literature facts concerning (1) the way in which history came into the elementary schools, (2) its growth in becoming a universal subject, and (3) the expansion of material or subject matter used. The study presents the trend of the theory of history teaching as shown in textbooks, reports of commissions, and in courses of study for history, and in educational literature dealing with the aims, curriculum content, and method of teaching history in the elementary schools. The information of the historical part was divided into four periods:

1. From the first teaching of United States history in elementary schools to 1861, or the beginning of the Civil War.
2. From 1861 to 1890.
3. From 1890 to 1912.
4. From 1912 to the present.

Information relative to the practice of teaching history in the schools of Kansas was obtained by means of a questionnaire.
The questionnaire was so formed that the information collected gives data concerning (1) the preparation of teachers, (2) the teaching experience of teachers, (3) the plan of organizing and grouping material for teaching, (4) the plan of assignment or presenting the task to the pupils, (5) the use of the history-class period, (6) the pupil activities used, (7) the available helps and materials of instruction, and (8) the plans used for measuring the results of teaching.

The information concerning the practice has been tabulated under each heading in such a way as to show what percentage of the whole number of teachers uses any type of practice, thus revealing what phases of the changing conception are having the largest influence upon practice.
CHAPTER II
UNITED STATES HISTORY TEACHING BEFORE 1861

I. United States History Teaching In Elementary Schools

A. United States History Becomes A Separate School Subject

It is customary for the writers of the history of education in United States to use New England as the place of beginning of the elementary schools. The elementary schools of New England were dominated by a religious motive. Reading was the principal subject taught. Up to 1750 religious books, especially the New England Primer, the Psalter, the Testament, were practically the only books used for reading. About 1750 spelling books began to be used. After 1783 when Webster published his speller, spelling became one of the most important subjects in the elementary schools, and seems to have helped introduce secular reading. The transition from a religious to a secular basis for elementary schools came as a result of a combination of several influences or factors. Scientific discovery and the use of the inductive method in science, the development of nationalism in which the centralized political governments became rivals to the ecclesiastical power, the democratic movement that resulted in the American Revolution, and the greater religious toleration which especially developed among the English colonies in America, all were potent in bringing about the transition to secular control of schools. In addition to these general movements the transition no doubt was hastened by the writings of John Locke, Rousseau, and others. However, the steps in the transition were incidental and gradual rather
then specifically planned.

In the establishment of the elementary schools for New England, the religious influence had worked through the civil organization and had directed the schools. The Revolutionary war destroyed the influence of the centralized political government of England and largely the domination of the ecclesiastical authority. The rights of the community and individual were given prominence. The freedom from political and ecclesiastical domination and the privilege to pursue happiness unmolested created new conditions. While there prevailed a feeling that there was need of an education for citizenship, the new government struggling for existence did not feel the responsibility for sponsoring a system of schools. The responsibility for meeting the expenses of an education was private, not public. There was not, as yet, the dream of universal suffrage, even among the most democratic. Property holding was the fundamental basis for voting. The responsibility of the church for the relief of want and prevention of pauperism, as well as the prevention of crime, was yet universally recognized. But there was no centralized church organization that reached many communities. Church organization was largely local and congregational in form. A large part of the people of the communities was not affiliated with any church. Soon the growing cities were facing the acute problem of idle youth and the prevention of crime. New privileges bring new responsibilities. Local needs brought local initiative.

In the growing cities schools could be used as a place for
idle youth and have them under control. The problem of education was thus in many places first attacked by forward looking citizens with philanthropic spirit. Each community struggled with its own problems. What to teach must be considered no less than the support of the school. It is this factor of local initiative and the influence of successful accomplishments that have been forces active in producing our present system of schools.

The schools that had existed prior to the American Revolution made religious reading the dominant element in elementary schools. The demand for the exclusive use of this type of reading had largely disappeared with the changes that have just been presented. A new government had come into existence and in the struggle accompanying its development there had been much discussion of political questions with many outbursts of patriotic oratory. With the growing pride in the newly organized government there developed a feeling that the youth should know what happened in the struggle for independence, and the events that had taken place since. Patriotic readers would furnish material acceptable to all. Such accounts also furnished a basis for further unifying sentiment. A description of the physical features of the new country with its resources was material equally acceptable. Thus the history and geography of this country came to be used as reading material because of their universal interest and because they did not involve differences of opinion as did religious reading. This explains the fact that history first appeared in the American elementary
schools as a part of reading.

In 1785 Noah "ebster published his book entitled "Grammatical Institute of the English Language". The Institute was in three parts, a combination of reading, spelling, and grammar. "The reader included short stories of geography and history." The sub-title of the third part of the Institute was "An American Selection of Lessons in Reading and Speaking; calculated to improve the minds and refine the Taste of Youth, and also to instruct them in the Geography, History, and Politics of the United States." The title page bears the following:

"Begin with the infant in the cradle; let the first word he lisps be "Washington." (3)

The sentiment calling forth these selections is characterized as follows:

"This appeal to the pride of the young nation is a curious instance of the growing consciousness of Americanism which was more rampant in "ebster than in any of his contemporaries. It was not patriotism alone, it was the spirit which hailed the new democracy, and in its very contempt of precedent and historic authority disclosed its rude self-reliance." (4)

About this time Jedidiah Morse, a preacher of Charleston, Massachusetts, published a small book on geography. Shortly Dr. Morse wished to enlarge his publication. Noah "ebster said:

"In 1788, at the request of Dr. Morse, I wrote an account of the transactions in United States after the Revolution; which account fills nearly twenty pages in the first volume of his octavo edition."(5).... "In the description of the individual states in Morse's large geography sometimes half the description was devoted to the history of the states." (6)

"Thus, in the Critical Period of our history which followed the American Revolution, there was provided for the youth in
the scattered schools that then existed some geography and history of the United States in the books used as readers. History seems to have continued as part of reading and geography from about 1788 to about 1814. Schools developed slowly. The failure of The Articles of Confederation, the fierce partisan struggle between opposing parties in setting up the new constitution, the difficulties of the government at home and with foreign countries gave little opportunity for unifying the patriotic sentiments of the people until the struggle with Napoleon and the War of 1812 caused the people to awaken to the realization of the unity and independence of this country. After the War of 1812 there developed a new interest in the events that led to the organization of the United States government. The collection of data by interested citizens concerning the events leading to the revolution and those leading to the adoption of the constitution led to the writing and publication of many books on history. It was but a natural thing that this collected information should be given to the pupils in the schools. In the period between 1799 and 1814 there were published three textbooks in United States history. The writers of the first histories were not school people. The local elementary schools without centralized organization had no professional teachers. The colleges were devoted to classical learning, with little or no interest in current events or local history. The first school histories of the United States were thus compiled by educated patriotic citizens outside of the teaching profession. Thus during the first twenty-five years
of the existence of the United States government, American history was taught only in connection with geography. The historical material of this kind was limited. The schools were scattered. No definite standard of preparation was required for teachers of elementary schools. Some teachers were no doubt interested in history and some were not. Any stress placed upon historical facts found in reading and geography would depend upon the teacher.

The years from 1814 to 1835 may be called the years of organization and beginning of expansion. It has been called the period of the new nationalism. The idea that a self-governing people must not be illiterate was producing results. There was a good start on elementary schools, controlled and supported by the state. In this period the public schools of the colonial type disappeared. Following the War of 1812 the Lancasterian or Monitorial system of teaching was introduced. Group instruction greatly aided the growth of the schools.

The pioneer self-reliance and spirit of disregard for precedent were developing a system of schools typically American. Because of the lack of central control there was lack of uniformity and apparent chaos, yet all were dominated by the ideals of the new nation. This chaotic condition provided the opportunity for creative organization. This period also saw a rapid development in privately controlled secondary preparatory schools called Academies. In the elementary and private secondary schools, United States history was commonly taught.

For our purpose there may be distinguished thus far two
periods of development, viz, from 1788 to 1814, and from 1814 to 1837. In the first period United States history was not offered as a separate subject but was used as a part of reading and geography. However, beginning about 1820 American history began to be given as a separate course in the elementary schools. From that time on history was gradually introduced as a non-compulsory subject. It was during the second period that schools began to increase more rapidly, the training of teachers was started, and numerous textbooks in history appeared. The first wave of interest in teaching United States history, according to Jaquith, was in the "latter part of the twenties". This coincides with the period of enthusiasm for collecting historical material already referred to and to the development of the new nationalism.

In 1826 United States history was studies in six towns of New York. In eight years the number of elementary schools teaching United States history had increased to 104. In 1834 the legislature of New York made provision for classes for training teachers in certain academies and made United States history one of the required subjects for prospective teachers. In this same year 58 different United States history texts were used in New York state.

In Vermont United States history was added to the required list of elementary school subjects in 1827. In the same year Massachusetts passed a law requiring the teaching of United States history in elementary schools in towns or districts having 500 families. Thirty years later the law was made
applicable to all elementary schools in Massachusetts. This law does not seem to have been rigidly enforced. However, more than two-thirds of the schools reporting in 1837 offered United States history, and 209 claimed that history was offered as a separate school subject. Thus requirements for teaching United States history followed in a few years after the appearance of separate textbooks and in a decade after the wave of enthusiasm for collecting historical material that followed the War of 1812. In 1833 Massachusetts made the study of Constitution and history of Massachusetts and United States a required subject for prospective teachers. It will be observed that in New England the requirement for United States history in elementary schools was made practically at the same time that prospective teachers were asked to take United States history. No doubt the fact that teachers were unprepared to teach the United States history accounts for the fact that the laws requiring United States history as an elementary school subject were not rigidly enforced.

Outside of New England and New York the public school developed more largely by local initiative. State control of public schools developed very slowly between 1812 and 1833. The centralization of state control in the northern states came mostly between 1833 and 1861. Due to the absence of a system of state reports in most states there are few authentic records that give the status of history before 1861. It was during the latter part of this period that the schools that had developed through public demand and initiative began to take the
form of a system. The directing hand of semi-professional teachers began to be felt. Under the guidance of leaders the scattered unorganized body of teachers began to form associations, publish educational papers, and thus create the spirit of a profession.

The terrible financial panic of 1837 checked the expansion of the schools and, no doubt, the sale of history books. From 1837 to 1840 there was a decrease of more than 20% in the number of schools in Massachusetts offering United States history. This decline in the interest of history seems to have lasted for a period of more than ten years. According to Jaquith the second wave of interest distinguishable came just before the fifties and lasted until the Civil War. It was during this second wave of enthusiasm for history that history was made one of the required subjects that prospective teachers must take in academies and normal schools preparing teachers. This requirement was added in Connecticut and Michigan in 1849, in Pennsylvania in 1857, and in Illinois in 1858.

The influence of American educational literature as an active force seems to date from the beginning of the publication in 1838 of "The Common School Journal", edited by Horace Mann. Local and state Teachers' Associations were organized in several states during the period of expansion that came following 1817. The National Education Association was organized in 1858. While teaching as a profession was developing there were meetings and discussions. Jaquith gives us the information that a search of the topics discussed at Teachers' Associations
does not show a single case where the teaching of history was discussed. The fact that the Teachers' Associations did not have the topic of history discussed indicates that the growing interest in history was a movement from the people rather than a movement being encouraged and directed by the teachers. The topics discussed in teachers' meetings were influenced more by the traditional classical learning. The teachers in the elementary schools had less academic training and were less influenced by the traditional interest of higher schools and were more susceptible to the popular interest. The availability of the historical material for use in the developing of the public school system together with the patriotism of the period no doubt was most influential in creating a place for United States history in the elementary schools before it appeared in the higher institutions of learning.

B. The Aims For Teaching History and The Methods Used

The foregoing has presented briefly how United States history made its appearance in the elementary schools of this country. For our purpose it is important also to determine why history was introduced into the elementary schools. In order to recognize the change that has taken place it is necessary to ask what was the early aim or purpose for such teaching. Since the material or subject matter of history was written by men trained in college and taught mainly by those who had little or no academic training it seems wise to seek the aims in the statements of those who wrote the first histories.
In the preface to the third part of Webster's "A Grammatical Institute", which was the earliest form of historical information used in schools, we find the following statement:

"In the choice of pieces I have been attentive to the political interests of America. I consider it a capital fault of all our schools that the books generally used contain subjects wholly uninteresting to our youth; while the writings that marked the Revolution, which are perhaps not inferior to the orations of Cicero and Demosthenes, and which are calculated to impress interesting truths upon young minds, lie neglected and forgotten. Several of those masterly addresses of Congress contain such noble sentiments of liberty and patriotism that I cannot help wishing to transfuse them into the breasts of the rising generation." (15)

Here is clearly expressed the patriotic purpose as well as a belief in the relative worth of the material from a literary point of view. The most popular and widely used of the first United States history texts was that of Charles A. Goodrich.

"We have put in our own words the aims of history as set forth in the introduction of this book:

1. History sets before us examples.
2. It is a school of politics.
3. History displays the dealing of God with mankind.
   It cultivates a sense of dependence upon Him;
   strengthens our confidence in His benevolence;
   impresses us with a conviction of His justice.
4. It chastens the imagination; improves the tastes;
   furnishes matter for conversation and reflection;
   enlarges the range of thought and disciplines the mind.

In textbooks it was common for the author to organize the material to accomplish the aim stated by him.

William F. Russell in his "Early Teaching of History in Secondary Schools" gives a list of aims. He says he found these aims in books of history and articles dealing with the teaching of history.

"In general history came into the curriculum for the purpose of,
1. Moral training; 2. To provide for the leisure period, 3. To give religious training, 4. To inspire patriotism, 5. To obviate international prejudice, 6. To train in citizenship, and 7. To provide discipline of mind." (18)

One must keep in mind that these aims apply to the teaching of history in the Academies and Latin Grammar Schools of the day. Little United States history was used in these secondary schools save where required of prospective teachers. The history taught in these schools "was usually included with classic geography or reading, particularly with declamation work. Where it was found as a separate subject it was as a rule either a course in "Roman Antiquity" or a very general sort of "General History" beginning with Adam and Eve." (19)

The method used in teaching United States history has already been incidentally given. In elementary schools the textbook method was universal. Neither the preparation of the teachers nor the time allotment permitted of the use of methods that were used in the academy or college. Charles A. Goodrich in his "History of United States" gives the following directions for teachers:

1. The general divisions should first be very thoroughly committed to memory.
2. The portions of the work which are in large type embrace the leading subjects of history, and should be committed to memory by the pupil. That part which is in smaller type should be carefully perused.
3. It is recommended to the teachers not to make a severe examination of the pupils until a second or third time going through the book. This should be more particularly observed in regard to young and backward pupils. (20)

It seems safe to assume that the procedure suggested was carried out in most cases.
One form used in some early texts was a series of questions and answers. This was known as the catechetical method. A modification of this method appeared in the so-called dramatic form in which a patriarch or precocious youth was the "fount of wisdom".

The writer found no reference to use in elementary schools of well-made or objective material in this period. During the first forty years of the nineteenth century much work in a crude form began to appear in the schools. About 1300 elaborate charts began to be used in the textbooks. This form of visual aid has been popular from that time on. Nearly all the references to methods of teaching in this period are from teachers of academies and one can assume that in exceptional cases similar methods were used in the elementary schools. No doubt common sense and intuition helped many a teacher interested in history to rise above the mechanical routine and provide better teaching.

It seems safe to assume that in general the elementary teacher was almost wholly dependent upon the textbook. Jiquith says, "Some texts were too homiletic; some were bombastic and sensational; some were rhetorical and artificial." 21

The lively competition among the numerous texts in history led to modification to secure advantage. The wave of popularity of history is indicated by the fact that 107 texts in United States history were issued before 1860. The Goodrich histories seem to have been the most popular type as is evidenced by the fact that there were 500,000 copies sold before 1870. The trend
in change in plan of book as well as method of teaching is shown by some changes made in the six editions of the Goodrich books, issued from 1824 to 1867.

Progress of History Method as Shown in Six Editions of the Goodrich History

1824 Edition. No directions to teachers. Important points in heavy type, occasional illustrations (Probably for home use).


1867 Edition. Large and small type are used as a guide to study. Review questions are placed as foot notes on each page. List of important events chronologically arranged at close of each chapter. Table of States of Union. Pronouncing index. Numerous maps. Chapter in appendix by A.P. Stone on "Hints on the Method of Teaching History". He advises reference to maps and to biography. Teachers' questions should make pupils think. Review should come only when needed and should be for purpose of grouping and generalization. (22)

Parker seems to think the teaching of United States history in this period was not wide spread. He says,

"There is considerable evidence to indicate that history was not taught in many parts of the country in the first half of the century and that where it was taught it was not understood by children".......

"In 1846 only 75 out of 443 children in Boston knew the meaning of 'taxation without representation', and scarcely any knew what 'impressment of seamen' meant." (23)

II. United States History Teaching in Secondary Schools and Colleges

A brief presentation of the introduction and growth in the teaching of the United States history in the elementary schools
has been made. In order to understand more clearly the changes that are to take place later in this teaching and to recognize some of the influences that produce the changes it will be necessary for us to outline what the situation was with reference to the teaching of United States history in secondary schools and colleges during the period from 1789 to 1861.

The teaching of American history began in the elementary and pushed its way upward into the secondary schools, the academies and newly organized high schools, then into the normal school being organized to train teachers, and finally into colleges and universities. The colleges and universities were institutions with an established procedure and were not readily influenced by public sentiment. In 1821, the English Classical High School of Boston included the teaching of United States history in the second year as a part of the modern history course. The academies of New York were offering United States history courses as early as 1826. The academies in New York began training teachers about the time these schools introduced the teaching of United States history. Cubberley says the academies of New York trained teachers from 1826 to 1844, when the first normal school was established at Albany. The teacher training was reestablished in the academies in 1849. Bourne records the fact that the requirements of United States history for prospective teachers doing work in schools training teachers were made in New York in 1834, in Massachusetts in 1838, in Connecticut in 1849. He states further that the early program of the normal schools provided for training teachers both in American
history and general history. The first private normal school was established in 1823 at Concord, Vermont. The first state normal school was established in Massachusetts in 1839. From this it is evident that the public demand in New England and New York for United States history was put in the form of state requirements before the state normal schools were established.

Let us note briefly what the attitude during this period was toward United States history in schools of the college rank. In Thomas Jefferson's proposal for William and Mary College in 1779, one of the eight professors proposed was to teach history, 27 civil and ecclesiastical. In 1779 no history in English was included in the list of subjects taught in Yale. Until the middle of the nineteenth century most history study came through the Latin and Greek historians, mythology, antiquities, and the scripture. History first appeared under the patronage of theology and classics. It was next united with philosophy and attempted to present useful lessons under the dignity of philosophy of history. No move was made before the nineteenth century to extend the time given to history or to give it an 30 important place.

In Harvard from 1636 history was taught in the winter. 31 "After a 12 o'clock at the flag end of the week", the students gave an hour to Universal history for half a year. For almost two hundred years the course in Harvard remained in essential elements unchanged. The lectures in history in Harvard were, as late as 1820, given by the professor of Ecclesiastical History.
The first separate chair of history in Harvard appeared in 1839 and was filled by Jared Sparks. In 1842, Prof. Sparks began to lecture to seniors on American History. This seems to have been the first college instruction in United States history given in America. It is interesting to note that Sparks had compiled thirty-five volumes of American biography before he began lecturing on American history to the seniors at Harvard. American history thus began to be presented as a subject in college nearly a quarter of a century after it was introduced into the elementary school as a separate school subject.

In the state controlled colleges Michigan University may be taken as representative in progress. In 1843-44 there was no history in the curriculum of Michigan University. The first catalogue of the university, 1852-53, shows no provision for history but lists Greek and Roman Antiquities. A separate chair of history was established in 1857. In the same year Columbia University established a separate chair but abandoned it in 1865 and reestablished it in 1876. A separate chair for history was established in 1865 at Yale. Between 1842 and 1860 history came to have an independent place in many colleges. Cornell, whose chair for history was established in 1868, and Johns Hopkins, where the chair was established in 1876, both did a high grade of history work from the first.

The importance of history was further recognized by the colleges when history was made a required subject for college entrance. This was done by Princeton in 1840, by Harvard in 1846, and by Rutgers in 1850. Thus it appears that the recognition
by colleges of the significance of history in the secondary
school program came as soon as history as a subject was given
a place in the college curriculum. It is also quite evident
that these entrance requirements would not have been made
unless history was generally if not almost universally offered
in secondary schools at that time.

A period of producing history books suitable for college
preceded the introduction of the teaching of United States
history into American colleges. United States began to make
history, the people became united, an interest was awakened,
then books began to be produced. Books suitable for use in
the elementary schools were more easily produced than for
colleges. We have seen what a flood of these were produced
before 1860. While United States history was not being taught
as a separate subject in the colleges of America during the
first half of the nineteenth century it must not be inferred
that men in the colleges had no interest in American history.
It was during the period of development and dominance of
Jacksonian democracy that George Bancroft, a teacher of Greek
in Harvard was producing his history of United States. During
the same period Richard Hildreth, a graduate of Harvard, though
not a college teacher, wrote his History of United States. The
enlargement of the course of history in colleges awaited the
accumulation of suitable available material on which to base it.
It is an illustration of the application of the law that a
growth in the general knowledge of a subject enlarges the field
of teaching it.
A brief list of some of the more important detail histories of United States gives an idea of the growth of historical writing during this period.

**Early American Histories**

**Wm. Gordon, D. D.**

**John Marshall**
1804-1807. Life of Washington. 5 Vol. and Atlas

**David Ramsey, M. D.**
1789 History of American Revolution. 2 Vol.
1807 Life of Washington
1816 History of United States from 1607 to 1808. 3 Vol.

**Mercy Otis Warren**
1805 History of Rise, Progress and Termination of American Revolution. 3 Vol.
1807 Correspondence with John Adams (relating to history)

**Mason L. Weems**
1800 Life of Washington
1817 Life of Franklin

**William Wirt**
1808 Arguments on Trial of Aaron Burr
1817 Sketch of Life of Patrick Henry
1826 Discourses on Character of Thomas Jefferson and John Adams

**George Bancroft**
1834 Vol. I History of United States (8 Vol. before Civil War)

**Richard Hildreth**
1849 History of United States of America. 3 Vol.

**Abiel Holmes**
1805 American Annals or Chronological History of America from 1492 to 1806. 2 Vol.

**George Tucker**
1856-58 History of United States to End of 26th Congress, 1841, 4 Vol.

**Jared Sparks**
1832 Life of Gouverneur Morris, 3 Vol.
1834-37 Life and Writings of Washington. 12 Vol.
1835-40 Works of Franklin 10 Vol.
III. German Influences Tending To Produce Change In Teaching History

While interest in public education and the teaching of United States history had been growing in this country and United States history had thus won a recognized place in the elementary schools, interesting educational developments were taking place in Europe that were to influence the teaching of history in United States. Following the Napoleonic wars Prussia used the extension of education as a means of restoring national life. Serfdom was done away with in Germany. Pestalozzi proposed education as a means of lifting the common people out of their misery and vice. His consecration to the cause of human welfare was one of his outstanding characteristics. The problem of transforming youth by means of education, from criminal attitudes and interest in vice to wholesome attitudes and efficient moral life, was a difficult and serious one. Herbart, in attacking the problem of education found himself confronted with the question of what to teach. His answer to this was that history should be made the core of the curriculum. Herbart died in 1841 but his followers carried on his work and planned a course in history for the German schools in grades three to eight inclusive. The subject matter included both sacred history and German history. This same humanitarian movement was at work establishing the free public schools in America. Men were "dreaming dreams and seeing visions" of what could be accomplished for human happiness and welfare when the vast wealth of the nation could be used in educating all the children.
It was men with such visions and ideals who were wishing to learn how to improve the new schools of this country. Reports of the condition of schools in Germany, made by the American educators who visited them, were eagerly read in this country and no doubt had an influence upon the trend of development.
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15. Ibid., p. 25
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17. Jaquith, op. cit., p. 34, 35
19. Ibid., p. 312
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25. Cubberley, op. cit., p. 238
27. Jaquith, op. cit., p. 8
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31. Ibid., p. 4
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35. Ibid., p. 7
36. Bourne, op. cit., p. 57
CHAPTER III
UNITED STATES HISTORY TEACHING 1861 TO 1890

History Becomes A Universal And Required Subject

From what has been presented, it is evident that United States history had a recognized place in the elementary school before the Civil War. It was not yet, outside of the New England states, a required subject but it was everywhere accepted as a desirable subject to be taught. This recognition had come about as a result of the growth of the spirit of patriotism and enthusiasm for the native land. During the period of 1835-61 there was a great educational awakening. Under the leadership of Horace Mann, Henry Barnard and other, the new American school system began to take definite form. A few began to make public school teaching a profession. In the cities the public schools became graded schools and superintendents began to be employed. Pedagogical literature increased. Teacher training was recognized as a necessity. Teachers' institutes were organized. The education of women was recognized as a responsibility. The academies and normal schools were giving prospective teachers work in United States history. The emphasis upon elementary school history in foreign countries stimulated an interest in history among educators and progressive citizens in this country. The scourse of the Civil War checked for a decade and more any marked changes in the elementary schools.

The study of history was quickened by the Civil War. This event was followed by consequences other than political. It touched the life of the university as well as the life of the state.
It quickened our sense of humanity as well as our national conscience. During the period from 1861 to 1890, history grew to be an important subject in the colleges. The seminar was introduced and stimulated young men of unusual power to fruitful research. Graduate students were trained as specialists in history. The influence of these men as we shall see was to be potent in changing the teaching of history in the elementary schools.

Let us now see what changes came in the teaching of history from 1861 to 1890. In brief we may say that in this period the teaching of United States history in elementary schools became universal and required. The teaching profession began to have an influence in directing the development of the schools. Improvement was made in organization of subject matter and methods of teaching. Up to this time the non-professional influence had largely caused the growth of the elementary schools and suggested what should be taught. The idea of the economic advantage of an education had possessed the pioneers of this country and this, coupled with the American ideal of equality of opportunity to every individual, that he may achieve for himself and the community the best to which his character, ability, and ambition entitle him, had produced the free public school.

The teachers' national organization gave an initial consideration to the teaching of history the year of the Centennial celebration of the Declaration of Independence. In 1876 a committee of the National Education Association made a report
recommending that United States history be required of all pupils in the elementary school. At that time few elementary schools began history before the seventh grade. Pupils who left school before the seventh grade did not get any history. This meant that a majority of pupils did not get any United States history. The report of this committee presented a course of study in history from the primary school to the university. The main body of the report was merely an endorsement of practice that already existed in a few of the better organized schools of the country. The report went further than existing practice by urging that universal history be required of all students in secondary schools. The teaching profession thus made its first public and concerted declaration of its intention to take over, direct, and enlarge the teaching of United States history which, in response to public sentiment, had grown up following the War of 1812.

It seems probable that the three factors most largely responsible for the increase in importance of United States history and the demand that it be made universal after 1861 were (1) the strong nationalistic pride awakened after the Civil War, (2) the development of emphasis placed on history by the colleges and universities and (3) the importance placed upon history by educational reformers. In the judgment of the writer the importance of the factors was in the order named.

There are no readily accessible data that tell just how rapidly the teaching of United States history became universal. Parker says, "By 1880 United States history was taught in almost
all schools”. On the other hand Bourne says that in Ohio in 1830 there were only a little more than one-ninth as many pupils studying history as geography. Whatever the proportion of pupils studying it, United States history in elementary schools was recognized as a subject of great importance. The elementary school was the American common school, the universal school. In it all the pupils might be given an understanding of government, and a love of country might be aroused by a knowledge of his native land. Public sentiment began to be expressed in laws requiring this study.

The control of the course or content of the United States history was yet in the hands of the textbook writers, who were largely clergymen or ex-teachers in the public schools. Following the Civil War the authorship of the history texts used began to turn to persons actually engaged in teaching. While the modified Goodrich series continued to be used, two books appeared in 1871 that were to be widely used and were to exert a wide influence. William Swinton, who had taught in a woman's college before entering the Union army, came to be a professor in the University of California and the author of a school history. He introduced into his book the plan of topical teaching and review. J. D. Steele, a teacher in high schools and in Elmira Academy, New York, became the author of a number of histories of which the one entitled "Barnes Brief History of United States" was probably the most widely used text. The purpose or aim of this book is well set forth in the preface of the text:
"This work is offered to American Youth in the confident belief that as they study the wonderful history of their native land, they will learn to prize their birthright more highly and treasure it more carefully. Their patriotism must be kindled when they come to see how slowly, yet how gloriously, this tree of liberty has grown, what storms have wrung its boughs, what sweat of toil and blood has moistened its roots, what eager eyes have watched every out-sprouting bud, what brave hearts have defended it, loving it even unto death. A heritage thus sanctified by the heroism and devotion of the fathers can but elicit the choicest care and tenderest love of the sons." (4)

This book, as indicated by the quotation, was written in a flowing ornate style. There were many illustrations and numerous maps. The dramatic scenes were made to stand out prominently. There was a list of questions at the close of the book. Many of these questions were to fix in the minds of the pupils the nicknames of popular leaders and such sayings as: "we have met the enemy and they are ours." There was a great emphasis on the events of the Civil War. The writer studied this book when taught by a veteran of the Union army. The whole effect was to emphasize the spectacular side of military heroes.

The text in the hands of pupil and teacher was the only source of information. There was little or no understanding of events. Facts were memorized. Parker gives us the opinion that United States history was taught for twenty-five years after the Civil War, much as it was taught at first. This no doubt was true especially in all the rural and frontier communities where the teachers had received no preparation other than that received in the elementary school and in rare cases a few months in an academy.

The influence of teacher training in the normal schools upon methods of teaching was making its appearance. A
pedagogical library series edited by G. Stanley Hall was published. The first volume of the series came from the press in 1883 and was entitled "Methods of Teaching and Study of History". The purpose as stated in the introduction was:

"To gather together in form most likely to be of direct practical utility to teachers and especially to students and readers of history generally, the opinions and modes of instruction, actual and ideal, of eminent and representative specialists." (6)

The reason for making the first volume of the series deal with the teaching of history is given.

"History was chosen for the subject of the first volume of this educational library because, after much observation in the school rooms of many of the larger cities in the eastern part of our country, the editor is convinced that no subject so widely taught is on the whole taught so poorly." (7)

A revised second edition appeared in 1884 with the statement that the first edition was mainly for advanced historical training but the present collection of essays will, it is hoped, prove of service to teachers of all grades. The book is a compilation of essays and bibliography. It refers to forty-four articles, pamphlets, and books, only one of which is in English, and that one published in England. The chapters present outlines and methods of teaching history and political science as taught at Harvard, Johns Hopkins, Cornell, and the Universities of Michigan and Wisconsin. It presents a plea for the philosophy of history and archeological instruction. There is nothing in it that could be of service to the teacher in the elementary school. It presents clearly the influence of the classical idea and is of interest to us in that it shows that college teachers were beginning to consider the problem of content and
method of teaching United States history in the public schools. After discussing what was being done in Germany, there appear three general suggestions, which we summarize as follows:

(1) In all the large towns there should be special teachers who give instruction in history only. (2) The time given to history study in public schools should be increased. (3) The historical material for the elementary grades should be adapted to the earlier phases of the development of the child mind. Story and biography should be used.

For information concerning the actual practice of the teaching, one must depend upon meagre statements in reports and educational literature. Bourne says, "It would be a mistake to give the impression that history was nowhere well taught or granted due recognition". The reports of the Commissioner of Education of United States during this period help us little. Information was collected from a few larger cities in the country. In the report for the year 1888-9 some data concerning the teaching of history in these cities are given. From this report we learn that United States history was uniformly taught in grades seven and eight but it was taught in a few cities as low as the third grade. The percentage of time of the school day used for United States history in elementary schools ranged from 1.4 to 5.9. We find the statement that there is no tendency to materially modify the time apportioned to history. Further it is said, "In relation to geography and history it may be said that while in their treatment they have undergone important changes those changes have resulted from an adoption of more intelligent methods in teaching
rather than from any change in the general purpose of instruction."

Just what the "important changes" that had taken place were is not stated. Further discussion in the report suggests that these subjects are encumbered with useless detail. Some light on changes of method may be given by the following. E. Bush, writing in the Journal of Education, June, 1877, gives some advanced methods of teaching history. These are: (1) recitation by topic, (2) uninterrupted recitation, (3) written recitation, (4) chronological tables, (5) recitation from maps, (6) recitation by question and answer, (7) special reports, (8) volunteer recitations, (9) historical essays, and (10) collateral reading. It is the judgment of the writer that the methods given are methods used in secondary schools in exceptional cases.

Silent Forces At Work Tending To Produce Change

During this period many silent forces were at work that were to influence history teaching. Probably the most significant was that the teachers were becoming more largely a trained body of workers. The normal schools had increased in number and enlarged their curriculum. The German influence in the normal school was potent. Many who had chosen teaching as a profession studied abroad and returned as disciples of Pestalozzi and Herbart to add to the already powerful German influence.

The Herbartian pedagogy made history the core of the school curriculum. This increased the importance of history as a factor in public schools. The Herbartians' points of emphasis
were:

1. Made contacts with people or social activity the basis for three of the six typical human interests, viz. sympathetic interest; social interest; religious interest.
2. Proposed the adapting of instruction to the child's past experience.
3. Proposed correlation and intercorrelation of school subjects.
4. Made social values the basis for determining the subject matter most worth while.
5. Said social activities were to be cultivated because social values were the end of education.
6. Emphasized social life as that in which adults must participate.
7. Said history should help children to be thoroughly and intelligenty interested in the individual and in the concerns of society. (Develop responsibility in citizenship)
8. Emphasized the teaching of history and literature for moral training. History material and story was to develop moral ideas and sentiments. History narrated the actual progress of the race, the literature pictured the ethical conflict in imaginative form.

The Herbartian Society was organized in 1892. This was later to be continued as the National Society for the Study of Education.

The Herbartian influence was joined to that of Spencer's essay on "What Knowledge Is Of Most Worth", which appeared in 1859. Spencer made the aim of education complete living. Complete living manifests itself in five different sorts of activity. One sort of activity is involved in the maintenance of proper social and political relations. History in its political, economic, and social aspects is to prepare for this sort of activity. History should be studied primarily as descriptive sociology, rather than as a list of wars, kings, and political events. Growing out of the influence of Spencer, sociology developed as an influential course in colleges. Descriptive sociology came to be one of the basic factors for the
study of group life. Out of descriptive sociology emerged educational sociology, suggesting a new basis for determining educational objectives, and urging a new emphasis on individual participation in group activity.

The combined influence of Herbart and Spencer gave history a consideration in educational circles in United States that it had not heretofore known. History teaching directed by educators was to have an enlarged field and purpose. Its growth was to come more from an attempt to attain a goal set than from the spontaneous expression of public sentiment.

The influence of the normal school in bringing about the professionalizing of teaching was supplemented. The University of Iowa in 1873 established the first chair of education. By 1890 seven other chairs of education were established in universities. Thus almost parallel to the development of separate chairs of history and the emphasis on teaching United States history in colleges came the development of chairs of education. The chairs of history were to study the content of history, collect historical data, suggest what to teach; the chairs of education were to study the problems of how to teach history and why. The influence of the chairs of history, as a prominent force in public opinion and education, made itself manifest in the organization of the American Historical Association in 1884.
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CHAPTER IV
UNITED STATES HISTORY TEACHING 1890 TO 1912

Proposals For Change In History Teaching

Committees and Conference Reports

Up to 1890 the course in history in the elementary school had been almost wholly in the hands of the authors of the textbooks. In most cases these authors were not teachers or educators. This was now to be changed. In the change the new interest manifest by the normal schools in the teaching of history in the elementary schools and the expansion of American history teaching in universities were potent influences. In the twenty-five years following the Civil War the college teacher of history rapidly gained prominence and influence. Soon after the organization of the American Historical Association, a movement was started in Madison, Wisconsin, December 1891, to consider the question of history teaching in the public schools. As a national organization, it was in a position to speak with authority on the subject. The college professor of history was to take control of organizing the United States history course in the public school.

In 1892, the National Education Association created the Committee of Ten with instructions to organize conferences for the discussion of the various school subjects that enter into the program of the secondary school in the United States, and into the requirements for admission of secondary school students to college. The American Historical Association, being interested in improving the history teaching, called a conference in 1892
on history, civil government, and political economy, which met at Madison, Wisconsin, and recommended a complete program of history for the public school, both elementary and secondary. This report called for eight years of history, four in the elementary school and four in high school. The history teaching was to begin when the child was about eleven years of age or in the fifth grade. The first two years were to consist of biography and mythology. The third year or the seventh grade was American history and Civics, the fourth year was to be Greek and Roman history with oriental connections. For comparison of representative history courses proposed see Table A at close of this chapter. This report seems to have been the first official recognition of the continuity of the history in the elementary and secondary school courses. The report seems to have sought precedent in American practice. The recommendations did not go beyond the practice in some of the better schools of the country.

The Committee of Ten accepted the recommendation of the Madison Conference and thus added its influence to the proposal. The plan of basing recommendation upon the practice in the better schools really placed the leadership for improvement with the local school. The men in the field, not the specialist in college, were leading the way. All cooperative efforts of this period to improve the history program for American schools seem to have sought precedent in practice. This plan may have imposed limitations in that an ideal course, the result of combined opinion was not produced. It is however more difficult
to induce schools to accept a composite ideal than to get them to follow the practice in other places. The approval of the committees of the exceptional things being done in schools gave publicity and created a basis for imitation. To follow the program of progressive places soon became a fad.

The report was favorably received as a whole. A few criticisms indicate certain trends that are significant. It was said that the report placed too much emphasis on history work as training, especially that analysis and comparison lead to development of judgment, and not enough emphasis on putting pupils in right relationship in the community. C. A. McMurray denied that training was an end in education. He said, "The highest value in history comes in its ability to awaken desires by presenting ideals which pupils learn to love". It was also said that the conference had supplied no principle to guide in making a wise choice of facts to be taught. The report with the discussion it provoked, aroused an enlarged interest in history teaching both in the elementary and secondary schools.

The National Education Association in 1892 appointed a Committee of Fifteen on elementary education. This committee reported in 1895 and recommended oral lessons in biography and general history, sixty minutes per week, for the eight years of the elementary school. In addition to the oral history five textbook lessons per week on the history of United States up to the adoption of the constitution were to be taught in the seventh grade and first half of the eighth. The last half of the eighth grade was to be given to a study of the Constitution.
The remaining portion of the history of United States was to be left for the pupils to read at home.

In 1895, the National Education Association appointed a Committee of Twelve on rural schools. The Committee of Twelve reported in 1897. This report also called for eight years of history in elementary grades but with somewhat different grouping from that suggested by the Committee of Fifteen. The history in the rural schools was to be divided into four groups of two years each:

Group I, Ages 5-7, Stories of biography, history and travel with pictures.
Group II, Ages 7-9, Stories of eminent characters and memorable events. Current events.
Group III, Ages 9-11 Extension of Group II and reading in United States history
Group IV, Ages 11-13 (a) Selected epochs of general history with a study of leading characters.
(b) American history

In 1899, the New England Teachers' Association recommended a course of history for elementary grades of two cycles. The first cycle began with the second grade and extended to the sixth. The work was to consist of Greek, Roman, and Norse mythology, stories and biographies of Hebrews, Greeks, Romans, Europeans, English, and Americans. The second cycle, beginning with the sixth grade, consisted of a revision and expansion of the first cycle, followed by a textbook study of English and American history. The work of the early grades was to be correlated with English or language work, and the work of the upper grades correlated with geography.

In 1896 the American Historical Association appointed the Committee of Seven to further consider the course of history
in secondary schools and college entrance requirements. The report was made in 1899 and included history work for grades five, six, seven, and eight. Lucy M. Salmon, a member of this committee made a study of history below the secondary school and published the results of her study as an appendix to the report of the Committee of Seven. She proposed that history begin in the third grade. The summary of work proposed is given in a table at the close of the chapter. The reports of committees and conferences had a tendency to change the course in history from a purely textbook course to an outline course using several or many texts.

Individual Contributions

We have seen that the committee reports were largely based upon the practice of the more progressive schools. It seems only fair to assume that the practice in these schools was to some degree influenced by books dealing with methods of teaching history, provided these contain suggestions that were practical. These may be considered as individual proposals as contrasted with conference reports. The added interest in history showed itself in this period in books of method and courses of study suggested by individuals.

Following the report of the Committee of Ten, there came from the press, in 1893, a book on "How To Study and Teach History", by R. A. Hinsdale. This book discussed the educational value of history, the field of history, and the choice of facts, methods of teaching, organization of facts, and cause and effect
in history. The values of history were given as guidance, discipline, culture, and motive power. History furnishes a motive power through biography and example. Patriotic sentiment was listed as a motive power. The discussion of the guidance value was based upon the statement from Diodorus, who styled "History as a hand maid of Providence, a priestess of truth, and a mother of life". The historical facts were to be grouped into periods and organized to show time or chronological relations, place or geographical relations, and causal relations. The plan of assigning by topic was proposed. The book was widely used as reference for teaching in secondary schools. It was, however, too general and abstract, and too largely influenced by the classical and philosophical, to give much assistance to the elementary classroom teacher. The main part of the book was a discussion of content rather than method and organization. In a sense it was a somewhat expanded discussion of an outline of American history.

This book stands in rather marked contrast to two books that appeared in 1897, both by teachers of history in college, but embodying much more of the spirit of change that was apparent in public school circles. The first was a book entitled "Method in History" by Wm. H. Mace. A few quotations from the book will be suggestive of the content. The author presented the phases of history as political, religious, educational, industrial, and social. The central principle of history is the growth of institutional life. "Interpretation is the process by which the mind puts meaning or content into individual facts."
To discover the means of growth is to find cause. "In order to accomplish definite results, the end toward which we work must be clearly in mind." The ends may be expressed in terms of discipline or knowledge.

1. "On the side of discipline: (a) The primary object is to confer the habit of judging men's thoughts and feelings through their acts. (b) A secondary end is to give the mind the habit of careful observation.

2. On the side of knowledge: (a) The primary object is to give the mind material out of which the imagination may construct pictures of historical events. (b) The secondary purpose, or rather result, is to give a more thorough knowledge of local institutions." (8)

Discipline comes from the practice of ranking men and events. Interpretation develops historical judgment. Proper interpretation gives emotional results as awakened interest, intelligent patriotism, and right attitudes and relationships having a moral value. On the side of organization the author suggests that historical facts are of different value in relation to the central principle of growth of institutions, making necessary a fundamental principle of selection for emphasis. Concerning method he says, "Most of the so-called methods of teaching such as the topical, the outline, the diagram, and the brace method, are based merely on the relation of the whole to the part". A student must understand before he can rightfully diagram. The diagram has little use after the relation is mastered. Outlines and diagrams are means but not of a high order. He emphasized the fact that material for elementary grades should be presented in story or narrative form. The visual side of history should be made prominent. Assignment
should be made in terms of a picture as "Read the story of the Boston Tea Party until you can see with your eyes shut the acts of the people from beginning to end". This is to be supplemented by questions that call forth thought, conclusions, proving. The whole plan is to get understanding, not memorizing. He suggests reading more than one account, and that the subjects of geography and history in material and point of view are practically the same. He further encourages much first hand contact with local institutions.

An Outline of "Method in History," by Ellwood W. Kemp came from the press in 1897. This book has many points in common with the Race book but each has its own individuality. Kemp's book may be characterized by a few summary statements. History presents a growing life of the race, showing changes in both physical and mental conditions. These changes come as a result of a struggle with obstacles. The present grows out of the past and conditions the future. There is a genesis and growth of institutions, religious, political, etc.

The stream of history is an ever enlarging one. "In making up our image of that which is common to the whole internal movement in history we see the unity of history, but qualities of the unbroken stream were added one at one time, others at another. The period of time during which some particular overshadowing, ruling and pervasive thought and feeling governs the movement of the human race's life, is an epoch in history." We measure history and epochs, hence the need of dates. Because of the continuity of history, the best view of American
history is based on a general view of European history from its early beginning to the discovery of the New World. For his proposed course see Table 1 at close of chapter. History is presented as a life movement of men in society—a movement showing many phases of development. It is impossible to study every event in this movement hence a need of selecting material.

Turn history into problems such as "How long did it take the Roger Williams idea to grow until it was embodied in the United States Constitution?" Select historical material to illustrate the historical movement under consideration. There is a many sided view of any question considered—economical, political, social, religious, etc. History has a value in developing character, it presents moral lessons by showing the individual and institutions in true relationship and by awakening in pupils a desire to purify his material life; it has a disciplinary value coming from training in judging historical truths; it makes the pupil open minded and a searcher for truth. As to method, outline is of little aid. Material should be arranged logically, be concrete and addressed to imagination, be symbolical, dramatic, and expressed in clear concise language aided by pictures and objects. History must be closely related to geography. Time may be economized by coordinating history with other subjects. A well selected library is indispensable. Select the story, picture, biography, poem, speech, historical movement and which exhibits the strongest and highest qualities."

In 1898, Emily J. Rice of the Chicago Institute proposed a program of history teaching based on the culture-epoch theory
and suggested the correlation of history and literature with such constructive activity as building of models of primitive houses and reproduction of primitive art and inventions. Each step in the course follows closely the experience of the child and corresponding experience of the race. Below the fifth grade the child was to be brought in contact with the industrial efforts and social activities of the community in order to understand the present economic and social organization. Following this was to be studied how the city came into being and how the early colonial settlements were made. At the beginning of the sixth grade a study was to be made of the period of discovery and the history of the cities whose maritime enterprise led to the discovery of America. The seventh grade was to study the customs and ideals of the early settlers of America and beginning with Roman history trace development as far as the Renaissance. The eighth grade was to study the development of the present social and industrial conditions, emphasizing what brought them about.

The reports of committees and the books dealing with methods and suggested courses of study in history were widely read by teachers and those in charge of the schools. These had an influence upon the practice of teaching but a difficult problem was presented in the variety of suggestions for change in practice. If the proposed content of a course was embodied in a textbook for class use, the practice was varied to fit the plan of the text used. The proposals were varied. In the schools there was no coherent or continuous course required. There was
no special unifying force. The preparation of teachers in normal schools and universities was not unified. Nowhere had standardization become a fetish. Following the period 1892-1898, which had produced so many reports, individual proposals, and books of method, there was a lull in the proposals for elementary schools for a decade save for the supplementary report of Lucy M. Salmon in connection with the report of the Committee of Seven in 1899. In the meantime superintendents of schools, teachers, and associations of teachers were giving attention to the history program.

The Committee of Eight

In 1905 the American Historical Association appointed the Committee of Eight to consider the history program in the elementary school. This study was made because of the recognition of the need of special guidance on the part of elementary teachers. The committee spent five years in study and investigation in order to find a simple practical program that might be carried out and which would assist in getting a more uniform program of history in the elementary school. A survey was made to get information concerning the history programs in the elementary school. The committee seems to have worked on the assumption that history and kindred subjects ought to be substantially studied in each of the eight elementary grades. The report, made in 1909, gave a syllabus of history for an eight year course. For summary of content see Table A, page 58. There were suggestions for modes of treatment as well as suggestions
for civics in grades five to eight inclusive. The following excerpts and summary statements are intended to give the trend in point of view.

The leading aim in history teaching is to help the child to appreciate what his fellows are doing and to help him to intelligent voluntary action in agreement or disagreement with them. The proposal was based on the "proposition that history teaching in the elementary school should be focused around American history. But we do not mean to imply that American history signifies an account of events alone which occurred in America." The proposal was not an attempt to standardize history in the elementary school but was a grouping of work so broad and yet so flexible that it will afford a basis of a sound and logical presentation in any of the varying conditions found in the elementary schools. The course was not visionary but adapted to "the capacities of teachers as they exist"....

"It is proposed to utilize these capacities, not that we are committed to accept their present practices, but that we aim to stimulate them along the lines of which they are capable."......
"We are convinced that the grouping of subject matter for the several grades will better serve the purpose of all history teaching in the grades." (17)

The committee considered the question of coordination.

"What contribution to the purely historical narrative can the study of geographical environment offer? How may pupils be brought into the more complete realization of their duties as young citizens through the elementary lessons in government? "What literary productions, inspired by historical events or interpretive of their significance, can enlarge the pupils' vista? "What illuminations do creations of great artists bring to these same pupils? And above all what range of mental experience will give us the sympathetic, well-informed teacher of the subject?" (18)

In dealing with method the following is representative:
"Material equipment is of little value unless the teacher has the proper vital equipment."

1. "There must be a clearly defined knowledge of subject matter."
2. "Proper organization of subject-matter involves the historical spirit and judicial temper.
3. But something more than scholarship and power of history interpretation is involved. The teacher must have 'a sympathetic insight into the needs, interest, capacities, and knowledge of the learner'". (20)

In grades four and five the biographical element is emphasized. "Leaders, heroes, and patriots should be identified with great movements and important situations."

In grades seven and eight "Only typical events should receive emphasis and these should be so grouped and so presented as to make definite and vivid impressions". The class should not confine work to one text. Assignments were to be made from the standpoint of topics rather than pages.

This report shows a much larger element of patriotism than most of the other proposals. This no doubt is due to the fact that the report was more largely influenced by the current practice of teaching.

Proposed Changes Influence Practice

In 1911 a little volume came from the press entitled "History in the Elementary School", by W. F. Bliss. This presented a course of study, a bibliography, and methods for pupils and teachers. The author says this history course was in use in the training school of the State Normal School, San Diego, California, before the report of the Committee of Eight. It may therefore be considered as typical of the practice of an individual school representing those leading in progress.
The following gives a summary view of the course:

**Primary grades 1 to 4**

Primitive civilization, presenting simple, realistic, dramatic and correct accounts of clothing, food preparation, social organization, religion, games, and method of warfare. All facts were presented concretely.

**Grades 5 and 6**

The work dealt with the civilization of medieval and the early modern period as found in England, France, Spain, Holland, Switzerland, Germany, and the American colonies. It presented the background of American history. Stories, anecdotes, episodes, and accounts of personages were used. The logical and chronological factors begin to be prominent. The ideas developed and the movements studied are general and universal.

**Grades 7 and 8**

In these grades, American history was studied with civics at the close of each year. The civics study began with the local community, the city, township, then to state and nation. The topical method was used, assignment being made from outline, and library method of study. The pupils made abstracts of reading and lectures, kept notebooks, and made scrapbooks. The plans called for drawings or illustrations, sand-table work, clay modelling, construction, and dramatics.

The bibliography contained many references to the books which, since about 1890, had been appearing with material suitable for elementary school pupils. Representative of these may be mentioned Ten Boys, Seven Little Sisters, the Doolp Books. Both Kemp and Hace had referred to books of this type.

**New Industrial And Economic Emphasis**

While in the public schools history teaching was slowly expanding, in the world of affairs a new type of history was being made. A world was being transformed by great industrial and economic changes. Since our ideas and points of view are in a sense merely the representation of broad social trends, changes in point of view were to be expected. Changes in point of view grow out of changing conditions. The changes in the
world were having their influence upon the historical view point as well as an influence upon the methods and emphasis in teaching history. Each period and to some extent each generation looks upon history in a somewhat different way and selects certain things for emphasis because of the changes in society and manner of living that modify the point of view. Among teachers of history in college, there was being accepted a new point of view as to history and what to emphasize. J. H. Robison in a little volume appearing in 1911, entitled the "New History" gives the following significant statements:

"Should a student of the past be asked what he regarded as the most original and far reaching discovery of modern times, he might reply with some assurance that it is our growing realization of the fundamental importance and absorbing interest of common men and common things. Our democracy with all its hopes and aspirations, is based on an appreciation of common men; our science, with all its achievements and prospects is based on the appreciation of common things." "Industry has become exceedingly interesting and worthy." (23)

"We may assume that two factors have been specially potent in developing human heritage of culture, these are language and tools." (24)

"The history of man, then, begins with his industries; and I am not sure that his industries, in a broad sense of the term, have not always constituted as good a single test of his general civilization as can be found." (25)

"But two great truths were gradually dawning on the more thoughtful. One was the importance of the seemingly homely, common, and inconspicuous things about them; the other was the possibility of making use of our knowledge of common things to promote the general welfare." (25)

"The story of modern invention and of its revolutionary effects on our life and ideals of progress cannot even be sketched here. But it is infinitely more absorbing and vital than the record of kings, conquests, and treaties, and the deliberations and decrees of public assemblies, which have so long been regarded as constituting orthodox history."
"So it has come about that the tool has again come into its own as the agent and symbol of man's progress." (28)

In the Elementary School of the School of Education of the University of Chicago John Dewey was developing a new viewpoint. He said that school is a miniature society, i.e., school is life. School is not preparing for citizenship but being a citizen, participating in activity. His idea was "that industrial activities are the most influential factors in determining the thought, ideals, and social organization of any people". For this reason, industrial activity ought to have a large place in the work of school. Dewey taught history in elementary grades by providing for social participation and motor expression through historical construction work in tracing the development of primitive industries to the present time. He said, "When history is conceived as dynamic, as moving, its economic and industrial aspects are emphasized".

Economy of Time Demands Consideration

The cry for efficiency in the business world had an echo in education. President Eliot of Harvard had called the attention of the National Education Association to the waste of time in education. As a result of the discussion of the waste of time, a committee of the National Education Association was appointed to consider the economy of time in the public schools, largely dealing with the question of minimum essentials in the various subjects. The consideration and discussion of the problem of economy of time in public schools was nationwide. The question of economy of time involved the following
major problems:

1. "What is the aim and purpose of education?
2. What material to use or teach in attaining the aim?
3. How best organize and present the materials to secure best results?
4. What school organization is best adapted to secure largest results?
5. How measure the school product?

The problems involved were studied by committees of teachers, by departments of education in colleges, and by public school administrators. On the side of organization, grades seven and eight became the point of attack and chief criticism. The public school administrators in an attempt to make the upper grade work more efficiently developed the junior high school movement. The question of economy of time in public school subjects led to a consideration of the reorganizing of the curriculum.

In the subject of elementary school history a consideration of minimum essentials brought to the foreground at once two significant questions, viz., what topics or material to teach, and how to determine what to teach. To answer these it was necessary to determine somewhat definitely the aim or purpose of teaching history. The consideration of the aim of history teaching was now to receive much attention.

The Influence of Industrial Life and Organization

The influence of social life upon trends of educational thought may further be noted. The period of expansion and development of industry had been accompanied by the coming of large numbers of immigrants. The cities had sprung up as if by
magic. Government was in the hands of the people. The emphasis upon democracy accompanied by the privilege and opportunity for the individual to make a fortune and thus become influential in community and state brought a new mania for wealth and power. The cities as the centers of industry and population became flagrantly corrupt. The city became a menace to democracy. The cities also had the best organized school systems, the best trained teachers. According to the theories of Spencer and Herbart history teaching was to prepare for citizenship or to fit one to better live in society. In Germany, the history course in the lower schools was organized with a definite purpose and came from the leaders of education. In United States the teaching of history had developed without any guiding force other than public opinion. The people believed that education should be practical, that it should bring better conditions. This was a sentiment rather than an understanding or plan of procedure. The conditions everywhere showed a need of improved citizenship. The leaders of thought, as we have seen, were considering ways and means for improving the school, making them more efficient. It was apparent to all thoughtful persons that the teaching of history was not functioning to the extent needed in the life of men and women to produce good citizens. The trend pointed out above to put emphasis in history upon the industrial phases with its accompanying group action and necessary cooperation and interdependence tended to center attention on the present life, the past being used to show how the present developed. The result
was a convergence of influences toward community life and citizenship. The first attempt to put these converging trends in the form of a textbook appeared in 1907, entitled "The Community and Citizen", written by W. A. Dunn.

Henry Johnson, writing in 1915, said the trend was away from history to social studies of direct and immediate concern to individual communities, public health, housing, good roads, these are of greater importance than how people lived in the past. Attention centered on the vital present problems. The question then becomes not what in the past is important in representing and explaining the past but what in the past is important to us in explaining how the present came out of the past.

While Johnson has no doubt indicated correctly the trend in theory in this period, yet history occupied the dominant place among subjects commonly thought of as contributing to the preparation of a pupil for citizenship. The significance of history material was conceded by all, the difference in point of view arose over what material to use and how organize and use it. The historians would add more government or political history for civic instruction and shift emphasis from the military events to industrial, adding topics such as manufacturing, agriculture, banking, and transportation. On the other hand there was beginning to arise a demand for a new curriculum of social science. In the National Education Association report of the Committee on the Social Studies, the influences tending to produce a social science curriculum first appeared as championed by an organization of educators.
Proposed History Courses Of The Period

Table A on the following pages presents a comparison of representative history courses of this period proposed by committees and individuals. The grade placement of content proposed by individuals and groups is shown. Each of these proposals has been discussed in the foregoing pages of this chapter. This view should make evident the trend toward a uniform content and also the lack of agreement with reference to grade placement.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1892-94 Committee of Ten</th>
<th>1892-95 Committee of Fifteen</th>
<th>1895-97 Committee of Twelve, Rural Schools</th>
<th>1896 E. W. Kemp</th>
<th>1896-99 Lucy Salmon, of the Committee of Seven</th>
<th>1905-09 Committee of Eight</th>
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<td>Oral lessons in biography and general history. Textbook, U. S. History to 1789. Also 1/2 year in Civics.</td>
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<td>English History.</td>
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<td>American History.</td>
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BIBLIOGRAPHY OF QUOTATIONS

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27. Ibid., p. 149, 150
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CHAPTER V

UNITED STATES HISTORY TEACHING 1912 TO THE PRESENT

Factors Influencing Change and Problems of the Period

The Influence of the Study of Education

During the period from 1890-1912, the practice of teaching history in grades seven and eight had been most largely influenced both as to content and method by the teachers of history in college. This had been accomplished through reports of committees and especially through new history textbooks written by teachers of history and by books on how to teach history. The enormous expansion of the American public school both in number enrolled and the work offered had brought with it the expansion of the study of education which was evident in the size and number of departments of education in colleges and universities. In the study of the problem of teaching, two attitudes had gained prominence. There was a revolt against the memorizing of encyclopedic facts and an insistence that unrelated facts are worthless. Facts were of value only when related or associated with other facts in thinking, to give understanding and solve problems. There was also an insistence that learning is an active, not a passive, process leading to a demand for pupil activity and pupil participation. If there were to be pupil activity with interest and motive, the material must be adapted to child interest and largely connected with the present and local situations. If school was life then efficiency in life must be sought. Efficiency in school meant organizing for efficiency in living. Life is carried on in the social group. These points of view were to have their influence
on the developments that there were to take place in history teaching. The realization of the need of better citizens, the desire to improve the efficiency of the schools, the recognition of possible and necessary methods of procedure to accomplish the desired goal, produced a period prolific in proposals and with a wide range of experiments looking to the improvement of results in training citizens and teaching history.

Further Individual Contributions

One of the first books of the period, appearing in 1914, was "How to Teach American History", by John W. Wayland. This book was intended for a textbook in normal schools and teacher training classes in secondary schools. It placed the emphasis upon the why of studying history and the methods of procedure in the classroom. The reasons given for studying history we summarize as follows:

1. For the pleasure of it.
2. For the knowledge it supplies.
3. As an aid to the appreciation of other things.
4. As a means to better understand self.
5. To broaden our sympathies with others.
6. To make us more efficient citizens.

It renewed the emphasis of former books upon clearness, concreteness, vividness, and the use of library, pictures, costumes, models, relics, dramatics, and excursions. The presentation aimed to show that the understanding of history depends in a measure upon geography and is related to literature, music, art, government, ethics, sociology, economics, and social science. The teacher was to keep constantly before her the moral and human elements of history. The phases emphasized
that had not been so specifically presented in former books on teaching history were the teacher's lesson plans, mnemonic devices for review and recreational study, and plans for the teacher helping pupils to study.

In 1915 C. A. McCurley presented his "Special Methods in History", which was an attempt to apply the principles of the recitation outlined in his "Methods of the Recitation". In reality it was the outline of a historical course for the grades, pointing out with definiteness the material in each year and proceeding to estimate the value and fitness of the matter selected for each grade. It goes farther than former books in explaining the why or educational value of types of work. It suggests incorporating primitive industries, as weaving and constructive work with history, in order to get closer to the life of that day, both as to understanding and as to sharing the emotional life. From such presentations, he finds a basis for the aims of history instruction. The aims which are made prominent are not different from those found elsewhere but are put into somewhat different terminology. History instruction is in part to see how far children can relive the past. In living, feelings and emotions are more dominant than complete understanding. It is to bring the past into manifest relationship to the present. History aims to socialize the child, thus make him more rewardful of the interests of others--less selfish. History presents illustrations of moral ideas and obligations and should clarify and purify the sentiment of patriotism.

History study produces a kind of mental discipline and develops
reasoning and judgment by practice. History is full of problems. The chance to solve a problem gives opportunity for the use of the development method of recitation which aids in teaching to think—thought comes from a struggle with difficult situations. The material selected should be organized into big units. The leading topics should be selected from the life of the common people. He does not favor the cycle plan of presentation.

The National Education Association Considers History Teaching

The trend toward substituting social science for history which had been noted in the last period was given new impetus by a report of the National Education Association in 1916. This report was entitled "The Social Studies in Secondary Education", and was a part of the report of a commission considering the reorganizing of secondary education. This report is presented here because by this time grades seven and eight have become considered a part of the reorganized secondary school, which includes grades seven to twelve inclusive.

This report was made after three years of study. The committee through the cooperation of the United States Bureau of Education had attempted to get in touch with the experience and thought of the teaching force of the entire country. There was an attempt to give more than the personal opinion of the members of the committee. The report illustrated what the committee thought was a definite trend in actual practice. It may be that the wide spread influence of this report was due to the fact that the aim formulated and procedure suggested in
organizing and teaching history was summarized practice which served as an example rather than theory detached from practice.

The following excerpts from the report are given as indicative of the significant trends which the committee saw in practice.

"The social studies are understood to be those whose subject matter relates directly to the organization and development of human society, and to man as a member of the social groups." .... (1)

"The keynote of modern education is 'Social efficiency'"..... "The social studies afford peculiar opportunity for training of the individual as a member of society."...."The social studies should have for their constant and conscious purpose the cultivation of good citizenship." (2) "The social studies should cultivate a sense of membership in the 'world community'." (3)

"The social studies require 'socialization' quite as much as other studies. This is of greater moment than the number of social studies offered or the number of hours assigned to each."...."Unless the subject matter and methods of instruction are adapted to the pupil's immediate needs of social growth, such attempts avail little."...."The selection of topics and the organizing of subject matter should be determined in each case by immediate needs." (4).....

"It means that instruction should be given at the psychological and social moment when the boy's interests are such as to make the instruction function effectively in his processes of growth." (5)

The committee recommended the cycle plan of organization.

There were two three year cycles preceded by an earlier six-year cycle.

"Geography, history, and civics are the social subjects that find a proper place in the seventh, eighth, and ninth years. The geography should be closely correlated with the history and civics; and should be thoroughly socialized.".... "It is the belief of the committee that the organization should be adapted to local circumstances and that no one plan should be recommended as best for every case." (6)

The following alternative plans are suggested:
Seventh year:
(1) Geography, one-half year
    European history, one-half year
    Civics, taught as a phase of the above and other
    subjects, or segregated in one or two periods a week.
Or, (2) European history, one year
    Geography, taught incidental to and as a factor in
    the history
    Civics, taught as above.

Eighth year:
    American history, one-half year
    Civics, one-half year
    Geography, taught incidental to, and as a factor in the
    above subjects.

Ninth year:
(1) Civics, one-half year (Continuation of Civics in eighth
    year)
    Civics, economic and vocational aspects, one-half year
    History, much use made of history in relation to the civics.
Or, (2) Civics, economic and vocational
    Economic history
    To be taught one year, in sequence or parallel. (7)

In a discussion of principles underlying history instruction, what history to teach is considered.

"The ideal history for each of us would be those facts of past human experience to which we should have recourse oftener in our endeavors to understand ourselves and our fellows. It is only to be wished that a greater number of historians had greater skill in hitting upon those phases of the past which serve us best in understanding the most vital problems of the present." (8)

"One of our chief troubles in teaching history comes from the old idea that history is a record of past events; whereas our real purpose nowadays is to present past conditions, explain them as far as we can, and compare them with our own." (9)

"There is a general agreement that history to be of value must 'function in the present'. Disagreement arises over two questions: 1. "What is meant by 'functioning in the present'? 2. How shall the material of history be organized to this end?" (10)

There are two interpretations of the phrase functioning in the present. According to the sociological interpretation it is enough if history be made to explain present conditions and institutions; according to the pedagogical interpretation
history to function must be related to the present interest of the pupil. The principle for determining what history to teach is stated thus:

"The selection of a topic in history and the amount of attention given it should depend, not merely upon its relative proximity in time, nor yet upon its relative present importance from the adult or from a sociological point of view, but also and chiefly upon the degree to which such topics can be related to the present life interests of the pupils, or can be used by him in his present processes of growth." (11)

The committee by stating the principle did not solve the problem of the organization of the history course. "What history does meet the needs of the child's growth? And, how may a given topic be related to the child's interests? These are questions that each teacher must answer for her particular group, if she accepts the principle stated. "The problem is only in part one of selection of topics; it is also one of method of approach." The problem of approach and organization is very largely the responsibility of the teacher. The teacher, not the outline of topic or the textbook content, is the vital factor in teaching. Is the elementary teacher prepared successfully to meet such a responsibility? The committee recognized the difficulties in the way of having its plan carried out. It made its recommendations "in the hope that they would stimulate initiative and experiment rather than discourage effort at immediate improvement". The committee attempted to present trends in actual practice. These trends in a sense then expressed the direction in which change was moving. It showed the influence of the point of view of the educator rather than the historian.
Some of the key phrases in the report of 1916 are "social efficiency", "good citizenship", "a sense of membership in the world community", and "socialization". The content of the course proposed was to be "adapted to the immediate needs of social growth". The topics and the organization were to be determined by immediate needs. All this was for the purpose of having history function in the present. The report used much space in stating certain assumed principles. It left still to be determined what history to teach and how to organize the content in order that it be adapted to "social growth" and the immediate needs of the pupils. It gave no course of procedure for selecting materials. The unanswered questions were significant and might be attacked either by research or experiment, or both.

Research Applied To The Problems Of History Teaching

The course of study in history heretofore had been largely the textbook used. The author of the textbook selected the facts to be taught. The organization and emphasis of the material was determined by his judgment. Each text varied from others. The consideration of the question of minimum essentials implied that there might be a body of essential significant facts which were not dependent upon any author's opinion or judgment. If the individual opinions of authors were not to be relied upon to determine the facts and points of view, some method must be discovered to ascertain the minimum essential facts. Again the consideration of minimum essentials suggested
uniformity or standardization of facts or material used. The question of aim or purpose of teaching history was also involved. The purpose to be attained would largely influence the selection of information. The Report of the Committee on Social Studies in 1916 had given "social efficiency" and good citizenship as the aims. These were not, however, sufficiently definite in meaning to serve as a criteria for selecting the subject matter for a minimum essential course.

The problem of economy of time in public schools had been centered on grades seven and eight. This presented the question of determining how much and what United States history should be taught in these grades. An attempt to evaluate different methods for determining the particular subject matter in United States history in these grades was made by Bagley and others at the University of Illinois. Their efforts were directed toward finding a criteria or method to use with validity in selecting the particular items to be taught. The first plan used was the newspaper-magazine method. Current newspapers and magazines were read and the historical references tabulated. The frequency of these references determined the relative importance. The material thus collected could be organized on the basis of chronology into periods of history. This material, organized and properly taught, would give a basis for understanding current literature.

The results of the newspaper-magazine procedure lead to a consideration of what topics in history have been common to elementary United States history courses in the past. A study
of texts would give names and topics common to different texts. These common topics represent a consensus of opinion of authors. This material might be looked upon as a measure of the minimum essentials in the subject as taught. Twenty-five elementary textbooks in United States history, published between 1865 and 1912, were used for study. This study was published as Bulletin No. 16 of the School of Education, University of Illinois.

The tabulation was made to show the topics that were receiving more emphasis in the recent books, also those topics which were receiving a smaller amount of attention. The recommendations of the Committee of Eight were compared with the tabulations made from the texts. The tabulation of the contents of the different texts examined in the study made evident the dominance of a certain type of material and showed trends in use. These are as follows:

1. The history of the seventh and eighth grades is predominantly political and military.
2. Military affairs began to receive less emphasis in books published between 1881 and 1884.
3. Later books give a perceptibly greater emphasis to facts of economic and industrial development, although political development still constitutes the essential core.
4. Persons whose names are most frequently mentioned are those intimately associated with political development and military and naval affairs.

The authors of the study indicated the influence the history in grades seven and eight has had on nationalism. The elementary textbooks in history present a common stock of information concerning development of the United States. Washington is quoted as saying,

"It has always been my ardent wish to see devised on a
liberal scale, a plan which would have the tendency to spread systematic ideas through all parts of this rising empire, thereby to do away with local attachments and state prejudice as far as the nature of things would or indeed ought to admit, from our national council". (14)

The textbooks in history have probably done much to discharge this function. The interpretation of the study expressed it thus:

"The fact is that the obvious influence of the elementary textbook in history today is distinctly toward the promotion of nationalism through giving to all the pupils who reach the seventh and eighth years of school life a common stock of information regarding national development. Even though much of this information is forgotten, there can be no doubt that the attitudes and points of view engendered by this systematic study have a profound influence upon collective thought and collective conduct in so far as these are concerned with national problems. So long as the function of elementary history continues to be predominantly the development of nationalism, the core of historic instruction will probably continue to be the political development of the nation." (14)

"If the primary function of history is otherwise conceived, however, and if a new conception is acceptable to the people, another type of organization may be, and doubtless will be devised. This is an issue that is fraught with consequences far too fundamental to be settled by any single group of individuals. Historians and educationists as single groups or cooperatively, may raise the question, but the decision must rest with the people." (14)

The last quotation suggests that there are possible limitations on the extent to which educators may be able to control public opinion. Education is much wider than school activities and there are many influences competing with the leadership of the schoolmaster. This survey of the content of history textbooks presented rather markedly the divergence of practice from what theory had indicated it ought to be. These initial contributions of research in this field led others to use research in the study of the present condition of history teaching in its relation to aims claimed. Dr. Ernest Horn of the University of Iowa attempted to discover whether the present
content of elementary history meets the needs involved in interpretation of present day problems. The study was made to examine the present content of the elementary history in the light of the claim that "the chief purpose of teaching history in the elementary school is to make pupils more intelligent with respect to the more crucial activities, conditions, and problems of present day life". In order to determine what are the crucial activities, conditions and problems of present day life he used the method of judgment of specialists. He asked the heads of the Departments of Political Science and Sociology and Economics of the State University of Iowa to make a list of such problems and to list under each the books which gave the most intelligent treatment of them. Books which were plainly historical in treatment were excluded. Twenty-seven books were analyzed to secure the following classes of data:

1. Percentage of historical material in each book.
2. The specific and approximate dates referred to.
3. The frequency of reference to each period of history. (The periods were chosen to correspond to those used by Bauley and Rugg.)
4. Historical characters referred to.
5. The frequency of reference to each of the more important phases of history. The author used for scoring these data taken from Langlois and Seignobos Introduction to the Study of History.
6. Movements, events, conditions, problems.

To supplement these data the historical material in 142 articles in the International Encyclopedia dealing with thirty-eight topics was checked and tabulated. The following statements give a few things from the results:
"The divergence between the list of individuals obtained by this study and that reported by Bagley and Rugg from textbooks is very striking. Fewer than 10% of the names reported as occurring most frequently in modern textbooks occur in the first 261 names taken from books on modern problems and from the encyclopedia. In fact, most of the names secured from modern textbooks were not reported by anybody, either in the analysis of the book or the analysis of the encyclopedia articles." (15)

"It must be kept in mind that the list does not pretend to be a measure of greatness of individuals. It is merely an indication that the individuals reported have to be reckoned with in considering modern problems." (16)

The frequency of mention of persons now living and the number of problems for these names is high. Roosevelt is more important than Napoleon, Samuel Gompers than Aaron Burr.

Assuming that history should render pupils more intelligent with regard to modern conditions, problems and activities, the data from this study indicate very conclusively that there is a great need for a reconstruction in the course. The material being used does not give a basis for understanding modern conditions, problems, and activities. Thus it was that out of the application of research to the problem of minimum essentials came information of an objective character of the inadequacy of the course in United States history as it existed.

The study of the content of the United States history texts was susceptible to empirical treatment which gave objective data. The problem of determining the proper aims or objectives of the history work did not readily lend itself to objective treatment. The aims must come from the opinions of men. The Seventeenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education contained a symposium representing the opinion
of seven prominent men as to the aims or objectives of elementary history. "Not what is but what ought to be" was the point at issue. All contributors agreed that it is important to teach history. There seemed to be a consensus of opinion that the material taught should be concrete. A few of the expressions used to indicate aims are given:

Arouse interest in local, national, and international affairs, develop an appreciation of progress, give insight into social problems, give pattern ideas, or ideals of citizenship, historical mindedness, a consciousness of membership in a continuing community, true patriotism, not nationalism, Internationalism in sense that a decent respect for opinion of others should suceede self-interest. Give understanding of what has been and stimulate interest and character through seeing the moral side of the hero's struggle against obstacles, social, political, and economic. All with one exception mentioned patriotism, loyalty, and citizenship in some form.

It will be observed that these aims were expressed by the contributors in two groups of words. The one group was social terms, as loyalty, patriotism, good citizenship, brotherhood, social justice, and fairness. The other group was individual or psychological terms, as habitual attitudes, interest, appreciations, insight, understanding, historical mindedness, and ideals. Except possibly in an indirect way no mention was made in the symposium of the use of history to enhance and enrich the use of leisure time. The Barley and Rugg study indicated that the chief function of history in the textbooks then used is to develop nationalism. It was claimed that the right kind of history is essential to the understanding of modern problems. The Horn study had shown the apparent inadequacy of the content of the texts that were in use, to attain the aim of understanding of such problems. In the symposium
what ought to be was somewhat clearly stated. Evidence ob-
tained from research studies indicated that most of the ob-
jectives stated were not being attained. Were the aims given
in the symposium the true aims? Could the present content of
the elementary history texts be reorganized to accomplish these
aims? Was there need of a new subject matter including material
from social subjects in order to attain these aims? These were
some of the unsolved problems growing out of the changing con-
ception of the function of elementary history.

The "World War Gives A New Emphasis To Citizenship"

The World War found the educators of United States
struggling with the problem of a curriculum of social science
for grades seven, eight, and nine.

"The American school had not yet learned how to provide
activities by which most of the children are brought into first
hand contact with local, National, and world affairs of a
social, industrial, and political nature." (17)

There was a difference in point of view of the historian and
those of the schools of education. The historian was interested
in ascertaining and disseminating accurate knowledge with re-
gard to the subject matter. The educator thought of the effect
of the body of material upon the intellectual habits and out-
look of the pupils. There was a need for these getting to-
gether. A difficulty in the way of cooperation was that both
groups were detached from the teaching of social science in
these grades. Both were writing about a task that other people
were doing.

It is evident from the foregoing that there was a growing
emphasis in theory upon citizenship training. The United States entered the World War in 1917. As a part of the war program, the government published "Lessons in Community and National Life". The purpose of the Lessons in Community and National Life as stated in the introduction is:

1. To lay foundation for an intelligent enthusiasm for United States.
2. To bring industry into the schools in a way which will appeal to the intelligence of pupils and will intellectualize all later contacts with practical affairs.
3. To create a sense of personal responsibility which can result only when the pupil is shown how his life is interdependent with the life of other members of society. (18)

"These lessons were an attempt to illustrate by descriptions of important community and national activities what conservation meant and to give pupils a background of fundamental political, social, and economic institutions." (19)

Historical material was included to give the pupils the necessary background of modern community life. These lessons have influenced the social-science curriculum by suggesting new subject matter and by the concrete method of presentation.

The lessons in Community and National Life laid emphasis upon the study of local institutions.

"A genuine study of community life must take up the familiar environment at the door of the classroom. The laboratory for these Lessons is in the home environment and industrial environment of the pupil."...."It is hoped that the Lessons will lead teachers and school officers to new efforts in the direction of a vital study of community life and that they will encourage publishers to bring together in available textbook form much material of a similar type." (20)

Social Science Courses Develop

This is an indication of the same trend that was evident in the report of 1916. The material used however was very
different from that of the ordinary history or civics. The feeling that all pupils must be made aware of the problems of social life was responsible for the growing demand for social science. Pupils of the elementary school must have a better understanding of the social phenomena about them. The problem facing the school was how to give this understanding. Was this understanding to come as a result of a study of the life of the community itself or did the community life of today grow out of the past and thus require a study of history to fully understand it? In what grades in school was this understanding to be given? Was this to be accomplished by adding another subject to the already crowded curriculum or could it be brought about by a modification of the material of geography, history, and civics to form a social science? There seemed to be somewhat of an agreement that the reorganization of the school producing the junior high school opened the way to put the desired work in the grades of the junior high school. This, however, is practically the only point on which there is anything like an unanimity of opinion. The Twenty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, issued in February, 1923, presented information concerning social science curriculums then in use in certain experimental or laboratory schools with a discussion of principles for reorganization. It also gave illustrations of the proposed reorganization.

The following suggested principles were given for preparing social science material in proper form.
"There must be a clear enunciation of those scientific relations which will make the pupil aware of the difference between facts and systematic comprehension." (21)

"They must have made clear to them the important relations around which they can group their experience." .... "A well organized course of study comes 'to be a series of systematically coherent relations' .... Pupils cannot think systematically about social phenomena if the discussion of these phenomena is mixed with all other kinds of matters." (22)

"History is organized around certain relations of sequence and national control which are not relevant to those relations of cooperative living which social studies must emphasize." "History will not serve the purpose of training pupils in social science. History has a different center of systematic organization. Geography cannot be the vehicle of social studies. Geography tends to pass over into the related sciences--geology, physics, biology, etc. Social studies must have a character of their own and be suited to the maturity of pupils." (23)

Representative Social Science Courses

The publication of the Twenty-second Yearbook, in February 1923, made more evident to what extent attempts were being made to modify the history work and make a social science curriculum. Experiments were widespread. There were proposals to make the organization of subject matter scientific. The curriculum must be built up by research. The important facts and problems must be found.

In the same month that the Twenty-second Yearbook was issued, the Directors of the Commonwealth Fund approved a grant for a study of the outstanding experiments in social science studies in the schools of United States. This study was made by J. Montgomery Gambrill, associate professor of history, Teachers College, Columbia University. According to the agreement, the report was to be "descriptive and analytical, rather than critical". In preparing for the survey, letters
asking for information were sent to about four hundred persons. Every possible effort was made to find the places which seemed to be doing work of unusual character in the social studies. Seventeen states were visited. The report published presented significant departures from the common practice, especially work of an experimental nature. This report included some experimental courses for social studies found in the Twenty-second Yearbook. Table B, at the close of this chapter, is an attempt to present, for the sake of comparison, the content of some of the outstanding proposed courses found in the Gambrill report and the Twenty-second Yearbook. In addition a brief summary is here given to show more clearly the trend in the changing conception of social science in the junior high school as it existed in 1923.

In the Laboratory Schools of the University of Chicago the eighth grade pupils study "Community Life and Civic Problems." This course "attempts to show the pupil his dependence on others and the dependence of others upon him as the most important fact in human life". It presents for study the most important institutions and problems of modern life. The ninth grade pupils are given a survey of World History. This is an attempt to present a unified and coherent view of the evolution of human progress. It includes a study of civilization from primitive times to the middle of the eighteenth century. Its purpose is "to give the pupils a clear conception of the great movements of history and an adequate understanding of typical civilizations of the past". The work is organized
into large units, "so that the more detailed materials are selected and learned in order to understand a definite topic or problem". The plan of instruction was formulated by Professor H. C. Morrison, Superintendent of the Laboratory Schools. There is correlation of studies and adapting to ability of pupils.

H. O. Rugg of Lincoln School of Teachers College proposes "to discover material that would stand the most rigorous tests of social value by means of an objective analysis of social needs." In order to find the permanent and important problems and issues of contemporary life, economic, industrial, social, and political, he sought the contributions of "the frontier thinkers" in these lines. Seventy men of prominence, economists, political scientists, sociologists, historians, anthropologists, and editors, were asked to suggest books containing a statement of problems and issues of the day. These, with others, ranked as distinctive in merit by the Book Review Digest and by reviews in six periodicals, were read and analyzed, more than two hundred in all. In this way were compiled three hundred contemporary problems, one hundred fifty issues, and about two thousand generalizations and principles. The problems have been arranged and grouped under major topics to form the main divisions of the course published under the title of "Social Science Pamphlets". "Adequate appreciation of the problems and issues of contemporary life is regarded as the chief goal to be sought in the teaching of social studies." The organization of the course was composite.
"Material from history, geography, economics, political science, anthropology, sociology, or any other field needed, is drawn upon. Materials are then organized definitely in problem solving form. Common subject lines are wholly disregarded yet the word 'merge' is not used lest it suggest that the content of present school subjects has been used in new combinations. Only one criterion is employed in selecting the content of the course; its contribution to present living." (29)

"No proposal is made to teach history except in chronological sequence with an accumulation of historical matter placed in their actual sequence. The chronology of historical movement must not be upset." . . . "All members of the class are kept together in the study of any given unit." (30)

The widespread interest in industrial development and community life manifest itself in other than educational circles. In 1922 a report on Social Studies in Secondary Schools was published by a Commission of the Association of Collegiate Schools of Business. This Commission was made up of representatives from Schools of Business, the American Federation of Labor, the National Industrial Conferences Board, and secondary school principals. The report was endorsed by a committee of the American Economics Association. In this report the junior high school was considered the strategic point of attack for teaching the social studies. Dean Leon C. Marshall of the School of Commerce, University of Chicago, had worked with this commission. He had for years been interested in a better teaching organization of the social studies and had helped to prepare the "Lessons on Community and National Life". Marshall, with other collaborators, has collected and prepared material for a course of study for the social studies carrying out the ideas of the report of this Commission. The following gives a summary of the purpose, principles of organization, and source
of material of this course:

The purpose of social studies is "that of giving our youth an awareness of what it means to live together in organized society, an appreciation of how we do live together, and an understanding of the conditions precedent to living together well, to the end that our youth may develop those ideals, abilities, and tendencies to act which are essential to effective participation in our society. Awareness, appreciation, and understanding come only when descriptive facts are presented in their relationship." (31)

The course is composite in character. The claims of the several subjects (history, economics, government, sociology, or geography) are apparent in the discussion of social living. These branches are not separable, "save for the purpose of emphasizing some particular point of view in social living. The central purpose of the work should be the study of American social life and how it came to be as it is."

"It is a basic principle, however, that materials are drawn from any field of knowledge according to the need for them in explaining the various topics and problems selected for study." (32)

"The material for social studies should be organized in a definite scientific system around guiding principles. Experience with the natural sciences has shown beyond a possibility of doubt that science will have to be systematic if it is to be a successful subject of instruction." ...."The problem method should be used freely, though not in such a way as to interfere with the application of the principles just set forth." ...."The program of social studies must be organized also in terms of the psychology of learning." (33)

The first topic for the seventh grade is "Man's Place In the Great Current of Life". The aim of this chapter is "to give a point of view that will color the thinking of the child as he goes on with the rest of the book....we wish him to get a point of view. We wish him to begin to get ideas of relativ-

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ity." For a summary of the content of this course, see Table B, page 105.
Superintendent Carlton W. Washburne proposed to construct a fact curriculum by strictly scientific procedure without dependence upon opinion or judgment. By a fact course is meant "A body of material chosen for the purpose of explaining persons, places, events, and dates, that are commonly known to intelligent people and therefore ought to be familiar to children". "The problem was to select in a purely objective and scientific manner the proper names and dates that would meet these requirements and from them to construct the desired curriculum." Since newspapers and magazines constitute a large part of the reading of the American people, it was decided to make a study of representative newspapers and magazines and tabulate the allusions found therein to serve as a guide to what must be taught in order that children "may read intelligently". The list of periodicals was selected. The workers read and recorded every allusion to a person, place, event, or date, excepting in the advertisements. In all 80,000 allusions were tabulated and arranged. The allusions refer to all times and all countries. The list of allusions was arranged into topical groups for each period of history and chronologically within each period. The importance of each person or event was determined entirely by its rank in frequency of mention. As far as possible the narrative was to be confined to the list of allusions.

"This course is regarded as chiefly a composite course in history and geography, but any material from whatever field of knowledge that may be necessary to explain the allusions is included."...."There is an effort to give as much coherence
as possible to the story by the use of certain 'organizing principles' such as 'the action of cause and effect—the interdependence of man on man'... These purposes are not basic but incidental, the fundamental purpose being to provide 'a fact course to make children intelligent concerning commonly known persons, places, and events.' (35)

Coordinated Course with Vertical Supervision

The Gambrill report presents three examples of the organization of social study programs in which the work of the elementary grades and the secondary grades is coordinated or courses with vertical supervision. Under the direction of Dr. J. Lynn Barnard in 1920, the social studies for the schools of Pennsylvania were organized for the twelve grades upon certain objectives and with the purpose of providing a "continuous and unified course". The work of selecting and organizing the material was done by committees of teachers. The studies included in the course were history, government, economics, and sociology. Geography was assigned to another group of subjects.

The objectives are stated as follows: "The one and only purpose of history and social science (including geography) is to train our young people in practical good citizenship—in how to cooperate with one's fellow—in how to lead the group life".... "To be an all-around good citizen one must be efficient and cooperate in all the relations of life—economic, social, religious, political." (37)

Dr. Barnard was a member of the Social Studies Committee that reported in 1916. In planning the course for Pennsylvania in American history an attempt was made to suggest problems to solve, rather than facts to be learned.

In 1922 Oakland, California, worked out a continuous and unified course for the twelve grades. This course was worked out by a committee of classroom teachers and then sent to the
council of supervisors for review. The social studies included history, civics, and geography. Separate courses in each of these subjects were constructed, providing as much easy and natural correlation as possible among these subjects. In addition, correlation with English, science, industrial and fine arts, was encouraged. The work in civics followed the plan outlined by the report of the Social Studies Commission of 1916.

The threefold aim was given as:

1. To arouse right civic attitudes and ideals.
2. To cultivate right civic habits and skills.
3. To develop right standards of civic intelligence.

In Detroit, Michigan, the plan of vertical supervision had produced a "social science curriculum continuous and organic". The course was worked out by group conferences of teachers supplemented by some research to ascertain what outstanding economic and social problems have confronted the nation.

"All social sciences are related and so organized and presented as to correlate and cooperate with each other in attaining objectives."...."The main aim or purpose of the social sciences in the public school is to provide the pupils the basic knowledge and experiences of the past and present, which will give them an understanding of our present social situations and institutions, and thereby develop in them the desirable social abilities, attitudes, and ideals, which will stimulate them as individuals and groups of individuals, analyze and generalize their experiences to the end that they better participate in the various social activities and institutions of our republican government, now and in the future." (39)

Social Science Course With Emphasis On Pupil Activity

In Detroit the emphasis upon pupil participation in social activities had brought, by 1923, the organization of scouting and clubs representing many interests. There was, however, little direct correlation between these activities and the
classroom studies of history and civics. In Minneapolis, Minnesota the problem of a first hand study of governmental agencies and other community activities as a basis for the classroom work had been ingeniously worked out. A delegate from each class in community civics was sent to an assembly each week. These delegates met representatives of community organizations, industries and professions to discuss the problems of these enterprises. Mimeographed sheets dealing with political, economic and social problems were sent to the teachers each week. Many visits were made by the classes to places of business and government.

In Fresno, California, the course in community civics was built around "Problems for You to Investigate". Each pupil was given sheets with questions and exercises as directions for considering the topic or problem. The emphasis upon student activity was widespread but in most cases there was little or no direct correlation with the study of history or civics. In Oakland, California, and Rochester, New York, efforts on extensive scale were made to correlate these activities directly with the social studies. These schools emphasize the fact that these organizations are an integral part of the curriculum and are blended with the teaching of the social studies.

The Project as a Basis for a History Curriculum

By 1923, the term project had become a popular catchword or the symbol of reform in method in many parts of United
The advocates of the project method see in it a means of reorganizing subject matter to meet the needs of growing children. It involves pupil activity to a larger degree than the traditional classroom work. According to Professor W. H. Kilpatrick, "The essence of a project is purpose. The most valuable history project is the purpose to solve some problem, in the case of history, a problem located in historical setting." In most cases the history project develops out of some present day situation, as collective bargaining, the open shop, Irish home rule, etc. Whenever any large topic is worked out at some length for the purpose of solving a problem the usual school subject lines are likely to be disregarded. Any course that uses projects or problems as the basis of organization will in part at least be composite. Two plans may be used in selecting the projects or problems. The teacher or persons making the curriculum may select the projects leaving to the instructor the responsibility of motivation which will produce the purpose. On the other hand the selection of the project may be left to the class. This is supposed to give purpose in that the pupils are doing something because they want to do it, i.e., there is interest. R. W. Hatch, who has extensively applied the project method to history and is an enthusiast for it, has found it desirable to "limit the choice of projects to American history or modern history since 1900". Some teachers are attempting to apply the psychology of the project method to an organized chronological course in history. The unit plan of organization as used in the Laboratory School of
the University of Chicago contains most of the psychological elements of the project. Gambrill found the project method being used to construct composite courses for junior high schools in several cities.

For several years Professor J. L. Meriam of the University High School, University of Missouri, had graduate students prepare theses on the teaching of American history in the form of problems. Investigations were carried on to help discover these problems. By this plan eighty-one topics or problems have been fairly well developed. He does not consider that there is any virtue in the number of topics. These topics or problems change from year to year by reason of change of point of view and method of study, thus neither the number or nature of topics remain static. The topics or titles of the problems were collected from studies of social and industrial life, from the current press, from observation, and from the experience of teachers. The one objective was "To provide high school students with information and habits that readily function in ordinary life." All the material was collected under the assumption that subject matter must be concrete and of a specific character. The sequence of topics was considered unimportant. No topic was prerequisite to another, although a study of some contributes much to others. Since most habits of mankind are industrial and occupational these phases of history received emphasis.
World History a Basis of Integration

Dr. D. C. Knowlton, Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University, experimented on a course making World History the basis of the work in grades seven and eight. He used the word "integration" to indicate the relation of the subject matter drawn from the various fields. History was taught in close connection with geography, economics, political science, and sociology, appropriate to these grades. There was, however, an effort made "to conserve the values presented by the organized fields of knowledge represented by the social studies, recognizing their distinct contribution." In the organization of material there is an attempt made to use each problem so that it "contributes directly toward a better understanding of history as a distinct field of knowledge, i.e., there are problems of time, place, change, development, and the like". All material was made as concrete as possible. Pictures, maps, documents, dramatization, etc., were used to help visualize and give a feeling of the great world movements.

The foregoing presents in panoramic a view of what is being done by representative states, cities, laboratory schools, and individuals to improve the teaching of history. In addition to these many prepared teachers are working out their own problems in the classrooms of the country.

The data presented make evident that there is a widespread desire to get history to function more largely in the life of those studying it. It is quite evident that we do not
know all the steps in getting these subjects to function. We do know some of the factors in understanding and learning, and understanding has much to do with the functioning. There is plainly some relation between understanding and a feeling of responsibility. The relation between understanding and behavior is not so evident. Concerning the content or material to be taught there is a divergence of opinion. There is clearly a trend to emphasize more than formerly the economic phases of life. There is a corresponding trend to use a question, a problem, a project, as the unit of organization which gives understanding most satisfactorily. These wide spread experiments to improve the teaching of the social studies indicate the interest taken in the problem.

The problem of making the schools more efficient caused effort to be put forth to eliminate waste by reorganization. To effectively solve this problem necessitated a consideration of the aims or objectives of schools and the specific subjects taught in the school. The Schools of Education began to offer courses in curriculum making, which were basically a study of objectives. Following the World War experimental curriculum making began first in Schools of Education, then in cities, and states. Social science received its share of attention. The foregoing pages indicate what was taking place in communities considered in the Gambrill report.
A Nationwide Consideration of Social Science

Following the appearance of the Gambrill report, January 1924, the National Education Association took up the study of the reorganization of the curriculum. The Third Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, issued in 1925, further considered the social studies. This presented some of the difficulties met in the construction of a social science curriculum. It brought together in summary form a review of what research had done to help make a curriculum in social science. The research studies were classified into four groups:

1. Studies that suggest possible methods of determining problems and activities of contemporary society.
2. Studies of minimum essentials in history.
3. Studies that are suggestive for analysis of the activities of people or current modes of living.
4. Studies that endeavor to evaluate the recreative or leisure values of social science.

The material presented made it evident that the work done was only preliminary and much of it too general to be of service in the classroom and that much remained to be done.

The Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence also devoted a chapter to the Social Studies. The introduction to this chapter contained the following:

"Social science--the science of getting along with people--is coming to be recognized as an essential part of every child's education."...."Concrete experiences and illustrations must replace general formulae if the child is to know how the great human needs are satisfied and is to feel the need of government, morality, and that type of behavior which makes it possible for us to live as social beings." (46)

"Teach but the rules and forms of our social structure and the result may be evasion rather than observance of these rules. Teach the needs of the individual and the community and the child becomes conscious of his part, his obligations, in the community as well as his privileges. More knowledge is less important than inclination based on understanding." (47)
The larger part of the presentation was taken up with the question, "Shall the social studies be unified?" The social studies were to include social problems, political and economic geography, history, civics, vocational information, economics, sociology, and current events. The inquiry sent out read as follows: "Do you favor the unification of the social studies into one course of study?" Replies from 148 schools were tabulated. The results of the tabulation indicated that opinion greatly favored unification. There was, however, no clear definition of what was meant by a unified course. Did unification mean taking the content of the subjects listed as social science and blending them into a composite subject or did it mean coordinating and correlating the subjects to better attain a desired end, or did it mean rejecting the subject matter of traditional subjects and substituting activities and materials new and old to attain objectives set up?

In the data collected there were recognized two distinct tendencies:

"First there is a tendency to accept the traditional content of such subjects as geography, history, civics, and current events, and to give this material point by a better definition of objectives." This viewpoint seemed to include what may be called the "Composite-subject" tendency. "Second, there is a unification tendency, which rejects the traditional subject matter as such, and substitutes activities and material both new and old, which fulfill certain social objectives, determined upon as the criteria for selection of content." (49)

These data compiled gave merely a summary view of opinions rather than actual practice as did the Gambrill report. The committee recognized the need of qualifying the opinions collected and gave much space to a description of work being done
in unification of the social studies. This description set forth the procedure in or machinery of curriculum making in various places. Two things seemed to be common in all procedures. There was a formulation of objectives and an attempt to develop units of work about problems. There was no agreement as to the meaning of social studies as far as available objectives indicated. Over a thousand different objectives were found listed in various newly organized courses. The committee defined an objective as "An educational goal, useful in life, to be achieved through education. It is what the child should know or be able to do as a result of training."

The consideration of the various social science curriculums being made indicated that the term unification had diverse meanings. Many places adopt a name that suggests unification and proceed to present the formal subject matter of history, geography, and civics. Few schools abandon the use of a textbook in the course.

In 1927 the Department of Superintendence again published a report of the work being done on the social science curriculum, and much has been written on the subject since that time but no new trends have appeared. The work of reorganization is going on, supplemented by research.

Trends Apparent in the Reorganization

The problem of organizing the work in the social studies is complex yet important. It is now generally admitted that the field of the social studies including cultural, civic, and moral education, presents some of the most difficult problems.
of curriculum making. Since the social studies deal with "that body of subject matter which includes the present acts of men, their background, and their outlook" the field is wide. The range and variety of topics is so varied that they may become bewildering. The school curriculum can include only a small number of the topics that may be interesting and are important. This fact has presented the need for evaluating the material, the organization of material, and the methods used.

Much work has been done, as has been indicated, in determining the objectives which should be the guides in selecting the material to use. These objectives have been so numerous and in many cases so general as to serve no helpful purpose in selecting material. There is now evidence that these objectives are becoming more specific and therefore more serviceable. Most of the research concerning subject matter has been to determine the material needed to assure intelligent citizenship or an understanding of the present day problems. In most of these investigations there was a search for facts, information that will give knowledge. Little has yet been done to show the relation between understanding and behavior. That man's conduct is influenced in a degree by his sober judgment there does not seem to be any reason to doubt, but much of his conduct is influenced more largely by his emotions and feelings.

There is apparent a definite trend in history away from military and political facts toward social and industrial problems. In geography the trend is toward the human approach.

Since the industrial factors in society are so intimately related
to the physical or geographical, and the trend in geography is to the human element there is a marked tendency for history and geography to approach common ground. If one is to judge trends by the amount of educational literature upon a topic, one would conclude that there is a trend to "fusing", "integrating", unifying the materials of history, geography, civics, and other subjects grouped as social sciences. The basis for organizing the subject matter for teaching the social studies is referred to as units of work or problems. In consideration of the problems the subject lines tend to break down, hence the tendency to blend.

The problem and unit plans of organizing material call for a different type of assignment and recitation from that commonly used with the textbook plan and reproduction of textbook material. If understanding is to be the main purpose, it involves knowing how to study, knowing how to use books, supplementary material, and aids; it involves a consideration of the types of activities carried on in the class period as well as the length of time available for the class period. The changing conception of the recitation tends to make it a work period in which the teacher becomes a director or supervisor of the activities of the group. Investigations, observations of schools and educational literature, all confirm the tendency to supervise or direct study. This trend is apparent whether the work is organized on the problem plan or follows the traditional plan. One finds advocates of the proposition that teaching a child to study effectively is the most important
thing which the school can do for the child. The social studies furnish an opportunity unexcelled for this task. The mastery of material is dependent upon the extent to which children comprehend the important thoughts of history passages.

Problem Solving vs. Memorized Facts

The general trend in the theory of teaching social science as above given is to place emphasis upon the understanding of problems, organization and relationship-thinking. On the other hand the testing movement, which brought the objective or new type tests, put a new emphasis upon factual teaching and memorizing. The tendency to emphasize the giving of understanding through problem solving, and the tendency to memorize facts are counter trends. "J. Osborn made an analysis of examination questions to discover the relation between the topics asked for in the examinations and the objectives which are taught in teaching history. This study revealed that in elementary history the questions dominantly call for memory of facts, power to organize facts ranked second, use of judgment, and seeing cause and effect were only rarely used. According to Osborn's analysis, "Even with a generous interpretation of what is really a question involving thinking or reflective judgment 26 percent is the upper limit of such questions". Thus at least 74 percent of our work in history consists in teaching pupils to remember what the textbook records. In the Osborn study the questions were not basically new type. The objective test gives an opportunity for statistical comparison
of school with school, which has administrative advantages. There is always a desire to rank high in comparative scores, hence an incentive to prepare for the test. Uniform new type tests used over a wide area tends to standardize and mechanize the work. Again the use of objective tests tend to favor the teaching of separate subjects. On the other hand the trend is to teach the social sciences as one subject, thus integrating all aspects of the experiences, or considering experience as a totality.

The Unification Idea

While there is a positive trend in educational literature to the unification of social sciences into one subject yet outside of The Story of Human Progress, by Marshall, and the new Rugg Social-Science Course of six large volumes and accompanying Pupils Workbooks, little has been done to put the idea into textbooks. The unification idea has come from the Schools of Education and not the historians. The historians are yet producing most of the history textbooks. The difference in point of view between the historian and the educator has tended to prevent the production of texts on a cooperative basis. The Beard and Bagley text "The History of the American People" is the combined work of a historian and an educator. On the other hand the changing conception of history to include more than the political and military aspects of the past has caused the production of a multitude of books--non textbooks, dealing with all phases of economic, social and cultural changes,
and adapted to the interest and development of school children. This material is available for all who have an interest in reading.

The plan of organizing the work into problems or units has not been adopted to any extent by authors of school histories. The grouping of material for chapters in some cases may show this influence. Cities large enough to have their own curriculum, with special supervisors are organizing the work on the unit plan. These have the best prepared teachers with rapidly increasing facilities to enable them to modify the traditional procedure. "In spite of what has been said, it should be distinctly understood that by no means all or even a very large number of junior high school curriculum makers have accepted the unit point of view." The fetish of uniformity and standardization still dictates the procedure. In the small school conditions are very different. Few schools have broken away from the use of a basic text. The teachers follow the text rather than use it to obtain information relevant to a problem or unit of work. The unit idea is not prohibitive to the use of a text but it changes the point of view of the teacher and she must not be dependent upon the textbook. To use the unit plan successfully the teacher must be educated to its significance. Many are recognizing that unification cannot take place in any degree until there is suitable unified teaching material available and teachers are trained to handle such material. However, to the writer the difficulty of training teachers to use several books instead of one when considering a
topic or problem does not seem insurmountable. With guidance teachers can be led to accept the new procedure. The unit or problem plan of organizing the social studies implies the use of a library and reference books. Probably one of the most hopeful indications is the increasing number of schools with school libraries having a generous supply of social science books that have material dealing with the social and economic questions of the day.

The Directed Study History Notebook

From another source the unit plan of organization is finding expression in a slightly modified form which may have a decided influence upon the teaching of history and has possibilities of influencing the most remote. Before the unit or problem plan was proposed many outlines for teaching history had been produced. The outlines gave the topics and subtopics with reference to a number of texts discussing the topics. Paralleling the use of the outline grew up the practice of having the pupils make notebooks, or work books. Following the proposal of the unit plan of organization and the emphasis upon supervised or directed study, appeared history study books. These outline the work in the form of problems, sometimes with sub-problems. References are given to a list of textbooks, to other books presenting some phase of the problem. Available visual material is listed. Questions to arouse thought are given, pupil activities suggested, and in some cases summary conclusions asked for. These history outline books or notebooks
become an aid to the teacher and help her to break away from
the restricted use of a textbook and at the same time intro-
duce the problem plan. These notebooks do not give the long
list of objectives that are found in many of the curriculums
being constructed by cities. These notebooks or directed
history study books provide for certain pupil activities with-
out requiring a definite accompanying text. These have some
points of helpfulness for teachers that might well be utilized
by curriculum makers. An illustration of a problem assignment
from a directed study history notebook is given on page 107.

Factors Retarding Progress

To the thoughtful person the great factor in the improve-
ment of teaching history in the elementary school is a better
prepared teacher of history. The custom of using a uniform
adopted book in the hands of every member of the class and
following it does not tend to enlarge the teacher's knowledge
of history. The trend in theory the last twenty years has
been to rewrite for the use of the schools the history cur-
riculum and make a social science curriculum. This greatly
enlarges the material organized in a new way to attain object-
ives stated in a multitude of ways, thus reinforcing the demand
for preparation. The short college training, if any, supple-
ments little the teacher's knowledge of the subject obtained
in the public schools. Due to the influence of the educator
the program for the preparation of the elementary teacher em-
phasizes methods without greatly enlarging the knowledge of the
subjects of the social science field. The schools training the teachers put their emphasis upon the preparation of teachers for the junior high school, tending to detract from the preparation of those who teach in the middle grades not in departmental work. Yet the percentage of teachers of any state doing departmental work is small. In the absence of a professional teaching staff in the smaller schools public sentiment is little influenced by the rapidly changing teaching force.

thus in the smaller communities custom, largely fixed by the past and the influence of the non-professional, directs practice and in a sense controls trends. This is the present situation.

The Influence of the Psychology of Learning Upon the Teaching of History

The first paragraph of this chapter pointed out the influence of the Schools of Education upon the changing conception of history teaching. The facts presented make it clear that the period has been one of changing attitude toward the teaching of history. The shift in point of view has been largely due to the dominance of the influence of the educator who has accepted the psychological principles of learning.

In closing the chapter it seems appropriate to summarize some of the pedagogical factors tending to give direction to the changes proposed for improving history teaching.

When history teaching began in the elementary school it was largely a rote memory of words and sentences from books. Gradually perception was introduced as a means of learning.
Observation and object teaching were used to develop perception. A technique was developed to secure association and understanding. Subject matter became a means not an end in the learning process. Subject matter became a means of furthering the activity of learning. Learning came as a result of self-activity, hence participation. Learning came to include an integration of new facts, processes and meanings modifying one's behavior. The more natural or real the situation in which the activity takes place the more effective the learning, i.e., the more behavior is influenced. Hence the more nearly the school situation parallels life the better the activity is motivated. History is a presentation of situations and people displaying many attitudes in the past. The basic aim in teaching history is to give an understanding of the people, situations, and attitudes of the people of any period. The modern pedagogical view is that in the degree in which the student relives the past, participates by imagination in its events, in that degree do the past situations and people become real and aid understanding, arouse emotional reactions and influence attitudes and behavior. The more familiar a student is with any type of contact in his environment the greater the likelihood that an account of a similar type of the past may be understood and exert an influence. Our contacts are dominantly those in the struggle for a living, hence economic and industrial.

The industrial revolution has multiplied the industrial contacts of people hence the emphasis in history upon those factors making for industrial contacts and interdependency.
Parallel to this change has been that of the growth of the democratic movement. The importance of the common people, the worth of the individual have gained prominence. The pedagogical concept of learning, the democratic movement, and the industrial changes, have all contributed to produce the present point of view in teaching history. This view holds that we select as the materials of history in the public schools only those facts, principles, historical movements, and contemporary institutions which are necessary to develop a tolerant understanding of the modern world in which we live. This understanding is to arouse a feeling of responsibility to improve the organization of society in which we live. In the conception of learning as self-activity there is need of guidance. Not all activities are of equal worth. The teacher is the guide. Guidance implies familiarity with the means or subject matter to use in stimulating activity and familiarity with the laws of learning, as well as the outcomes desired. This means teacher preparation, preparation in pedagogical principles and subject matter.

This chapter has presented certain trends in theory. It gives a few instances of exceptional practice in communities that have broken away from custom and are using new content in history courses as well as many types of new pupil activities. Most of the illustrations given of the use of reorganized content come from experimental schools or laboratory schools attached to Schools of Education. These schools are now pioneering the way both in reorganizing content and demonstrating new methods.
The reorganized content in most cases takes the form of a social science course utilizing material from geography, history, civics, economics, and other studies when needed. Table B, pages 105 and 106, gives a brief summary comparison of a few proposed reorganized social science and history courses of this period.

Thus far there has been an attempt to present the changing conception as revealed in literature dealing with the teaching of history in the elementary school and particularly in grades seven and eight. There remains to consider to what extent the present practice is being influenced by these changing conceptions. This will be done in the next chapter.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Committee or School</th>
<th>Seventh Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1916 Report of Sub-committee on Social Studies in Secondary Education. National Education Association Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education.</td>
<td>Geography (1/2 year) In sequence: European history (1/2 year) - or parallel, Civics as phase of above, or segregated or both, or: European history (1 year) Geography taught incidentally to history, Civics as cited above.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Committee on History and Education and Education for Citizenship. American Historical Association. Horace Mann School, Teachers' College, Columbia University. R. W. Hatch.</td>
<td>The world before 1607 and the beginnings of American history including rise of Latin-American Republics. (a) History: The World to 1789 (b) Geography: Mediterranean basin; Western Europe; early trade routes; Latin America and Eastern North America. (c) Civics: Attempts at self-government in the old world. The beginning of communities in the New World; Colonial practice; local history. (d) Practice in group organization. Current Events.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Chicago High School</td>
<td>Seven and Eight Combined. A. Development and Spread of Civilization to about 1500. C. Reconstruction, Progress, and Growth in Europe and in North and South America.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Eighth Grade

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Ninth Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American History (1/2 year)</td>
<td>Civics: State, national and world aspects (1/2 year)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civics (1/2 year)</td>
<td>Civics, economic and vocational (1/2 year)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography taught incidentally to above.</td>
<td>History in connection with above, or Civics, economic and vocational (1/2 yr.) - Economic History (1/2 Yr.)--In sequence or parallel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Opening of the world to the use of man. The place of the individual in our society (vocational survey) Other studies correlated.

The world since 1607 viewed in relation to the evolution and expanding world influence of U.S.

> (a) History: World since 1789.
> (b) Geography: The Near and Far East New Europe; Physical and Industrial Geography of U.S. 
> (c) Civics: Growth of nationalism; development of Constitutional government; march of democracy; How we are governed; city, state and nation.
> (d) Projects in citizenship.

Current Events.

1. The "westward movement and the growth of transportation.
2. The mechanical conquest of America.

Community Life and Civic Problems, combined with English.

World History Integrated.


D. Merging of the U.S. and European History into World History -- Growth of Civilization.

### Seventh and Eighth Combined.

1. Recreation.
2. Communication
3. Municipal Growth
4. The organization and history of charity.
Directed History Study
Book Three
Scheck and Orton
World Book Company
Pages 17 and 18

STARTING THE GOVERNMENT

Major Problem B. How the machinery of government provided for by the Constitution made a nation out of the original thirteen states.

FOREIGN AFFAIRS

Problem V. How the new government dealt with its troublesome foreign affairs.

Assignment:

References:
(References to 23 texts with pages dealing with the problem)

Word Study: Commission, tribute, alien, deportation, sedition, naturalization.

Questions: (Ten in all, four given in this illustration)

2. How did France and Great Britain treat the overseas shipping of the young republic? Why?

4. Discuss the circumstances under which John Adams, the second President, sent a commission of three men to France.

6. Through the votes of Federalists the Alien and Sedition Acts were passed by Congress. Explain the purpose of each of the acts.

7. Explain how the Republicans, by the Kentucky and the Virginia Resolutions, protested against these acts.

Summary:

Prepare an oral summary, using the questions above as a guide. Before class time write an outline for a talk that you might make to show that you had solved the present problem.

Extra Assignment:

References:
Hart. Patriots and Statesmen
Sparks. Men Who Made the Nation.

Biography: John Marshall, a great Chief Justice.
For this problem the conclusion is called a "completion paragraph" or a "completion test". First read the paragraph through carefully as a whole. Then re-read, considering the best word for each space. When you can read it readily and are sure of your answers, complete the paragraph by writing the words in the blank spaces.

**Conclusion:** (The Completion Test, 22 blank spaces)

**Review:** (A Matching Test, 15 items)

Read again the statement of Major Problem B. Read also the Conclusion to each of the five problems so far solved.

Has the major problem been solved?

**Visual Aids:** Keystone Views (Stereographs and slides H 92 to H 95)
BIBLIOGRAPHY OF QUOTATIONS

2. Ibid., p. 9
3. Ibid., p. 9
4. Ibid., p. 10
5. Ibid., p. 11
6. Ibid., p. 15
7. Ibid., p. 15
8. Ibid., p. 41
9. Ibid., p. 42
10. Ibid., p. 43
11. Ibid., p. 44
12. Ibid., p. 44
13. Ibid., p. 52
16. Ibid., p. 166
17. Ibid., 22nd Yearbook, p. 24
19. 22nd Yearbook, op. cit., p. 71
20. Lessons in Community and National Life, Introduction, p. 8
21. 22nd Yearbook, op. cit., p. 31
22. Ibid., p. 32
23. Ibid., p. 33
25. Ibid., p. 7
26. Ibid., p. 9
27. Ibid., p. 13
28. Ibid., p. 14
29. Ibid., p. 16
30. Ibid., p. 17
31. Ibid., p. 20
32. Ibid., p. 20
33. Ibid., p. 21
34. Ibid., p. 21
35. Ibid., p. 24
36. Ibid., p. 26
37. Ibid., p. 29
38. Ibid., p. 34
39. Ibid., p. 36
40. Ibid., p. 42
41. Ibid., p. 42
42. Ibid., p. 43
43. Ibid., p. 44
44. Department of Superintendence, Third Yearbook, 1925, Chapter VII
46. Ibid., Fourth Yearbook, 1926, p. 323
47. Ibid., p. 324
48. Ibid., p. 325
49. Ibid., p. 324
50. Ibid., p. 374
51. Osburn, W. J.: Are We Making Good in Teaching History, p. 63
52. Department of Superintendence, Fifth Yearbook, p. 217
CHAPTER VI
CURRENT PRACTICES IN TEACHING UNITED STATES HISTORY

IN GRADES SEVEN AND EIGHT IN KANSAS, 1929-1930

I. Plan of Collecting Data and Method of Tabulation

In the preceding chapters has been presented an historical account of the changing conception of teaching history as revealed in educational literature. The foregoing pages have also given facts concerning outstanding experiments in practice. This has been done to show the trends as indicated by exceptional practice. This account does not give a cross-section view of the practice of teaching history in the public schools. It is now our purpose to present a sample of the work as it exists in the public schools. This is done to discover if possible to what extent the changing conceptions are being communicated to teachers and to what extent the trends of theory are being put into practice in the public schools of a state as a whole. In other words how successful are Schools of Education in getting new ideas put into practice by the body of public school teachers?

With this thought in mind the writer decided to collect information concerning the current practices of teaching United States history in grades seven and eight of the schools of Kansas during the school year, 1929-30. Information relative to the practice of teaching history was obtained by means of a questionnaire. Certain limitations in this method were recognized yet it furnished the only available means of collecting data from a large number of teachers over the entire
state. No attempt was made to collect a statement of aims from those teaching history. In most cases the teacher in the elementary school is unable to select her own teaching material. The available material to a large degree limits what a teacher may set as her goal and accomplish. For the purposes of this study it has been assumed that since the basic work in history comes from a text the aim of the teacher largely corresponds to the aim of the author and is revealed as clearly by the organization of material and methods of teaching as by a formulated statement of the teacher. Again a consideration of the aims of teaching history is sufficient for a study in itself apart from other phases of the teaching problem. It seemed wise to ask for information (1) concerning what the teachers did themselves in planning, organizing, and conducting the work, and (2) concerning what was required of the pupils in preparation and recitation. From these data evidence would be obtained of the influence of the changing conception of their practice.

The information asked for was grouped under the following headings:

1. Preparation and experience of the teacher.
2. Plan of organization of content for teaching.
3. Plan of assignment of work to pupils.
4. Plan of using class period and its length.
5. Type of pupil activity in doing the work, and supplementary material and aids used.
6. Measuring the results or achievements.

Under each heading were given a series of questions with controlled answers. The preparation of each teacher cooperating was obtained so that the practices might be tabulated to show influence of preparation, if any. A preliminary questionnaire was made and sent to a selected group of teachers of history in grades seven and eight. The following letter accompanied the questionnaire:
To teachers of history:

You are teaching history. You are busy, but not too busy to help another history teacher. Having taught history in the public schools, rural, grade, and high school, we have many times longed to know how other teachers managed their work. I am sure you would like to know how other teachers, under similar conditions, organize their work; what plans they use in making assignments; how the class period is used to advantage; what aids and material other teachers have available to use in teaching this subject; what means they use in testing the achievements of the pupils.

Under the direction of the University of Kansas we are attempting to compile the information which you would like to have concerning the teaching of history and which we feel will be of value to all history teachers. Since we are trying to collect information worth while to history teachers we want the opinion of those actually teaching history. Your principal is cooperating with us and has expressed confidence in you by designating you to help in the matter. The attached questionnaire is preliminary. We are submitting it to you for suggestions and criticism. Will you kindly fill out the questionnaire very carefully and then go over the questions again, considering the following points and mark as indicated:

1. Is the question clear? If not, place before it N C
2. Does the question have but one possible interpretation? If not, place before it D I
3. Is this same information asked for in more than one question? If so, place before it: Dup. No.
4. Is the question unnecessary? If so, place before it: Un.
5. Suggest questions that would secure any added information which you feel would be worthwhile.

We thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

The preliminary questionnaire was also submitted to teachers of history in colleges. All the suggestions and criticisms received were used in making the final form of the questionnaire. Before sending out the questionnaire letters were sent to principals and superintendents to secure cooperation. Copies of the preliminary letters are given below. The questionnaires were sent only to those who indicated their willingness
to cooperate. The following is the letter sent to towns and cities:

University of Kansas
School of Education
Lawrence, Kansas

Dear Co-worker:

This is to present to you a study which has to do with the current practice of teaching United States history in grades seven and eight in the schools of Kansas. One way of improving teachers is to make available for them the practices of others. Previous studies have been made on the high school level and have been instrumental in stimulating the improvement of the work. This is the first effort to collect information to help teachers below the high school. This study has the endorsement of the State Department of Education and is made in cooperation with the Research Committee of the Kansas State Teachers Association. The results of the investigation will be available through the K.S.T.A. This is to invite you to cooperate in the study.

A questionnaire is being used to secure the information. Every possible effort has been made to make the questionnaire as brief as possible, clear, and easy to fill out. We believe that more accurate returns may be secured in a shorter time by having the questionnaire go through your hands to the teachers.

This is the proposed plan. We wish to send you enough copies of the questionnaire with full explanations to supply each of your teachers of U.S. history in grades 7 and 8. You give each teacher a copy, asking her to fill it out and return to you at her earliest possible convenience, possibly within 24 hours. It will take about 20 minutes of the teachers time. Then the questionnaires are returned, you put them in the addressed stamped envelope and mail.

Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated. The questionnaires are ready. Please give your answer below, place in return envelope and mail today. Thank you.

Sincerely,

Graduate Student in Education

Are you willing to cooperate as indicated above? ___________

Number of history teachers in grades 7 and 8. ___________

Date ___________________ Signature ___________________

Address
The following letter was sent to County Superintendents:

University of Kansas
School of Education
Lawrence, Kansas

Dear Co-worker:

This is to present to you a study having the endorsement of the State Department of Education and made in cooperation with the Research Committee of the Kansas State Teachers Association. This study has to do with the current practice of teaching U. S. history in grades 7 and 8 in the schools of Kansas. One way of improving teachers is to make available for them the practices of others. This is a cooperative effort to collect information about the plans of teaching used by others. The results of the investigation will be available through the K.S.T.A. This is to invite you to cooperate in the study.

If this study is made helpful to teachers in all types of schools we must secure information from teachers in rural schools. This information is to be obtained by means of a questionnaire. Every possible effort has been made to make the questionnaire clear and easy to fill out. It is not possible to reach all rural teachers but we wish to have representative teachers from all or as many counties as possible. We believe that more accurate results may be obtained in less time by having the questionnaire go through your hands to the teachers.

This is the proposed plan. You select representative teachers in the one room rural school who are teaching history in grades 7 and 8 or both, ten or more teachers in standard schools if possible. We will send you enough copies of the questionnaire with full explanation to supply the teachers selected. You have the teachers fill them out either at your office or at their school as soon as possible after you receive them. When the questionnaires are filled out you put them in the addressed stamped envelope and mail.

Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated. Please give your answer below, place in the return envelope and mail at once. Thank you.

Sincerely,

Graduate Student in Education

Are you willing to cooperate as indicated above? ______

I have selected ____ teachers to represent this county.

Date ___________________ Signature ___________________

Address ___________________
A letter of appreciation was sent with the questionnaires to those indicating their willingness to cooperate. A copy of this letter is given below:

University of Kansas
School of Education
Lawrence, Kansas

Dear Co-worker:

You have expressed your willingness to cooperate in the study being made. The large percentage of prompt and affirmative replies to our letter inviting cooperation has been very gratifying.

Enclosed herewith are the questionnaires with explanation for teachers of history in grades 7 and 8, and also a return envelope. Please ask that the questionnaires be filled out and returned to you at the earliest possible date. Accuracy and promptness in giving the information desired will greatly facilitate the study.

Permit me to express the sincere appreciation of the Research Committee of the Kansas State Teachers Association, also that of the School of Education, as well as my own personal gratitude for your cooperation in making the study possible.

Sincerely,

Graduate Student in Education

As an aid to the reader each table is preceded by the division of the questionnaire used to collect the data in that table.

In all 1500 questionnaires were mailed. Follow up letters were sent to those who did not return the questionnaires promptly.

The data tabulated include replies from teachers:
1. In 94 of the 105 counties of Kansas
2. In 9 of the 11 first class cities
3. In 47 of the 77 second class cities, representing 37 counties.
4. In 154 third class cities, in 78 counties.

The data collected were tabulated to show practice in schools of cities of third class, cities of second class, cities of first class, and in rural schools. All one and two room schools are classified as rural. Another tabulation was made to show the practice of teachers of different amounts of college preparation. The two tabulations are shown side by side in the tables. The writer has assumed that the trends of theory would reach the teacher through her college preparation and through the help she would receive from outlines furnished by supervisors in the school in which she teaches.

II. The Tabulated Data With Observations Concerning the Findings.

College Training

In order to carry out our scheme of tabulation it was necessary to have information concerning the college attendance of each teacher and the type of school in which she was teaching. Division I of the questionnaire asked for college training.

Questionnaire:

I. Preparation in schools above the high school:
   1. Number of weeks you attended college as an undergraduate ___
      As a graduate ___
   2. Degree held ______________________
   3. Major subjects in college ______________________________
   4. Minor subjects in college ________________________________
   5. You did practice teaching? Yes No
      A. In what grade? __________
      B. In what subject? __________

TABLE I

TABULATION TO SHOW TRAINING OF 821 HISTORY
TEACHERS IN GRADES SEVEN AND EIGHT.
KANSAS, 1929-1930

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>College Attendance in Weeks</th>
<th>Median Preparation (weeks)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0-36</td>
<td>37-72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural City</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Class</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Class</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Class</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>313</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No teachers listed their preparation between 109-144 weeks.

TABLE II

TABULATION OF MAJORS, MINORS, AND PRACTICE
TEACHING OF HISTORY TEACHERS OF GRADES
SEVEN AND EIGHT, KANSAS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Number of Teachers:</th>
<th>With Major</th>
<th>With Minor</th>
<th>With Majors Doing Practice</th>
<th>Teaching In</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>22</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
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<td>27</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Science</td>
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<td>29</td>
<td>58</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manual Arts</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>662</td>
<td>163</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fact that 358 teachers had one year or less of college work, and 541 had two years or less reduces the number that are included in this table. Many had not selected a major.
Table I shows the distribution of the teachers reporting, both as to college preparation and to type of school. Of the 821 teachers four had completed work for the Master degree. Only 15.2% of the teachers have a degree from some college. Five hundred forty-one teachers had two years or less of college work. Of the 698 teachers of history in rural schools and third class cities only 175, or 25%, had as much as two years of college work. The median preparation of all the teachers in the study is 46.3 weeks of college work.

Table II is an attempt to show to what extent teachers of history have a major or minor in history, or to what extent some special preparation is made for teaching that subject. Two hundred thirty-seven, or 23.8% of the teachers had a major or minor in history. Seventy-six or 9.2% of the teachers did practice teaching in history. It seems probably that half or more of the teachers had taken no history courses other than those taken in the grades or high school. Since more than half are teaching in rural schools or in small towns where there is little or no supervision, the influence of the changing conception of teaching history cannot be large.

Teaching Experience

The second section of the questionnaire asked for the teaching experience:

II. Experience:
1. In one room rural schools
2. In graded schools
3. If teaching in departmental work, give:
   Subjects taught daily  No. of sections of each
4. If not teaching now in departmental work give the number of class recitation periods daily. __________
   Length of the history-class period in minutes __________.
### TABLE III

**TABULATION TO SHOW THE EXPERIENCE OF 811 TEACHERS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Median</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>1-30</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Class</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>1-30</td>
<td>6.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Class</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>1-36</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Class</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1-41</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>811</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

x Ten teachers failed to give the amount of teaching experience.

### TABLE IV

**TABULATION OF NUMBER OF CLASS PERIODS TAUGHT PER DAY, ALSO THE LENGTH**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Number of Recitations</th>
<th>Length of History Recitation in Minutes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No. of Schools</td>
<td>Range</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>15-40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Class</td>
<td>326</td>
<td>2-32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Class</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>2-12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Class</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>2-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>663</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It seems probable that the amount of teaching experience has an influence upon the methods used in teaching history. However, it proved impractical to tabulate practices on the basis of experience. Table III shows that the median term of service in the rural school is little more than half what it is in cities of the first and second class.

Table IV presents data concerning the teaching load, measured in number of recitations daily, and gives the time available for history. When the training and experience of the teachers of the different groups are considered it is readily seen that the heavy load of planning falls upon those least prepared for it. The time available for history must have an influence upon what is done. The literature concerning teaching history in grades seven and eight suggests that the absolute minimum amount of time to use each day is sixty minutes. Few rural schools can meet this suggested requirement.

Summary of Changing Conceptions of Teaching History

The information tabulated in Table I to IV inclusive is a preliminary or background needed to present in tabulated form the influence upon practice of the changing conception of teaching history as revealed in the historical study of the earlier chapters. Before proceeding to show by tabulation the current practice in teaching history let us, as an aid to interpreting the data, briefly summarize the trends as presented in the historical part of the study.

The word trend is used to indicate the direction of change. It has a quantitative implication to the effect that a given
thing is becoming more or less usual than formerly. In case of this study a trend in theory means that proposals for the use of a method of procedure, a device or activity, are more frequent; a trend in practice means that a method of procedure, device or activity, is being more frequently used. A summary of what has been presented may help to show to what extent the current practice follows the trends of the newer conception of teaching.

The former more detailed presentation of the changing conception of teaching history is here summarized. History was introduced as a separate subject into the elementary schools in the form of a text written from the adult point of view. This account was a brief record of certain facts with some discussion. The text was to be memorized by the pupil without any emphasis on understanding. A teacher without historical training taught the text. In the course of time the material of the text came to be organized into topics. In teaching some emphasis was placed on understanding with the rote memory work reduced. Near the close of the second period collateral reading was recommended but rarely used. Then came the suggestion that the material be adapted to the child mind. The narrative and dramatic style was introduced into the texts. The teacher still followed the text. Gradually the range of content was enlarged and with the expansion came proposals for reorganization. All history was said to be a unity. History has epochs that present developments and movements requiring understanding in order to interpret the present. The understanding of history could be
increased by correlation. A proper understanding and interpretation give a basis for citizenship. More recent proposals call for a reorganization of the material into large units to help give understanding. These units may be in the form of problems or projects which call for the use of information from other subjects in order to secure integration. A project may be considered a special type of problem. This new conception makes the teacher a more vital factor because organizing the material calls for initiative. By this plan the text can no longer be followed but is used as one of the helps in getting understanding. The discussions concerning the organization of content into large units, movements, problems, and projects, have been especially prolific in recent literature. These plans of organization can be used by a teacher with any basic text in the hands of pupils. These plans may be used with content that is dominantly of political, military, or industrial type. On the other hand our historical study shows certain proposals that call for so complete a reorganization of material that it requires an entirely new textbook organization, or a reorganization of the course that must be done by other than the classroom teacher. Such reorganizations are called either a unified course or a composite subject course. Any teacher using these plans of organization must use a textbook especially prepared or a detail history curriculum provided by a city, county, or state.

As the teaching of history came to be required and became universal in the elementary schools, proposed changes in teaching
other than the reorganization of content have appeared. There have been changes in the conception of the assignment and the use of the recitation period. Increased effort has been made to get proper approach through the presentation or assignment. The proposed assignment is not merely a number of pages in a text but a topic, a problem, a unit of work that may occupy the time and efforts of the pupils for one day or a series of days. The planning of the teacher puts the topic assigned into various settings to give repetition of content to enlarge the understanding. Knowing the meaning of words and phrases is of vital importance. Finding the material of a topic from various sources and in different settings presented in different ways requires the pupil to get the relation of the topic to events and may lead to finding cause and effect relations. In order to have the pupil know how to properly prepare work the teacher must teach the use of books, indexes, graphs, maps, etc. These efforts to give better understanding and awaken interest led to emphasis being placed upon the visualizing accounts and narratives. Such emphasis called for an increased use of visual aids and pupil activities such as map making, construction work, illustrations, dramatization, excursions, and programs by pupils. Another trend has been to use history to interpret or explain the present. The use of current events and incidents of community life involved facts that needed to be explained. An explanation often presented a problem of growth and development which called for discussion and debates. The study of a problem of development may be used as a project. The use of many sources of material and various activities to attain a
definite purpose demand that pupils be taught how to study. This directed study helps form proper habits. This increased use of pupil activity, sometimes supervised, influences the type of recitation or class work, as well as enlarges pupil learning through doing.

All these visual aids and pupil activities are used to make more real the past and to give a larger understanding of how the present grew out of the past. This enlarged understanding is to function in arousing a responsibility for participating in the activities of everyday life as intelligent citizens.

The trends in the changing conception of teaching history have not been confined to proposing schemes for the reorganization of the content of history and proposing methods and devices for increasing understanding through directed study and differentiated activities in the recitation. New methods for measuring the results of teaching have also been proposed. These proposals have been in the form of new type history tests.

The field of teaching history is so wide, the significance so great, that it has been studied by a large number, all looking toward improving the situation. We have shown in the historical presentation of this study that the plans and devices proposed for improving teaching history have been various. The trend in theory shows emphasis upon selecting and organizing history material to attain certain specific objectives. The setting up of goals and selecting material is almost wholly the province of curriculum makers and authors of textbooks. The teacher cannot be held responsible for the fact that the material
available for use is not of a type that harmonizes with the latest trends. The organization of available material for teaching is a province in which the teacher shares the responsibility. Since the material is so largely selected for the classroom teacher of history a study of practice should be limited to securing information concerning how teachers organize material and how they direct and utilize pupil activity for effective learning. A restatement of some principles of effective learning may help to evaluate the tabulated practices of teachers.

A principle, now recognized as basic in learning, is that pupils learn only by actively assimilating the experiences encountered. This implies organizing materials and activities to stimulate thought. These pupil activities may include reading books, magazines, classifying facts, preparing outlines, summaries, briefs, taking part in debate or open forum, making note books, scrapbooks, work books, organizing facts in new relations. These and other activities stimulate thought and aid assimilation.

A second principle of learning is that learnings develop simultaneously. While understanding is being acquired, habits of work, attitudes and appreciations develop. Again the learning situations must be as real and dramatic as possible. The pupil must have much first hand experience with the activities of his environment--excursions, observation, possible criticism of modes of living--to achieve an understanding of the social world in which he lives.
We recognize also that learning proceeds through accumulated experiences. The contacts with new situations, new personalities, the encountering new problems, help to give understanding. In addition every avenue of learning should be employed. There should be much reading of vivid descriptions of modes of living, of dramatic episodes, such as found in books of biography, of travel, of fiction and historical romance. Paralleling the word portrayals there should be a use of visual aids, pictures and objects that contribute to concrete imagery and add to understanding. In the midst of the accumulating experience the teacher must center attention on one thing at a time. The material must be organized into definite units of work, embodying a central movement, or a fundamental concept or generalization. This theme must be presented in concrete intensive studies which contribute to understanding. The maximum development or growth comes through understanding. The integrating of the various factors into an understanding is the vital and difficult thing.

Having made this summary of certain trends in the theory of history teaching and the pedagogical principles underlying them let us turn to the consideration of the tabulated data dealing with the practice of teaching history. The questionnaire asked for information that will show what the teacher does of her own initiative and also how she is influenced toward trends by outlines made by supervisors or by a text representative of certain conception of teaching history. Each item has been formulated to have a relation either to some trend shown
in the historical study or to the use of a device or method illustrating a principle of effective learning. The third division of the questionnaire is devoted to information concerning the textbook and procedure used in teaching.

The Textbooks Used

For all schools not organized as junior high schools there is in Kansas an adopted text: Burnham, "The Making of Our Country". Schools organized as junior high schools may select texts from an approved list. Other texts than the adopted book listed as used were:

Beard & Bagley, The History of the American People
Robbins, School History of the American People
Tryon & Lingley, The American People and Nation
West & West, The Story of Our Country
Marshall, The Story of Human Progress
Rugg, Social Science Pamphlets

All the schools included in the study except three were teaching courses in history and not social science. Two schools were using the Rugg Social Science Pamphlets and one was using The Story of Human Progress by Marshall. Only the Rugg and Marshall texts are organized on unified or composite subject basis; that is, they embody material from history, geography, economics, or other fields, as needed. All of the texts to a greater or less degree seek to use historical facts to explain and illustrate the problem of growth and development rather than merely record events and facts with no effort to show change. Teachers using texts other than the Rugg and Marshall books may use to a large degree their own initiative in organizing the work for teaching. These data indicate that the trend
in theory toward the use of social science instead of history
is not largely influencing those selecting and adopting texts
for use in the state and in cities.

Organization of Content for Teaching

The third division of the questionnaire is divided into
five sections:

A. Organization of content for teaching:
1. Are the topics of the text your only teaching outline? Yes No
2. Do you use a teaching outline furnished you? Yes No
3. Do you make your own teaching outline? Yes No
4. Does the outline used divide the work into large units? Yes No
   (Illustration of large unit: Immigration; Factory
   system; Establishing Federal government)
5. Does the outline used divide the work into large movements? Yes No
   (Illustration: Western movement in United States)
6. Do you use a pre-test before taking up the study of a
   division of the outline, or a large unit of history? Yes No
7. Is the project plan used to organize the content for teaching?
   Frequent Seldom Never
   If so, do the pupils help select the projects? Yes No

Explanation of the Tabulation

In order to control the answers to reveal practice as
definitely as possible in many of the items the words frequent,
seldom, and never, were used. The results are tabulated in
these items as F, frequent; S, seldom. To find the number of
teachers never using the activity of any item, add the F's and
S's and subtract from the total number in the tabulation, which
is the number at the bottom of the column. For example, in item
7 of Table V, 67 rural teachers use the project plan frequently,
168 seldom use it; 235 (67 plus 168) use it. There are 340
teachers in the tabulation. 105 teachers, or 30.8% never use
the project plan.
The tables have been constructed to show (1) the practice of teachers in different types of schools and (2) the practice of teachers of different amounts of college training. Anyone can determine from the tables what percentage of the teachers of a certain training use any type of organization, any kind of device or method of procedure that is asked for in the questionnaire. The number given at the bottom of each column in a table is the number tabulated in that group. If the number using any practice is used, as the numerator of a fraction, with the number tabulated as denominator, the fraction expresses the part of the whole number using that practice. This fractional part may be expressed in percent. To illustrate, Table V, item 3, shows the number of teachers in each group making teaching outlines to supplement the text. The table reads; in rural schools 246 out of 340 teachers, or 72.3% make outlines; in third class cities 236 out of 353; in second class cities 64 out of 77; in first class cities 33 out of 46, or 32.6%. Among teachers of 0-36 weeks training 224 out of 353, or 63.5% make outlines; among teachers having 37-72 weeks of training 135 out of 133; among those having 73-103 weeks of training 118 out of 145; among teachers having degrees, 115 out of 135 or 85.1%. By using the column of totals one may find what percentage of all the teachers use any practice. If the practice called for in any item of the questionnaire is a practice advocated in theory then the percentage of teachers using that practice measures the influence of theory on practice.
TABLE V

TABULATION TO SHOW THE ORGANIZATION OF CONTENT
FOR TEACHING

III A OF QUESTIONNAIRE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Amount of Preparation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R a n s</td>
<td>0 37 73 D T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R a d d t</td>
<td>to to to G T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>R A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I C. C. C.</td>
<td>35 72 103 E L</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III A

1. Text only outline?  48 61 11 8 45 36 23 19 123
2. Outline furnished?  117 94 15 19 95 58 45 47 245
3. Make own outline?  246 236 64 33 224 135 113 115 534
4. Divide work into large units?  226 226 62 40 239 106 113 93 556
5. Divide work into large movements?  221 221 63 39 211 115 107 107 540
6. Use pre-test? 34 33 13 6 29 25 16 16 36
7. Use project plan?  F 67 63 14 16 61 32 34 33 160
     S 163 193 40 22 136 102 71 64 423

No. tabulated 340 358 77 46 358 183 145 135 821

x--Key:  F = Frequent
          S = Seldom
        . . . . . . . . . . . . .
In considering the data tabulated in Table V the reader may well keep in mind that the marked trends in organization of content for teaching that the initiative of a teacher may largely control are expressed in the large units, movements, and problems or projects.

The text is used as the only guide in teaching by 128 or 15.6% of the teachers. This same number of teachers report no books save the text available for use, see Table XVI. Teaching outlines are furnished by someone else to 254 or 29.8% of the teachers. Teaching outlines are made by 534 or 71.1%. Since 15.6% use the text as the only guide, the data indicate that a considerable number of the teachers use their own initiative and make their own outlines after receiving outlines from someone else. Nearly as many teachers divide the work into large units or movements as make their own outline. These elements in theory are evidently carrying over in practice.

The project plan is used at times by 533 teachers. The pupils help select the projects in 402 classrooms. The influence of preparation is not as apparent in increasing the use of the project as in making teaching plans. This may be due to difference in interpretation of what a project is. This makes evident the fact that many teachers are attempting to use the large unit in teaching even though not used in the text.

Few teachers use a pre-test or a test over a section of work before teaching. The project plan is used frequently by
approximately twice as many teachers as the pre-test. This suggests that in all probability a large proportion of the teachers are not familiar with the use of the pre-test.

Increasing the training of the teacher increases the amount of planning and organizing of the work done by her, hence reduces the reliance upon the text. Of the teachers with degrees, 85.1% make their own outline for teaching. Of those having one year or less of preparation 62.5% make their own outlines.

The data show that teachers are being influenced in some degree by all the major theories of organization of material. The increase in preparation increases the use of large units and movements, of self made outlines and the project.

Plan of Assignment of Work

The historical part of this study has made evident the trend from rote memory of textbook history material to that of an attempting to get an understanding of how the present grew out of the past. To what extent a teacher is influenced in her teaching by this trend to give understanding will be manifest in the plans she uses for assigning work. Section B of Division III of the questionnaire is an attempt to collect information showing the influence of this trend on assignment of lessons:
B. Plan of assignment or presentation to the pupils:

1. Is there a definite daily assignment? Yes No
2. Are the assignments made by topics in the order given in the text? Yes No
3. Are the assignments made by sections or divisions of an outline? Yes No
4. Are the assignments made by large movements or units that may take several days to complete? Yes No
5. Put a circle around the proper word to indicate the extent to which pupils are asked at time of assignment:

   a. To make summary. Frequent Seldom Never
   b. To outline the important topics and subtopics. Frequent Seldom Never
   c. To find answers to questions given by you. Frequent Seldom Never
   d. To learn the meaning of a list of words or phrases given. (Illustration: Conscription; reparation; collective bargaining) Frequent Seldom Never
   e. To get a clear idea of the relation of topics or events to a problem or large unit being studied. Frequent Seldom Never
   f. To discover cause or causes of events. Frequent Seldom Never
   g. To read merely to get historical information. Frequent Seldom Never
TABLE VI

TABULATION TO SHOW PLAN OF ASSIGNMENT USED BY TEACHERS TOGETHER WITH FREQUENCY OF USE

III B OF QUESTIONNAIRE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Amount of Preparation (Weeks)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R d d t</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L C. C. C. 36 72 108 EE L</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III B:

| 1. Daily | 333 337 68 36 352 172 132 118 774 |
| 2. By topics in order given in text. | 252 260 49 27 266 131 96 95 538 |
| 3. By sections of outline | 192 220 46 29 205 106 103 73 487 |
| 4. By large movements or units | 124 158 46 30 130 81 80 67 358 |
| 5. Pupils are asked at time of assignment: |
| a. To make summary: | F 180 168 48 23 179 89 89 67 424 |
| s            | 130 148 22 15 146 76 41 52 315 |
| b. To outline: F 202 217 44 20 226 109 83 65 483 |
| s            | 105 119 26 19 118 59 41 51 269 |
| c. To find answers: | F 250 271 54 35 277 135 103 95 610 |
| s            | 74 79 22 9 65 44 40 35 184 |
| d. To learn meaning of words: | F 199 199 42 30 199 108 81 82 470 |
| s            | 126 148 25 10 147 70 57 35 309 |
| e. To get idea of relation of topics to problem or large unit: | F 220 273 69 33 239 134 120 107 600 |
| s            | 97 60 6 4 78 47 19 23 167 |
| f. To discover causes of events: | F 262 321 73 41 308 135 128 126 697 |
| s            | 78 36 3 4 49 48 17 7 121 |
| g. To read merely to get historical information: | F 96 120 32 14 106 64 41 51 262 |
| s            | 189 177 29 24 185 98 78 58 419 |

Number tabulated | 340 358 77 46 358 183 145 135 821 |

X--Key: F = Frequent
        S = Seldom
Nearly all teachers make a definite daily assignment of work. It is interesting to note that while 71.1% of the teachers make teaching outlines, only 59.3% make assignment from sections of an outline. The practice of asking pupils to outline material in the preparation of work is frequently used by 58.8%. Since 71.6% of the teachers make assignment of topics in the order they appear in the text the data suggest that in all probability most of the teaching outlines are made directly from the text or closely parallel it. Asking pupils to discover the cause of events in preparing a lesson ranks first in frequency of use. Giving a list of questions to find the answers ranks second. The fact that reading merely for historical information, making summaries, and outlining material read, rank low in use is interesting.

The very large proportion, 94.8%, of the teachers who ask pupils to learn meaning of words or terms is significant. An adequate knowledge of the vocabulary of history is one of the most important factors in the ability to read history with understanding. The child encounters in history a special technical vocabulary. The task and responsibility of teaching history reading rests with the teacher of history. The teacher must recognize and teach the meaning of the technical or special history words that need to be taught.

The frequency of giving a list of questions for pupils to find the answers indicates the influence of past practice upon the present practice. The usual list of questions tends to destroy association and thinking.

The influence on practice of the training of the teacher
is not as evident in Table VI as in Table V. This may be due to the fact that trends in plans of organizing content are more specific than those of the lesson assignment.

Evidently little thought is given to creating an interest in and a taste for historical reading. Only 31.9% frequently ask pupils to read merely for the historical information. This however is a greater percentage than has completed college work and rather closely parallels the number who have a major or minor in history. This is suggestive that interest awakens interest. The teacher's interest in historical reading is a strong factor in creating a similar interest in the pupils.

Plan of Using the Class Period

The use made of the recitation period reveals the teachers' conception of procedure to a larger degree than does the plan of assignment. As the changing conception has brought to the foreground understanding rather than rote memory the number and kinds of pupil activities have increased.

C. Plan of using Class period:

Put a circle around the proper word to indicate extent of use of each plan.

1. Reproduction of material of text by pupils by means of questions or the tonic plan. Frequent Seldom Never
2. Pupils giving meaning of words or answering questions assigned. Frequent Seldom Never
3. Study together to show how to prepare a lesson. Frequent Seldom Never
4. Teaching pupils to use table of contents, index, maps, graphs, etc. Frequent Seldom Never
5. Teacher lectures or presents phases of history. Frequent Seldom Never
6. Special reports by pupils or book reviews. Frequent Seldom Never
7. Directed or supervised study. Frequent Seldom Never
8. Dramatization. Frequent Seldom Never
9. Debate. Frequent Seldom Never
10. Excursions. Frequent Seldom Never
11. Pupils reporting mastery, i.e. presenting the organized results of the study of a unit. Frequent Seldom Never
### TABLE VII

**TABULATION TO SHOW FREQUENCY OF USE OF DIFFERENT PLANS OF RECITATION**

#### III C OF QUESTIONNAIRE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Amount of Preparation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F. 3 2 1</td>
<td>0- 37- 73- D. T.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Number of Teachers Using Each Plan**

Plan of using class period:

1. **Reproduction of material of text:**
   - F
     - 286 282 53 36 295 155 105 102 657
     - S
     - 39 48 18 5 31 23 34 22 110

2. **Giving meaning of words or answering questions:**
   - F
     - 226 246 45 28 238 120 91 96 545
     - S
     - 98 103 24 16 103 57 46 35 241

3. **Study how to prepare lesson:**
   - F
     - 114 162 42 27 132 82 67 64 345
     - S
     - 150 172 30 15 161 79 65 62 367

4. **Teaching pupils use table of contents, index, etc.:**
   - F
     - 291 282 65 35 294 162 120 97 673
     - S
     - 42 69 11 10 56 18 25 33 132

5. **Teacher lectures:**
   - F
     - 97 155 25 14 111 68 59 53 291
     - S
     - 180 156 44 26 184 82 73 67 406

6. **Special reports or book reviews:**
   - F
     - 108 178 46 34 122 86 78 80 366
     - S
     - 192 137 28 11 179 82 58 49 368

7. **Supervised study:**
   - F
     - 118 204 67 43 143 103 87 99 439
     - S
     - 140 61 9 1 98 53 41 19 211

8. **Dramatization:**
   - F
     - 6 7 2 9 7 3 7 7 24
     - S
     - 111 138 25 24 124 68 50 56 298

9. **Debate:**
   - F
     - 42 61 10 8 50 36 22 13 121
     - S
     - 160 228 45 26 199 93 91 76 459

10. **Excursions:**
    - F
      - 9 4 2 4 9 1 1 1 15
    - S
      - 53 78 13 4 61 40 29 23 153

11. **Pupils reporting mastery:**
    - F
      - 74 110 23 15 74 54 55 44 227
    - S
      - 147 124 20 20 133 71 55 47 311

No. tabulated: 340 358 77 46 358 183 145 135 821

---

**Key:**
- F = Frequent
- S = Seldom
The reproduction of material of the text is yet the dominant way of using the class period. Only 54 or 6.5% indicated that they did not use it. Considerably less than half (42%) of the teachers frequently try to teach pupils how to study. It is evident that the majority of teachers do not consider getting the main points through making an outline as valuable as trying to find causes of events. The dramatic episodes are comparatively little used; 499 teachers indicated that they never used dramatization. This may be due to material found in the text or it may indicate that the relation of visualization and imaginary participation to emotional reaction is not fully realized. Emotions give the motive power for behavior.

What is done in the class period must be influenced by the length of time available for use. Table IV presents the data concerning the length of the period concisely and shows a range in the length of from ten to seventy minutes.

Relative to the use of the class period by the 821 teachers, 35 never have pupils give meaning of words or answer questions previously assigned; 109 never use the class period to study with pupils to teach how to prepare; 16 never teach pupils to use the index and table of contents; 87 never have special reports or book reviews; 251 never use debate; only 163 use excursions; 124 never use the lecture and of these 110 are in rural or third class city schools with short recitation periods. There are 181 teachers who never use supervised study. Of these 173 are in rural or third class city schools with a large
number of recitations.

There are 556 teachers who outline work in large units and 358 of these make the assignment by these units. Of those using the large units 227 frequently, and 311 sometimes, ask pupils to present the organized results of the study as a unit. This indicates a laudable effort of a considerable number to help get understanding.

The use of debate, dramatization, and teaching how to study a lesson increase with the amount of preparation of the teacher.

The Use of Current Sources of Information

Division III:

D. Types of activities and sources of information:

1. Do you use a current event paper regularly? Yes No

If so, give name of paper used. _______________________
### TABLE VIII

**TABULATION TO SHOW USE OF CURRENT SOURCES OF INFORMATION**

#### III D OF QUESTIONNAIRE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Amount of Preparation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>C.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use Current Event paper regularly</th>
<th>Name of paper:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Current Events</td>
<td>83</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pathfinder</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dailies</td>
<td>27</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Junior Review</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>News Outline</td>
<td>11</td>
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<td></td>
<td>News Review</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Literary Digest</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>254, 321, 49, 23</td>
<td>647</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Since about 1890 the use of current sources of information in connection with history has been advocated. This trend seems to have developed in connection with the idea that history is a means of interpreting the present. History should help to explain current events and customs, thus the present and past are more closely connected. In the group studied 543, or 63.5% of all the teachers use current event papers regularly. In third class cities 75%, and in first class cities 60%, use them. Of teachers with one year of preparation or less 76% use current events, while only 54% of the teachers with degrees use them. In other words the use of current event papers decreases as the preparation of the teacher increases. Does this indicate that prepared teachers do not use current sources of information in their work or does it mean that the prepared teachers do not rely on current event papers for the current material used? It is interesting to compare these use of current event papers with the use of the bulletin board as shown in Table IX. Again, to what extent does the use of recent important events as a regular routine of class tend to awaken an interest in this material, or does the putting of these events into the traditional mold of teaching tend to detach them from real life experiences?

Types of Pupil Activities Used

Division III:

2. Is a notebook required? Yes No
3. Is a scrapbook required? Yes No
4. Is an outline map book used? Yes No
If so, give the name of the author

5. Put a circle around any of the following which are used in teaching history. Sand table; Scrap book; bulletin board; collections of pictures; of cartoons; of historical objects.
TABLE IX

TABULATION TO SHOW TYPES OF ACTIVITIES USED

III D OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Number of Teachers Using Each Type of Activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Amount of Preparation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R, 3, 2, l</td>
<td>0 37 73 D T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U, r, n, s</td>
<td>E 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R, d, d, t</td>
<td>to to to G T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A,</td>
<td>R A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III D

Types of activities used in teaching:

Individual activities,

2. Note book required
   - 180 183 33 23 189 90 82 63 424

3. Scrap book required
   - 52 34 15 13 41 20 24 29 114

4. Outline map book used
   - 25 40 14 2 27 16 20 18 81

5. Collective or group activities, including teacher:
   a. Sand table
      - 58 1 0 0 45 7 4 3 59
   b. Scrap book
      - 64 37 15 20 47 29 27 33 136
   c. Bulletin board
      - 171 193 59 33 172 116 88 85 461
   d. Collections of pictures
      - 210 189 62 36 204 108 96 89 497
   e. Collections of cartoons
      - 91 109 32 28 102 53 53 52 250
   f. Of historical objects
      - 129 114 33 23 121 75 52 51 299

No. tabulated

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>340 358 77 46</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>358 183 145 135 821</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

. . . . .
Accompanying the shift of emphasis from rote memory to understanding and the development of the psychology of learning there came to be advocated a wide range of pupil activities which aided visualization. These activities were both for the individual and group. In this tabulation there is a general increase in the use of the activities with the increase in the preparation of the teacher.

More than half of the teachers require note books. The scrap book is not a popular form of required pupil activity in history and only 22 teachers use the scrap book as an optional activity that do not require it.

In first class cities 83% of the teachers use a bulletin board while 50% in rural schools use it. Of teachers with degrees 63% use a bulletin board, and 48% of teachers with one year of preparation or less use it. More teachers collect pictures than use bulletin boards. The cartoon as an instrument of teaching is not widely used. More than one-third of the teachers make a collection of historical objects. Outline maps books are used by less than 10% of all the teachers, the largest percentage of use being in third class cities.

Use of Supplementary or Parallel Readings

With the introduction of the topical method and the expansion of history material the literature dealing with the teaching of history began to suggest collateral reading. The report of the Committee of Eight emphasized this by insisting that every pupil should read at least one parallel account of
each topic presented in the text. Since that time all books on method have reinforced the demand for supplementary reading. This demand has been further reinforced by the claim that one of the aims of history teaching is to create a taste for historical reading.

Questionnaire, III D:

6. Is supplementary or parallel reading required? Yes No
   If so, is the supplementary reading used only in the form of special assignments to pupils? Yes No
   a. Are pupils free to select reading from a list of references? Yes No
   b. Are pupils free to read from books not on a list furnished? Yes No
   c. Do pupils use a reading report form or blank for outside reading? Yes No
   d. Are pupils tested on the outside reading? Yes No

7. If supplementary reading is not required, indicate your judgment of extent of reading done by putting a circle around one of the following: All pupils Many Few None
TABLE X

TABULATION TO SHOW USE OF SUPPLEMENTARY READING III D OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Number of Teachers Using Each Type of Activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Amount of Preparation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>R 3 2 1</td>
<td>0 37 73 D T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U r n s</td>
<td>E O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R d d t</td>
<td>to to to G T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A C C C</td>
<td>36 72 108 EE L</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III D

6. Supplementary or Parallel reading:
   a. Required  201 229 57 36 215 124 93 91 523
   b. Pupils free to select reading from list of references:
      235 253 60 40 260 113 104 111 588
   c. Pupils free to read from books not on furnished list:
      216 231 61 39 251 126 108 112 597
   d. Pupils use a reading report form or blank:
      45 34 7 7 42 24 14 13 93
   e. Pupils tested on outside reading:
      132 132 33 12 132 68 65 44 309
   
   No. Tabulated 340 358 77 46 358 183 145 135 821

f. Estimated Voluntary Reading:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All pupils</td>
<td>42</td>
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<tr>
<td>Many pupils</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Few pupils</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>33</td>
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<td>24</td>
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<tr>
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<td>455</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Parallel or supplementary reading is required by 64% of the teachers. Of those requiring supplementary reading, 59% test pupils on this reading. While 693 teachers report books of some kind available only 523 teachers, 75.4% of those having available supplementary books, require parallel reading.

Special reports and book reviews are used as a form of recitation by 697 teachers. It is interesting to note that 455 teachers, or 55.4%, report pupils as doing voluntary supplementary reading, indicating pupil interest. It is worthy of note also that the estimated percentage of voluntary reading is slightly greater in rural schools and cities of third class than in cities of the first and second class. The larger places have the advantage in respect to availability of supplementary reading material. The information concerning voluntary reading of pupils may be more accessible to teachers in non-departmental work than in departmental. The larger the school the greater the tendency for the teacher to be out of touch with home life and to be less intimately acquainted with pupils.

The percentage of teachers with degrees requiring supplementary reading is larger than the percentage of those with smaller preparation requiring it. Required reading is more frequent in cities. This may be due to the larger percentage of availability of reading material. The availability of books is shown in Tables X to XIV inclusive.

Availability of Supplementary Books and Visual Material

The information concerning the extent of the use of parallel readings must be further considered. Parallel readings
and the use of other visual material must depend upon the availability of the material. The availability measures in part at least the influence of the demand of theory upon practice in that administrators have provided this material. The frequency of use of available material indicates the influence of theory upon the practice of the classroom teacher.

Questionnaire, III. D:

8. In the list below indicate on the left the approximate number available for use. On the right indicate your judgment of the extent of use by putting a circle around the proper word.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approx. No.</th>
<th>Extent of Use.</th>
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<tr>
<td>Vol. _______</td>
<td>Reference books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vol. _______</td>
<td>Supplementary texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vol. _______</td>
<td>Historical fiction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vol. _______</td>
<td>Books of biography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_______</td>
<td>Historical maps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_______</td>
<td>Visual Material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_______</td>
<td>Stereographs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_______</td>
<td>Slides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_______</td>
<td>Films</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. Do you use visual material from some extension division? Yes No

If so, indicate from where received and frequency of use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Frequency of use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Tables XI to XIV inclusive give data concerning the availability of different kinds of supplementary reading or reference books together with the estimated use of the same. Table XV presents data concerning the availability of visual material and its estimated use. Table XVI brings together in summary form the totals shown in Tables XI to XV inclusive.
TABLE XI
TABULATION TO SHOW THE NUMBER OF REFERENCE
BOOKS AVAILABLE FOR USE AND THE ESTIMATED
FREQUENCY OF USE

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<th>Number of books available</th>
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<th>11</th>
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<th>21</th>
<th>26</th>
<th>30</th>
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Rural:

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</tr>
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</table>

3rd Class:

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2nd Class:

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1st Class:

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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 schools</td>
<td>Range of books available, 1 to 200.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tabulated.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of schools</th>
<th>62</th>
<th>206</th>
<th>35</th>
<th>120</th>
<th>35</th>
<th>69</th>
<th>99</th>
<th>626</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use of books</td>
<td>F</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>35</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 821 schools   | The number not reporting is 195, or 23.8%.
| tabulated.    |                                               |

m Indicates the step in which the median for that type of school falls.

x--Key: F = Frequently S = Seldom used.

used.
TABLE XII

TABULATION TO SHOW THE NUMBER OF SUPPLEMENTARY TEXTBOOKS AVAILABLE FOR USE AND THE FREQUENCY OF USE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of books available</th>
<th>No. schools tabulated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rural:
No. of schools 127<sup>m</sup> 32 6 1 166 340

Use of books  
F 60 19 6 1 86  
S 56 7 63

Range of books available, 1 to 15

3rd Class:
No. of schools 137<sup>m</sup> 54 12 11 214 358

Use of books  
F 53 28 6 9 96  
S 69 21 6 2 98

Range of books available, 1 to 50

2nd Class:
No. of schools 17 8 6<sup>m</sup> 25 56 77

Use of books  
F 11 4 5 20 40  
S 2 4 1 3 10

Range of books available, 1 to 140

1st Class:
No. of schools 3 8 5 21<sup>m</sup> 37 46

Use of books  
F 1 4 3 14 22  
S 2 2 2 2 8

Range of books available, 1 to 250

Summary:
No. of schools 284 102 29 58 473 821

Use of books  
F 125 55 20 44 244  
S 129 34 9 7 179

No available supplementary texts were reported by 348, or 42.5%.  
m indicates the step in which the median for that type of school falls.  
x--Key:  F = Frequently used; S = Seldom used.
TABLE XIII

TABULATION TO SHOW THE NUMBER OF BOOKS OF HISTORICAL FICTION AVAILABLE FOR USE AND ESTIMATED FREQUENCY OF USE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of books available</th>
<th>Number of schools tabulated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 to 6</td>
<td>11 to 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**RURAL:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of schools</th>
<th>Use of books</th>
<th>Range of books available, 1 to 30</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>111m</td>
<td>Fx 38</td>
<td>Sx 39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**3RD CLASS:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of schools</th>
<th>Use of books</th>
<th>Range of books available, 1 to 50</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>86</td>
<td>F 39</td>
<td>S 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**2ND CLASS:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of schools</th>
<th>Use of books</th>
<th>Range of books available, 1 to 100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>F 4</td>
<td>S 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**1ST CLASS:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of schools</th>
<th>Use of books</th>
<th>Range of books available, 1 to 300</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>F 1</td>
<td>S 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUMMARY:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of schools</th>
<th>Use of books</th>
<th>Range of books available, 1 to 300</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>210</td>
<td>F 82</td>
<td>S 86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>151</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>39</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>480</td>
<td>257</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No available historical fiction was reported by 341, or 41.5%. m indicates the step in which the median falls.

x—Key: F = Frequently used; S = Seldom used.

It seems evident from these data that schools in cities of the first class with large city libraries did not report books in the library as available.
### TABLE XIV

**Tabulation to Show the Number of Books of Biography Available for Use and the Estimated Frequency of Use**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of books available</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>16</th>
<th>21</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>tabulation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Rural:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of schools</th>
<th>111m</th>
<th>60</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>134</th>
<th>340</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use of books F^x</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S^x</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>84</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Range of books available, 1 to 20**

**3rd Class:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of schools</th>
<th>120m</th>
<th>61</th>
<th>24</th>
<th>16</th>
<th>14</th>
<th>235</th>
<th>358</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use of books F</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>109</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>103</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Range of books available, 1 to 100**

**2nd Class:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of schools</th>
<th>14</th>
<th>13m</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>50</th>
<th>77</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use of books F</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Range of books available, 1 to 80**

**1st Class:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of schools</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>4m</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>28</th>
<th>46</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use of books F</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Range of books available, 1 to 200**

**Summary:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of schools</th>
<th>256</th>
<th>138</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>24</th>
<th>39</th>
<th>497</th>
<th>821</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use of books F</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>227</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>207</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No available books of biography were reported by 324, or 39.4%. m indicates the step in which the median for that type of school falls.

---

**Key:**
- F = Frequently Used;
- S = Seldom used.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Maps</th>
<th>Stereo-</th>
<th>Slides</th>
<th>Films</th>
<th>Number of Schools in Tabulation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>RURAL:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Schools</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>37</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3RD CLASS:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Schools</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>358</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>82</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2ND CLASS:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Schools</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>34</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1ST CLASS:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Schools</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUMMARY:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of schools</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>173</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No available wall maps were reported by 561, or 63.3%.

**Key:**
- F = Frequently used;
- S = Seldom used.

...
TABLE XVI

SUMMARY OF TABLES X TO XIV INCLUSIVE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reference books</th>
<th>Supplementary texts</th>
<th>Historical fiction</th>
<th>Biography</th>
<th>Maps</th>
<th>No. of schools giving no report</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RURAL:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of schools</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequently used</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seldom Used</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>18</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>340 schools tabulated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3RD CLASS:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of schools</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequently used</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seldom used</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>358 schools tabulated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2ND CLASS:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of schools</td>
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<td>56</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td>Frequently used</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>34</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seldom used</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>77 schools tabulated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1ST CLASS:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of schools</td>
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<td>37</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequently used</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seldom used</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>46 schools tabulated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of schools</td>
<td>626</td>
<td>473</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>497</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>128n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequently used</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>173</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seldom used</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>821 schools tabulated.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- It seems evident that in all probability a few teachers failed to indicate books that were available.
Reference books are much more frequently available and used more largely than books of biography, historical fiction, and supplementary texts. More schools have books of biography than historical fiction but use them somewhat less frequently.

More than 10% of the teachers in schools having available supplementary texts, books of historical fiction, and biography, and maps, indicate they never use them.

Types of Tests Used

The measurement movement with emphasis upon the objective tests has had a prominent place in the literature of teaching for nearly a quarter of a century. As has been pointed out, there is a definite trend toward the use of these tests.

Questionnaire, III E:

E. Measuring the results or achievements:
1. Indicate the extent of use of the following types of tests by putting a circle around the proper word.
   a. The common form of questions, also called essay type. Frequent Seldom Never
   b. False and true test. Frequent Seldom Never
   c. Completion test. Frequent Seldom Never
   d. Multiple answer test. Frequent Seldom Never
   e. Vocabulary or word meaning test. Frequent Seldom Never
   f. Matching tests. Frequent Seldom Never

2. Do you use any standardized history test? Yes No
   a. If so, give the name or names of the test
TABLE XVII

TABULATION TO SHOW TYPES OF TESTS USED TOGETHER WITH FREQUENCY OF USE

III E OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Number of teachers using each type of test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Amount of Preparation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R 3 2 1</td>
<td>0 37 73 D T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U 0 3 0</td>
<td>E O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R d d t</td>
<td>to to to G T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>R A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L c. c. c.</td>
<td>36 72 108 EE L</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Essay type:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>183 171 27 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>139 151 41 18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. True and False:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>270 270 45 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>67 72 26 18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

c. Completion test:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>202 274 60 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>104 63 11 8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

d. Multiple answer:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>118 157 38 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>109 126 29 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

e. Word Meaning:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>97 122 24 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>162 194 33 26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

f. Matching tests:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>148 181 34 24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>132 113 30 16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Use Standardized 93 112 17 13

Number tabulated in each group 340 358 77 46

---

x--Key: F = Frequently used; S = Seldom used.
Of the 821 teachers reporting 81 never use the essay or discussion type of question, and 349, or 42.5%, seldom use this type. Less than half, 47.6%, frequently used this form of test.

The false and true test has its most frequent use in rural schools and among the teachers with two years or less of preparation. On the whole a larger number of teachers use it than any other. The completion type of test is the favorite, or used more frequently, in second and first class cities and among teachers of more than two years preparation. Teachers with more than two years preparation use all forms of the objective test more frequently than the essay type.

The proportion of teachers claiming to make assignment by asking pupils to find cause and effect is large. In Table VI it is shown that 696 teachers frequently, and 122 sometimes, make assignment to discover causes of events. The Osburn study showed that questions relating to cause and effect were rarely used. Table XVII shows that the number of teachers frequently using the essay type of question is only 391 or less than half the teachers. The data here presented seems to suggest that the emphasis placed on cause and effect in preparation is not followed by a corresponding emphasis in testing. The dominant use of the new type of test at least suggests emphasis on memory rather than thought questions. It is true that testing for memory tests recall. Recall through association is necessary for thinking but if recall becomes an end and not a means, thinking is not aided.

Only a few of the teachers gave the names of the

1. Osburn, op. cit., p. 63
standardized tests which they indicated were used. Those listed were: the Tracy; Denny-Nelson; Gregory; Hahn; Pressey-Richards; the Public School Achievement Test; and the Stanford Achievement Test. Under the heading of standardized tests there was frequent reference to American History Teaching and Testing, by M. J. Stormzand. This book is a manual containing a complete set of scientific tests for each chapter of Beard and Bagley's, The History of the American People. These tests are not standardized. The use of such a list of questions is serviceable as suggestion but the extensive use of them may mechanize teaching.

Conclusions

The findings of the study have been presented in the foregoing tabulations. These data show the influence of the changing conception of teaching history upon the practice. The general basis for evaluating practice must be the extent to which any plan or device utilizes the accepted principles of learning, helps to give the past reality and contributes toward an understanding of the present. The questionnaire attempted to collect information concerning the use of certain specific plans and devices that may be used for improving history teaching. Each item in the parts of the questionnaire dealing with procedure and equipment has been used because it is related to giving understanding, or is a device to make effective one of more principles of learning. Not all items are of equal value and it would be difficult to evaluate them in terms of relative numerical value. All have some bearing
upon pedagogical factors that contribute to effective teaching. The percentage of teachers using any plan or device, having bearing upon one or more of the principles of effective teaching shows to what extent teaching is being influenced by that device or principle. All the trends in the theory of teaching history have a basis in the psychological principles of learning. The tabulated results show that trained teachers are to a large degree using in their teaching the principles of learning summarized on pages 125 and 126.

It is apparent from Table V that most teachers are attempting to organize the material on the unit or problem plan. On the other hand Table VII shows that the recitation is dominantly used to reproduce the material of the text. The changing conception of organizing material is evidently producing results more rapidly than the changing conception of the recitation.

In some items the tabulation does not show a great difference between the methods of teachers with degrees and those of much less preparation. This fact emphasizes the truth that teachers are influenced more in practice by what they see done than by what they are told should be done. In evaluating the practice of teachers by means of theory let us remember that teachers of history as well as of other subjects are learning to teach by what they see and experience in the classroom more largely than by what is given in theory. It is the contagion of example more than any proposed method that transforms practice. "The ferment now at work is full of promise."

To the question, Are the teachers making good in teaching
history?, the tabulated results suggest an answer. No doubt each person will interpret the data in a somewhat different way. The presentation of the change in conception of teaching history reveals the task that has been assigned to history. The objectives claimed for history make it evident that in theory history is one of the core subjects of the whole school curriculum. It is the school subject most largely responsible for ideals, attitudes which are to come as a result of being able to understand what has taken place in the past and what is taking place now. History teaching is to be the foundation for citizenship, for teaching us the art of living together. It should help to make us wise and good. The data in this study show only some of the mechanical factors or phases of the process of teaching history. It gives an opportunity for each to compare what is being done with what he thinks ought to be done. Since there is no agreement concerning the best plan of procedure in teaching history, there can be no universally accepted standard for measuring what is being done. However, the trends shown in the tabulation of the practice of trained teachers are toward the use of those activities which the principles of learning and teaching indicate should be effective.

The tabulated data given justify the following conclusions:
(1) A larger percentage of teachers in towns than in rural schools are using those practices that are in harmony with the newer conceptions of teaching. (2) A larger percentage of teachers with degrees than with smaller preparation are using practices in harmony with the trends in theory. Since
the towns and cities have the better prepared teachers, all the data indicate that training influences practice so that it more nearly harmonizes with the principles of effective learning and teaching. The teaching is being improved by training the teachers.

Probably all concede that the teacher is the most important factor in securing effective results. Since the historical information given in grades seven and eight forms the common and universal basis for intelligent citizenship, the need for teachers with a thorough grasp of history is evident. Increasing the training of the teacher increases her initiative and self-reliance as shown by the amount of planning and organizing of work done by college trained teachers. The lack of a knowledge of history is conspicuous in the majority of history teachers of the elementary schools, as evidenced by the scanty preparation and limited experience herein presented. The marked need for better prepared teachers is re-enforced by the fact that the median preparation of all the history teachers in this study is 46.3 weeks of college work, of rural school teachers it is 32.3 weeks of college work. But the lack of preparation of the teacher is not the only handicap of the rural school. The data show that the number of available supplementary books and visual aids is smaller in the rural school than elsewhere. The rural teacher has the largest number of subjects to teach, hence the least time to give to each. The least prepared has the poorest conditions for effective teaching, and the largest teaching load.
If the results herein given show shortcomings let us remember that sometimes the service of pointing out needs but opens the way for improvement. The recognition of a need stimulates effort and search to meet the need. So long as there is no recognition of failure, of need, the creative energy is little used. If the data of this study present new evidence of certain conditions in the situation that may call forth creative effort and bring improvement they have served their purpose.
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The following is quite recent and rather complete: