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INSTRUCTION PAPER.

SUBJECT:

PEDAGOGICS OF HISTORY.

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PEDAGOGICS OF HISTORY.

INTRODUCTION.

GENERAL REMARKS.

1. Forms of Written Thought.—Extended composition has been divided into four kinds: *Description*, *Narration*, *Exposition*, *Argument*. Of course, there are many other varieties, but these four are the only forms that are usually found in text-books on history. To understand the reason why it is so difficult to find a good working manual on the subject of history and what qualities should characterize such a manual, it will be necessary to consider briefly these four kinds of composition.

2. Description.—Description may be of *persons* or of *things*. A description of anything should present an orderly account of the qualities that belong to the object described. If a description be in terms that are commonly used, it is *ordinary* or *popular;* if it introduces the technical terms employed in some particular science, it is a *scientific* description.

3. Narrative.—Narrative bears the same relation to *acts* and *events* that description does to persons and things. A narrative, as well as a description, may be either *minute* or *cursory*—it may descend to the smallest particulars, or it may give only the most conspicuous and striking facts in a series of happenings.

The items that make up a narrative should follow, first, *the order of time*. It will appear, later, that in this requirement consists the principal difficulty in historical writing. In the nature of things, events that together make up a complex whole succeed one another in time, and an account of them is more vivid and more easily remembered if, in relating them, the order of their occurrence is observed. Indeed, the most striking

excellence in a sentence, a paragraph, or a sustained account of any matter, is this observance of chronological order in the arrangement of its elements. In this respect, more perhaps than in any other, consists the difference between the work of our best writers and that of inferior writers.

In addition to this, a narrative should observe, second, *the order of logical sequence or relative importance.* In every narrative will be found many passages in which the element of time does not enter. Thus, the explanation of motives, of the purpose, results, or consequences of acts or events, of surrounding or accompanying circumstances—these and many other matters are of this nature. An excellent illustration of what is meant by logical sequence in a narrative, is found in the paragraphs introductory to the "Chimes," by Charles Dickens. Edgar A. Poe's prose works furnish some of the best examples of logical arrangement of particulars that can be found in literature. Let the student try the experiment of rearranging the sentences or the paragraphs of that author, and he will feel the force of what is here stated.

4. Exposition.—Exposition is neither more nor less than *explanation.* Like all explanation, it should be *clear;* it should contain nothing intended to arouse emotion, but should be addressed to the intellect alone. As is the case with narrative and description, it should, in the arrangement of its matter, observe the order of time, if time is an element, and, where the element of time does not enter, of logical sequence.

A definition is the simplest form of exposition. An explanation of an example in mathematics, an account of the action of a drug, or an explanation of a chemical reaction are examples of exposition. In writing a history of the United States, the author would find it necessary to suspend his narrative in order to explain our relations with England, the mutual feeling between the countries, and many other matters neither narrative nor descriptive.

5. Argument.—It is no part of the work of a historian to introduce argument into his writing. He should content himself with the presentation of facts and events; and, accordingly,

it is very unusual to find in history anything in the nature of distinctly expressed argument. Occasionally, indeed, we find exposition colored more or less by attempts to convince the reader of the correctness of some view held by the author. Everything of this kind, however, is very much out of place in a history. Other things being equal, the excellence of a work on history increases with its impartiality—the absence of any expression of the author's opinion—the absence of argument and of matter intended to appeal to the emotions of the reader.

6. History Consists of the First Three of These Forms of Composition.—That history should consist almost, if not entirely, of *description*, *narrative*, and *exposition* in varying proportions will be evident to the student. Anything else should be in the nature of quotation for purposes of illustration. It must not be assumed that these three varieties of composition are always, or even often, found separate. They are combined in all proportions, and it is often difficult to determine which predominates in a given paragraph, section, or chapter.

In order to render intelligible the narrative of some event, say a battle, a *description* of the battle-field, its surroundings, and the roads leading to it ; or an *exposition* of some principle of military science, or of the advantages of some particular formation of the attacked or the attacking forces ; or some *explanation* of how the armies came to meet at that particular time and place—any one or all of these may be necessary.

It is clear, therefore, that written history is made up of *description*, *exposition*, and *explanation* in varying proportions, and that in all these, chronological order should be followed when time is an element. When considerations of time do not dominate the arrangement of historical matter, as is generally the case in explanation and exposition, then the laws of cause and effect—of logical sequence—should determine the succession of parts. Historical arrangement in the nature of climax is peculiarly effective. Gibbon, Macaulay, and many others among the writers of history have realized in this fact one of the principal charms of this species of composition.

The writer may be permitted to observe, at this point, that

interest is added to a lesson in history, and the operation of the law of association is aided, by having the pupils examine the text for the purpose of determining to which class of composition the several paragraphs belong. This is not to divert attention from the subject matter considered as history, but to illuminate, and add to the interest of, the text.

7. Unilineal and Multilineal Writing.—Professor Bain, in speaking of the different kinds of composition, employs the words *unilineal*, *bilineal*, and *multilineal*. These words contain the Latin word *linum*, flax, thread, and very happily characterize the varieties of description, explanation, exposition, and argument.

If one were required to describe any simple object, or to write a narrative of the doings of any person during an entire day, either of these would be an example of *unilineal* composition. The subject is not complicated by any side issues. There are no threads on either side of the main thread of the narrative or the description that are necessary to the completeness. No special literary art or skill is requisite in this kind of composition—only the ability to tell a "plain unvarnished tale."

History, however, is not *unilineal* but *multilineal*. Numerous threads must be taken up, carried into, and incorporated with, the principal thread; and this must be done in such manner as to give unity to the whole, and preserve its interest and intelligibility. This, it is easy to see, is a very difficult task. The sequence of events with respect to time cannot be observed, for, after tracing the main thread of the narrative through a certain period, the writer is compelled to go back again and again, and follow the minor threads to the point where he broke off. An unavoidable consequence is that the reader is confused by the multitude of extrinsic incidents making up the complete story, the effect upon his mind is weakened, and he is quickly wearied.

The multilineal treatment may be likened to a river with its tributaries, or to a tree with its innumerable branches, branchlets, and twigs. Every one has noticed the fact that a tree with an *axial* trunk, like the pine or the poplar, is much more

pleasing to the eye than one with a *solvent* trunk, and that, when a tree is covered with foliage, hiding its branches and making it a unit to the eye, its beauty as a part of the landscape is much enhanced. It is a general principle, indeed, that simplicity and symmetry are two elements indispensable to the beautiful. This is in accordance with the well known Theory of Pleasure and Pain, that a sense of baffled effort on the part of the mind to comprehend is painful, and that the reverse is pleasurable. Order, simplicity, logical sequence, and symmetry afford us pleasure; while complexity, involvement, and discord hinder and perplex the action of the mind and create an effect that is more or less displeasing or painful.

The fact that historical works are necessarily *multilineal* constitutes the chief obstacle to unity, and explains why the world has furnished so few great historians. Some one has remarked that a satisfactory history of the Jesuits has never been written, and perhaps never can be written, the reason being that the Order has been involved and active in the politics, and has influenced the history, of every country in Europe. A history of this organization would therefore be painfully multilineal.

8. Unsatisfactory Textbooks on History.—From the considerations stated above, it is easily seen that to write an interesting textbook on history is a difficult matter, and it is, in fact, a task that has rarely been accomplished. Many a work of fiction, while vividly conceived and ably written, has failed on account of the introduction of too many characters. When Henry Ward Beecher was writing his novel "Norwood" as a serial for the New York Ledger, some one asked him how he meant to dispose of the many people that he had brought into the work. He is said to have replied that he would have them killed in a railroad accident. The novel was wonderfully well written, but no one hears of it now, and this is chiefly owing to its highly multilineal character. How different is the case with the story of Robinson Crusoe. Perhaps no single fact has contributed so much to make Defoe's story an immortal classic as its *unilineality*. The attention is constantly centered on the

hero, and even when Friday appears on the scene, there is still but one thread in the narrative. The newcomer falls into the same relation in the narrative as the goats and the parrot sustain to Crusoe. Everything is subordinated to the movements, the hopes, the fears, and the plans of Crusoe. Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress" loses much of its interest when the attention of the reader has to be divided between Christian and his wife. The story ceases to be *unilineal* and becomes *bilineal*. The rare art of weaving into a single fabric, elements that seem unrelated and incongruous, must characterize the writer of a good textbook on history.

As a consequence of the difficulties mentioned above, our textbooks on history lack unity and interest, and afford but little help to the pupil or the teacher. It follows, of course, that

9. Children Dislike the Study of History.—It is a fact well known among educators that students of history rarely like the subject. They often delight in the study of grammar, of geography, of mathematics, of language, or of science, but, generally, their feeling about the subject of history is, "I hate it." Occasionally, but not often, a class is found of which the contrary is true. This suggests the question of *why*. Is there indeed something in the subject itself that should cause it to be, both to teacher and pupil, a source of weariness and disgust? We think not. Certainly interest and pleasure ought to be found in the story of what men and nations have done and suffered, of how the slow march of progress has been accomplished, and of what the world's great activities have been. Without hesitation, one might assume that no subject of study could be of greater human interest, or furnish a more effective stimulus to hopes of high endeavor. But, as taught in our schools, history fails, with some rare exceptions, either to inspire the ambition of its students, or even to interest them.

10. A General Principle in Teaching.—As has been remarked, we occasionally find a teacher able to arouse in a class the greatest interest and enthusiasm in the study of

history. Another teacher, after greater effort, finds the subject wearisome to himself and hateful to his pupils. The same thing happens with other subjects. The writer has seen entire classes of students extraordinarily interested in geometry, so much so indeed, that they were disposed to neglect every other study, and he has known the opposite condition of things. Such facts have led to the recognition by educators of the principle,—

Any subject that is well taught is interesting to the student.

It follows, therefore, that when pupils dislike any given study, the teacher is responsible. It is not much in extenuation to urge that textbooks are faulty, for teachers of real ability rely little upon them. They themselves are the textbooks—living textbooks, instinct with enthusiasm and interest—a hundred-fold more instructive than books supplied by the publishers. In fact, our best teachers are, in many subjects, more hindered than helped by textbooks. It is the contact of mind with mind that is in the best sense effective—not the contact of mind with "cold type."

11. History Difficult to Teach Well.—It is not easy to achieve success in teaching any subject, and this is especially true of the history of the United States. Apart from want of skill and experience in the teacher, there are several other causes that contribute to failure. The principal of these are the want of unity in the subject itself, arising from its multi-lineal character, and the faultiness in textbooks. As has already been stated, for many hundreds of years, it has been thought by writers of history that "the king is everything and the people are of no account." Hence, during all this time, history has been a record only of battles and the movements of armies, the intrigues of courts, and the rise and fall of kings. The social and political, the commercial and industrial history of the nations ruled by these kings, the interplay of forces affecting the general weal, and the progress and effect of science and invention, are regarded as of no importance. Our histories have told us nothing of the national life at large—its

busy activities, its changing opinions, with their causes and results ; nothing of the nation's industrial and commercial development, and the means by which it was effected ; nothing of the ethical forces operating to create national epochs ; only the story of its generals, and the wars in which they figured, of the triumphs and failures of its politicians and its rulers that come and go.

The matters relating to the daily life and activities of a nation make up the *soul* of history, so to speak ; but what we really find in our textbooks is only the *body*—the mere *skeleton* of history. The true logic—the correct interpretation—of human happenings is discoverable only from these omitted matters. And, hence, the teacher's opportunity to interest and to instruct truly and rightly is lost, unless he has informed himself by seeking for the whole truth where alone it may be found—in the records of the growth and progress of the nation itself.

12. The Purpose in the Study of History.—In the study of any subject, there is, or should be, some definite advantage in view. Some gain in discipline of mind or of body, or some practical usefulness, or both, should be clearly proposed as the result of the study ; otherwise history should be neglected. In general terms, every subject that we study should aid us in living more completely—physically, mentally, morally, socially, esthetically. When rightly taught, apart from its value for purposes of mental discipline, history primarily enables a man to better understand his duties as a citizen. It instructs him in the causes that have led to the progress and the decadence of nations, and in the best means of assuring the one and of avoiding the other. Not in this respect alone is history of value. It contributes to man's efficiency in every walk of life by extending his horizon, confirming his mental grasp, and liberalizing his opinions. To know the consequences of individual and national action, to be able with greater certainty to infer the laws that govern success and failure among men and nations, to gain the inspiration and stimulus that come from knowing the story of human

achievement and progress—these and many more are the ends we should have in the study of history. The highest patriotism requires that this subject should be retained in the courses of study of all our schools, public and private.

More especially is it important for a student to have a thorough knowledge of the history of his own country—nothing so develops and strengthens his sentiment of patriotism, and makes him willing to fight, and if need be, die, for national liberty and integrity ; nothing aids so much to make him not merely a good citizen, ready to obey the laws and to discharge in fullest measure his obligations to the State, but also to make him understand the nature of those laws, and of his political duties and obligations.

Surely, then, it is a most important subject, and is worthy of the teacher's highest ambition to guide his pupils wisely and skilfully in its acquirement.

13. The Teacher Must Know His Subject Thoroughly.—As has been stated elsewhere, if a teacher is to be successful in teaching any subject, he must not only be skilful and resourceful in his profession, but he must be perfectly familiar with that subject, both in itself and also in its relations and applications. He should know it so well that no textbook need be in his hand during a recitation. It is not meant by this that he should have committed the lesson to memory so as to know exactly when and to what extent a pupil reciting has departed from the language of the book. The teacher that does this will inevitably bring his class to hate the subject, whether it be history or some other study. The teacher should have in his mind an outline of the topics of the textbook, if one is used by the pupils, and he should be able, besides, to lead the pupil to incorporate the lesson with the whole of which it is, or should be, a part. In other words, history should be taught in such a manner as will exemplify not only logical, but also chronological sequence. Each event is at first an effect or a result of some cause, and later becomes itself a cause. There should be no broken links in the chain of events that make up history—no broken threads should interrupt the operation of the law of

association. Without this law, history becomes only a series of unrelated, isolated incidents.

For a teacher to gain this broader view—this knowledge of the philosophy and the logic of history—time, extensive reading, reflection, and a keen sense of logical connection are required. He must be willing to devote his best powers to the subject.

But no one can teach with success the history of any country if he knows that alone. He must know the history of other countries. A perfect knowledge of the English language implies a large measure of familiarity with all languages, for they are all more or less related to it and to one another. In like manner, the history of each nation of the world has been more or less influenced and modified by each other nation. The history of the Roman Empire, for example, cannot be adequately told unless there is related, at the same time, a portion, at least, of the story of all the peoples that came under her domination, and by whom her history was modified. It follows, therefore, that the teacher of history, if he wishes to be successful, must read history extensively. The more comprehensive his reading the wider will his views become, and the more will they gain in unity. This leads naturally to the question of the teacher's historical reading.

14. How a Teacher Should Regulate His Reading.— There is not more than one reader in a score that wisely utilizes his time. This arises from several causes. Chief among these is the fact that only a very small percentage of the works on any subject are really valuable or entirely reliable. Many of the works on history are in large measure fiction, or they are mere garbled compilations of the writings of some other author. The teacher, therefore, that would make the greatest possible progress in informing himself on any subject, should seek the advice of some competent authority as to the books to be read, and the order in which they should be taken up. In the case of history, this order should begin with one or more reliable general compendiums that shall enable him to fix in his mind the principal landmarks of the subject and their relations as

parts of a whole. When this has been well done, he is prepared to fill in, more or less completely, the details. To do this, he must "*read in a straight line.*" The reason for this is apparent. If the several steps in an argument, say an algebraic or a geometrical demonstration, be disarranged, the force and unity of the whole are destroyed. So, in reading history. The maximum result for the reader is produced only when his order of reading accords with the sequence in logical relation, or in time, of the events narrated.

As his reading proceeds, he should make written analyses of each book separately, and, later, he should unite these into a single coherent outline. These synopses should be placed where he may see them often and become familiar with them. The writer remembers calling, many years ago, upon a friend engaged in the study of law. At that particular time Blackstone was the author with whose works the student was engaged. The walls of the room were nearly covered with papers pinned together and showing an orderly outline of the contents of the book as far as it had been studied. That friend has since made himself noted for the exactness of his legal learning. In a similar manner the student of any subject should take precautions against anything escaping him that is worth preserving. Such outlines are perhaps more useful if preserved in a notebook. Other notebooks, properly labeled, should contain quotations that for any reason are deemed to be of special value.

15. Prose Quotations and Poetry.—The teacher should provide himself also with a collection of poems illustrating noted historical events, and with celebrated descriptions of places, battles, or other matters, for nothing else is so effective in causing the past and the distant to seem like the vivid present. Macaulay's "Lays of Ancient Rome"; Victor Hugo's description of the Battle of Waterloo; excerpts from Carlyle's "French Revolution" or from Dicken's "Tale of Two Cities" illustrating the horrors of the most dreadful period in French history; Lincoln's Address at Gettysburg; "The Isles of Greece," and many other passages from Byron relating to Greek and Roman history—these and similar quotations can be used

with much effect by the teacher of history. The object of all such auxiliaries is to produce vivid impressions; and upon such impressions and upon repetition of effects depends the retentiveness of memory. With fine natural aptitudes, such a course of self-training in his art will, in a few years, place the teacher in the rank of experts, and cause him to be sought after as one of those whom the world delights to honor.

16. Time Given in Our Schools to the Study of History.—Another obstacle in the way of the teacher of history is the shortness of time given to it in our courses of study. In many of our schools no attention whatever is accorded to the study of general history, and one term, or, at the most, two terms devoted to the history of the United States, are deemed sufficient. One consequence of this is that textbooks are modeled to suit this slight treatment. Some years ago a series of books was prepared entitled, "Fourteen Weeks in Chemistry," "Fourteen Weeks in Physics," "Fourteen Weeks in United States History," etc. The sale of these books was enormous. Parents, school officers, and even teachers fondly imagined that by using them great strides could be made in acquiring an education. The educated teacher, however, knows that, if a study is begun and ended in so brief a period, it can have no value worth mention. If a subject is to furnish a mental discipline that will change the student from what he was to something stronger and better, it must exert its influence for a longer period than fourteen weeks. The same may be said of the studies that we pursue for the sake of their practical usefulness.

The "Story of Scheherezade" consumed 1,001 nights, and surely the story of the human race should, in the telling, require more than a brief period twice or three times a week during 70 school days. Textbooks written for the purpose of being completed in such a short time can be nothing better than lifeless and fleshless skeletons, and the "I hate history" of those that study them is inevitable. If history is to have any place at all in our schools, let it be a place worthy of the importance and usefulness of the subject.

Almost all the colleges in this country ignore the subject. It is true that some of these higher institutions are beginning to recognize that history well taught and thoroughly mastered is an indispensable element in the education, not alone of the man of liberal culture, but also of the enlightened citizen and the man of affairs.

PREPARATION FOR TEACHING HISTORY.

INTRODUCTION.

17. Method Necessary in Study and Teaching.—No work is ever well done that is not carefully planned. The engineer that intends to build a ship, a great bridge, or a fort determines the excellence of the ultimate result by the character of his plans. An orator may possibly be eloquent without preparing his address beforehand, but if his thoughts and argument are carefully considered and arranged before delivery, their effect upon his audiences, and their influence upon being read afterward, will be much greater. Similarly, a teacher whose aim is to do his work in the most thorough manner possible, must make special preparation for each lesson. In other words, he must be a student as long as he is a teacher. Every lesson should be as carefully planned as a sermon, a poem, or a magazine article. There is scarcely a subject that is not capable of scientific arrangement. The same is true of the parts—the lessons—into which the matter in a textbook is separated for the purpose of study and recitation. In the case of history this is true in a marked degree. There is a logic of events, a philosophy of causation and sequence in the occurrences that make up the life of an individual or the history of a people. The rules that should regulate the telling of each, in whole or in part, are the same. The best teacher of history is the one that most accurately discovers and interprets the purpose, the causes, and the consequences of historical action. This, too, must be done not merely by himself; he must lead his pupils to reflection and inferences similar to his own. By being himself a student and an investigator, he must imbue his students with the same spirit of research.

18. The Teacher Must Create among His Pupils a Taste for Historical and Biographical Reading.—Perhaps no teacher has ever succeeded in arousing in a class of pupils a genuine liking and enthusiasm for history by confining their attention to a single textbook on the subject. A work, to be suitable for classroom use, must be meager in details. This is necessarily so on account of the vastness of the subject. Such a textbook can, in the nature of the case, be only the merest skeleton account of events. In itself, therefore, it is certain to be dry and tiresome. If, however, the student's reading is so directed as to amplify and give life and reality to its briefly stated contents, it matters little how concisely they are given. The items in the book become mere counters, each significant of a large and interesting area that the student has explored. Just as the name of a city, a river, a mountain, is but a name, a mere combination of letters, to one that has never seen them for himself, but becomes rich in significance and fertile in suggestion to him that has seen them, so is it with these mere catchwords of history.

How greatly is interest in the history of Germany or France enhanced by reading historical tales such as were written by the woman whose pen-name was Luise Mühlbach. Dumas' novels have contributed more, perhaps, than anything else to make French history intelligible and a source of pleasure. Carlyle's wonderful "French Revolution," Dickens' "Tale of Two Cities," and similar works should be read before any of the histories of France are attempted. An admirable preparation for the history of the United States is found in the historical novels of Sims and the biographies written by James Parton, detailing the lives of noted Americans.

A teacher, therefore, must ascertain just what there is in historical, poetical, biographical, and fictional literature that will increase the vividness of effect produced upon the minds of his pupils at any given time in their progress. If he does this part of his work well, he will give an impetus to their love of historical reading that will last throughout his life.

This part of the duty of a teacher of history is of comparatively easy accomplishment, if his work is done in a city or in a

large town; but if he teaches in a country district or in a small village, he is confronted by a serious obstacle. This is owing to the usual absence, from such places, of libraries large enough to meet the requirements of successful history teaching.

19. Concerning the Supplying of Books of Reference in Country Districts.—To arrange a scheme for distributing books for general reading in small villages and in country districts, and for having them properly cared for and preserved from loss, is a difficult problem. About 35 years ago an attempt to do this was made in the State of Ohio. Whether or not the plan is still in operation there the writer does not know. The books, strongly bound in sheep, were furnished by the State, and upon their covers was stamped the statement that they were public property. The custody of a sufficient number to supply a given neighborhood was made the duty of the secretary or the chairman of each local school board. It devolved upon him to keep the records necessary to their proper care and prevention from loss. After a time, when his supply of books had been read by all the people in the district desiring to read them, he would exchange his stock for that in an adjoining district. Owing to the carelessness of some of these custodians of the books, many were lost or quickly destroyed. Only a state having a large fund for educational purposes can keep up such a method of supplying reading matter for the general public.

In the densely populated countries of Western Europe, large public libraries are numerous and of easy access. It is no wonder, therefore, that the Germans have been able to surpass us in the quality of their historical teaching. They are the creators of the "Laboratory Method," which some educators have tried, with no marked success thus far, to introduce into the schools of the United States. There can be no doubt that their great success with this method is largely owing to the density of their population and the consequent easy access to books for research and general reading.

The man that can devise a good plan for furnishing extensive and varied reading matter, not only for the children in country

schools, but also for the general rural population, will be doing much for the progress of our country. This is a matter worthy of the most thoughtful attention of the statesman and the educator, and it will become easier of accomplishment as our country is developed and the density of population increases.

20. How History Lessons are Usually Learned.—We have all seen the pupils of mediocre teachers prepare history lessons, and to any one knowing how it should be done, the operation has a pathos in it. The pupil, with his book open at the proper place, reads aloud or in a busy whisper, a sentence or a paragraph, over and over, again and again. This reading is always accompanied by a busy movement of the lips, an introspective rolling of the eyes, nodding of the head to emphasize important words, and by other bodily movements. Many of the words are not understood, but that is a matter of slight consequence to the student, and it never occurs to him that the aid of a dictionary would be valuable. In the highest probability, he does not own one, and very probably the school he attends has no such article among its property. The principal thing, as he understands it, is to fix the exact *words* of the author in his memory—the author's *thought* and his arrangement of topics are matters of secondary consideration. If he can get the language into his memory *verbatim et literatim* so as to reproduce it before his teacher without varying from the text, he has "no other thought beside."

Now, if words express no thought, every one knows how difficult it is to remember them in a fixed order.

It is related of a certain actor having a remarkable memory, that he was boasting on one occasion of his ability to learn quickly and remember anything he chose. A friend suggested that perhaps he could compose something the actor would find difficult, and submitted a series of words having no relation in meaning. Of course, the actor, after long study, was compelled to admit his inabilitý to memorize the *composition*.

Our children that study history in which occur words or thoughts they do not understand, are handicapped in much the same way. And if, by sheer force of perseverance, they do

succeed in memorizing such matter, it is forgotten just as soon as the recitation, for which alone it was learned, is past. Such lessons do not strengthen the memory; they prostitute and ruin it. The habit of forgetting is learned much more easily than is that of remembering. Moreover, history or any other subject, learned in this way, has absolutely no value for either practical or disciplinary use. It is by methods such as these, that our schools produce so many cases of "arrested development."

21. How History is Usually Recited.—There are two principal methods of "conducting recitations" that are thoroughly and unmitigatedly bad. Each of these has its slight modifications. These methods are:

I. *The Verbatim Recitation.*—Let us suppose that the class is ready to recite. The work begins by the teacher's asking, "Who can tell me where the lesson today begins and where it ends?" He opens the manual at the place indicated by the pupils, most of whom are not able to answer his question. This preliminary question indicates clearly that the teacher himself is not prepared for the recitation. If he were not provided with a textbook, he would be utterly unable to "hear the recitation." The pupils, too, must have their books under their desks in order to get the cue when they are about to be called to recite.

"John, you may begin with Lincoln's Administration," says the teacher. John recites. "Very good, John, except that you said *institution* for *inauguration*, and you left out *through Baltimore*." While John recited, the teacher followed the text with his index finger. John is pleased and shows it, for the teacher said, "Very good!" That miscalled word and the omitted phrase did not count either with John, the class, or the teacher. "Next; tell us about ——." And so the pitiful exhibition goes on. John, of course, doesn't know the inferences that may be made from this farce; nor does his teacher, for if he did, some better way would be found. John and his parents think themselves fortunate in having a teacher so exacting, one that compels the "scholars" to study their lessons. The teacher

takes occasion to congratulate the parents on having so studious a son—and he really means it.

II. *The Question-and-Answer Recitation.*—For this species of recitation, less preparation on the part of the pupil is required than is necessary with the method described above. He must learn the dates, and the meaning of the text sufficiently to be able to identify the teacher's questions with the several portions of the text. If the teacher is more than usually obliging—or stupid—he will ask what the lawyers call "leading" questions. In such case, the pupil does not need to learn even the dates. He will be able to "guess" the answer with sufficient accuracy.

Perhaps the textbook is one of those of peculiar pedagogical excellence that has questions at the bottom of the page. By experience, the pupil knows that he will be asked those questions and no others, and only those are gone over. Not one little wavelet of original thought, or wonder, or curiosity, in the teacher or in his pupils, is started by these questions.

In all the foregoing, there is no exaggeration. The writer has before him several late textbooks with lists of questions on each chapter. Many of them require "yes" or "no" for an answer, or they inquire for proper names. It may be asked why intelligent authors will write, and modern publishers—sensible and hard-headed—will print, such books. The answer is that books are made to *sell*—to meet a "long-felt need." As long as county superintendents, and even those of cities, will go into schools and ask pupils to "give the rule for long division," or will pick up a history and read off such questions as are found printed there, and imagine they are examining or testing the teacher's work by the pupils' ability to answer, so long will books of this kind be found in our schools. But the time, let us hope, is not far away when this will be changed.

The method of question and answer will be more fully treated under a later topic.

22. Preparing Lessons From a Textbook.—Considerable has already been said, not only of the teacher's general equipment for historical teaching, but also of his preparation for particular lessons. It is the purpose under

this topic to treat of the way in which pupils should be trained to prepare lessons from a textbook.

When a lesson is assigned for study it should be read over in the presence of the teacher very much as is done in the case of an ordinary reading lesson. The purposes are mainly two in this exercise—to clear away verbal difficulties, and to bring out the exact meaning.

Now every subject has, or should have, a logical arrangement of parts. Every paragraph should have some leading idea or proposition. In each case, this idea or proposition may generally be denoted by a single word or phrase. A constant inquiry should be made as to the principal subject treated in each paragraph, and the best and briefest expression for it. As these are developed one by one, they may be written upon the blackboard, and after their relative importance as topics, subtopics, etc., have been determined, they should be copied by the pupils. These outlines serve the double purpose of emphasizing the meaning and of aiding the pupil in memorizing the lesson in the order of topics. The lesson should not be regarded as properly learned until this skeleton or outline, each item in its proper place and relation, as well as the matter to fill up the outline, are firmly fixed in the memory. On the other hand, the teacher is not ready to meet his class for recitation, until he is perfectly familiar with the plan of the lesson and the treatment of each subdivision of it. Then both teacher and pupils may discard the textbook and each is free to take part, not only in recitation, but in a rational and an orderly discussion of it. If, in addition, the teacher is fortified by abundant general information covering the lesson, and is, besides, master of the logical considerations involved, the recitation, when it comes, may be made a rare treat to everybody concerned.

In case the class in question has access to books relating to the matters treated in the lesson, the teacher should assign to one or more of its members the task of preparing to tell the rest of the pupils more particularly about some person or event mentioned. Of course, the teacher should be able to direct the pupils to the books needed for reference. Suppose, for

example, the lesson were about the treason of Benedict Arnold and the execution of John André. One pupil may be asked to prepare himself to give orally or in writing a sketch of the life of Arnold, and another that of André. The former pupil should be referred to Sparks' "Life of Benedict Arnold" in his "Library of American Biography," Vol. III, and the latter to Sargent's "Life and Career of Major John André," or to the "Atlantic Monthly" for December. 1860.

These pupils, if they do their work well, which, under proper management is likely to be the case, will themselves be much profited, and will add greatly to the interest of the class in the lesson. Certain is it that, to the members of that class, the names of Arnold and André will thereafter be not mere names, but almost living and breathing personages. By this means, too, the memory is aided by the enlistment of the emotions. Pity for the fate of André, and respect for him, and horror and loathing for the treason of Arnold, will render it simply impossible for the class ever to forget that lesson. The writer may be permitted to add that no better subject for subsequent composition work can be devised than these matters of special investigation. To use them for this purpose serves not only the object primarily intended, but also as a review of the history lesson. If a history lesson involves any question of geography, and nearly all do, the pupils should know that every one is expected to be in readiness to point out on a map the places where the events happened. Still better is it to require that a map shall be rapidly sketched upon a blackboard, and the places indicated with respect to other well known and important features. This map drawing *must not be elaborate* or consume much time. It need not be accurate; a reasonable degreee of approximation is all that is required. Anything more converts the history exercise into a geography lesson. One or two minutes should suffice in which to do all the map drawing required. It should be added that, as a rule, a mere local map, as of a battle, a settlement, or a fort is not enough for the purpose. The boundary lines of the state or country in which the locality is included, should be rapidly sketched. If two or more states are concerned, as is the case when armies are marching from one point to another,

the boundaries should be indicated, and the line of march should be shown.

23. Relics and Mementoes.—Another important aid in the study of history, and one that has been much insisted upon, is that of historical relics and mementoes. It is surprising how many such objects are distributed in any given neighborhood—an old flag of the Civil War, or even of the Revolution, weapons of antique pattern that were used against the Indians or in our wars with Great Britain, arrowheads, Indian pottery, historic letters, ancient documents, household heirlooms, and many other objects that have come down to us from those distant times. In almost every case, the owners of these things are glad to put them at the temporary disposal of the teacher. The following quotation from Mary Sheldon Barnes will illustrate the intense interest that children take in these historical relics :

"In response to a request for flags for a special occasion, a little boy of eight years brought me a flag that his father had carried through the Civil War. He recounted the battles in chronological order, told me a little of the geography, and related an incident that I knew to be true. He seemed much interested in the flag, and very proud of the fact that his father had held it when one of the bullet holes was made in it. The class of forty boys and girls, seven to nine years old, asked questions eagerly about the flag. 'Where did it come from?' 'What makes it so dirty?' 'What made the holes in it?' 'Were they real bullets out of a gun?' 'What did they want to shoot at the flag for?' 'Do you think it was right to have a war?' One boy said afterwards, 'Couldn't it tell a lot of stories, though!' The children seemed to feel still more interest after I had given them a brief account of it, and several lingered to see it more closely, and one wished to touch the old flag."

The historic sense with respect to time is perhaps more strongly and definitely developed by a study of such relics than by any other means. Every teacher of history should have in his school as large a collection as possible, and should, as thoroughly as possible, understand and know how to use it. The great museums of the world expend enormous sums annually in making additions to collections illustrating every department of art and science, and these must be studied by

scientific writers, if they would make the state of things they depict, true to life. Nothing is more certain than that history can neither be adequately learned nor taught without some assistance other than textbooks. The teacher, therefore, that means to win a place in the first rank of his profession must be willing to give the time and thought, and if need be, incur the expense, necessary to supply himself and his pupils with every available appliance.

24. Historical Use of Poems and Ballads.—All authorities are agreed that of the various aids in teaching history none is more valuable than can be obtained from the use of poems and ballads. "History describes, poetry paints," says W. C. Collar, Head Master of Roxbury Latin School. Continuing, he remarks, "There is nothing like the magic charm, whether of sublimity or pathos, that poetry lends to historical events, persons, and places. * * * * * At the distance of forty years I recall the emotion, the tears, with which I read in our country school reading book a poem that I have never seen since, entitled 'Jugurtha in Prison,' beginning,

'Well, is the rack prepared, the pincers heated?'

"I knew nothing of Jugurtha, neither when he lived nor in what part of the world, nor what he had done that he was to be starved to death in prison. * * * * * * With what a swell of patriotic pride, too, did I as a boy recite,

'Departed spirits of the mighty dead,
Ye that at Marathon and Leuctra bled.'

"Marathon and Leuctra signified nothing to me. I had not the remotest idea who were the mighty dead that had fallen there, but I felt as if it would have been a joy to have shed my blood with them."

If the development and cultivation of patriotism is one of the important objects of the study of history, and that it is there can be no question, the teacher has in the patriotic poems, ballads, and songs of his country a potent agency for this purpose. "Paul Revere's Ride," and many others of Longfellow's poems, Drake's "American Flag," "The Star Spangled Banner," "Sheridan's Ride," "Barbara Fritchie,"

"The Blue and the Gray," Scott's "Breathes There a Man with Soul So Dead," and innumerable others are available. No emotion of which children are capable is deeper, no sentiment purer and finer, than those awakened by a poem describing and idealizing heroic achievement or daring deeds.

This subject has already been adverted to, and is resumed here only on account of its great importance to the teacher of history.

25. Reviews.—Edgar A. Poe in his "Philosophy of Composition" alludes to the value of the *refrain* as an element of beauty and force in poetry. The word is derived from the French verb *refraindre*, to repeat. It is this repetition, reiteration, review, that is a primary condition of success in teaching any subject. No lesson ought ever to be assigned that does not include a review of the preceding lesson, and as soon as any considerable part of a textbook has been gone over, a "back review" should be begun at the first of the book. And for a fourth time the manual should be covered by a rapid general review.

This is in accordance with Mr. Bain's contention that the early work in school should be of limited extent but thoroughly mastered. He insists that little worth speaking of can be done until the mind has material to work upon. Comparisons cannot be made until there are things to be compared, classifications are impossible until there are in the mind matters that belong in classes, and inferences implied by conditions from which they may be deduced.

Many reviews are doubtless more or less wearisome to the teacher and monotonous to the pupils, but much of this may be avoided, and interest and pleasure secured, by new and more comprehensive generalizations and classifications. A teacher's skill may be very accurately gauged by the measure of persistence he can induce in a class in struggling long and patiently with a difficulty that is to be mastered.

At any rate, whether the teacher can make reviews interesting or not, the early history work, in order to be valuable, must be thorough. Without thoroughness, there is no proper and certain basis on which to erect later an enduring superstructure.

Moreover, the habit of patient persistence until mastery is gained is of incomparable value in all subsequent work. And the opposite is true ; if the pupil is permitted to be careless and imperfect in his lessons, it is a habit that is likely never to be overcome.

26. Historical Recreations.—Every one that went to school three or four decades ago will remember the delight with which the announcement of a "spelling match" was received. Even yet a spelling match is almost as popular in the West as is baseball. This method has been extended to geography. In much the same way as in spelling, the pupils are tested in geographical knowledge. The writer has seen many competitive tests of this same kind in history. Several of our school text-books contain extensive lists of questions intended to be used for this purpose. They may be given either as a miscellaneous review of an entire class, when any one may answer that can, or as is done in spelling, sides may be chosen and their comparative knowledge ascertained.

The following questions for this purpose are copied for the sake of illustration :

1. In what battle was "Betty Stark" the watchword?
2. What battles have resulted in the destruction or surrender of an entire army?
3. What general rushed into battle without orders and won it?
4. What trees are celebrated in our history?
5. What three ex-Presidents died on the 4th of July?
6. Give the coincidences in the lives of Webster, Clay, and Calhoun.
7. What celebrated philosopher, when a boy, in order to buy books, went without meat?

The teacher must remember that these diversions must not be substituted for serious and genuine work in history. They are useful for creating an interest in, and for breaking the monotony of, the regular lessons ; in short, they are used in the same way and for the same purpose as the spelling matches of years ago.

The pleasure they give and the interest they arouse should suggest a general principle of success in teaching : *Do not for long pursue the same method—seek variety, freshness, originality.*

METHODOLOGY.

DESCRIPTION OF THE VARIOUS METHODS OF TEACHING HISTORY.

27. Any Method Used Exclusively Becomes Monotonous.—There is a strong human instinct for variety. We weary of the people that tell us over and over again the same stories, of the musicians whose music is always written in one key, and of the poets that always compose in the same meter. This repugnance to monotony is found also in children. Like their elders, they yearn for novelty. If required to sing at school the same song every morning, they soon become tired of it, however beautiful it may be. Hence, the teacher that wishes to make school a place of constant enjoyment to his pupils, must keep out of the ruts ; he must be fertile in devices, and able to repeat as often as may be necessary, without becoming monotonous. If he is content to assign lessons and to hear them recited always in accordance with a fixed method of procedure, he will soon have the mortification of hearing that his pupils like neither him nor the school, of seeing an increase in their percentage of absenteeism, and of having their number depleted by many leaving school altogether. The fact is, there is no place in the world where a child can experience so much happiness as in a school properly conducted. The teacher of such a school must not only be original, resourceful, scholarly, sympathetic, genial, and kindly, but he must also be familiar with the best and most approved methods.

28. Many Methods of Procedure in History.—Every school subject is susceptible of various methods of presentation, and the effectiveness of each method depends upon many conditions, most of which have been mentioned under preceding topics. One of these conditions is that the teacher must thoroughly know the different methods and devices and be able to decide under what circumstances each should be employed.

The writer, therefore, will proceed to explain the several plans

that are employed in teaching history, and to make such comments upon them as may seem necessary. In doing this, he will describe with special minuteness the method that has proved so successful in Germany—the Laboratory method, which is being introduced more and more widely in the schools of this country.

29. The Catechetical Method.—The oldest and most natural method of conducting a recitation is the Catechetical. In this the teacher asks questions and the pupil answers them, if he can. This was a favorite method with Socrates, whose practice was to feign ignorance of some matter supposed to be thoroughly understood by his antagonist in argument. Socrates would ask innumerable questions that the person questioned would answer in the unguarded way that comes from the conviction of having perfect knowledge of a subject; and presently the wily old philosopher would confront his opponent with a series of answers that were inconsistent with one another and ask him to reconcile them. From this practice of Socrates, there came into the Greek language a noun derived from the verb *eirein*, to speak. This word *eironeia* means a dissembling, the asking of questions that involve a snare. From the same source came the noun *eirōn*, a dissembler, one that affects ignorance and says less than he thinks; finally we have in our own language the word *irony*. Every teacher has heard of the Socratic method, which is nearly synonymous with the Catechetical method; but perhaps no other person ever employed the method of questioning so skilfully as did that wise old teacher.

The *catechisms* that counted for so much in the religious teaching of a half century ago were so called because they were made up of questions with answers. The first notions of what a textbook on history, geography, and many other subjects should be, required that it should take the catechetical form; and even yet we find such books in our schools. Many teachers continue to follow the plan of question and answer in conducting recitations. "Who discovered America?" "Columbus." "In what year?" "In 1492." Often, too, the question of the teacher is so constructed that it may be answered by

yes or *no*. Of course, all this is very bad ; so much so, that the catechetical method has for a long time been practically abandoned in the making of textbooks, and to a degree in the recitations of pupils.

And yet the art of skilful questioning is indispensable to the highest success in teaching. It is a practice among teachers to *explain* points that are not understood. "Sit erect and be attentive while I explain this difficulty," the teacher says, and immediately the class assumes an attitude of respectful attention, with ears for the most part hermetically sealed. But if the teacher clears away the difficulty by a series of questions in proper sequence, or better still, if he delegates to some bright pupil the task of asking the questions necessary to lead a slow pupil to an understanding of the subject, the attention will be real and not feigned.

A skilful lawyer cares less for the direct testimony of a witness than for what can be elicited by cross-examination. Indeed, the eminence of a lawyer is dependent more upon his expertness in the art of questioning than upon anything else. In like manner, no teacher deficient in this art can attain to the highest excellence in his profession. To use the Catechetical method with effect in teaching requires that the teacher shall himself thoroughly understand the subject under consideration, and that he shall know the condition of the pupil's mind with respect to points not entirely comprehended. The teacher must have, too, a sense of logical order that will enable him to construct a chain of questions in perfect sequence, leading the pupil from those points that he knows to those that he has failed to grasp.

Many books have been written about the art of questioning, but this is something that cannot be learned from rules. The conditions of expertness in this art are indicated above—a perfect knowledge of the subject, of the end to be attained in any given case, and a strong sense of logical sequence. To these may be added such skill in the use of language as will enable the teacher to frame questions that are brief, suggestive, to the point, and without ambiguity.

One of the most effective methods of making a recitation

interesting is to require one pupil to ask a series of questions intended to lead another pupil to the comprehension of some point not thoroughly mastered, and to constitute the rest of the class as critics of the questions and their arrangement. The writer has witnessed recitations, the most exciting and interesting that could be conceived, conducted in this way, and during them the teacher rarely spoke. It would be difficult to exaggerate the value of skilful questioning as an auxiliary in the management of a recitation. Success in this matter may not attend the first efforts of a teacher, but it will come later as a reward of experiment, patience, and reflection.

30. The Memoriter Method of Study and Recitation. In this method the student commits to memory the exact text of the author, and in recitation gives it as he learned it. The objections to this are so numerous and so obvious that our best teachers have long ago abandoned it. Even yet, however, one does not need to go far to find this plan in use. In our large cities, where it might be expected that a practice so ruinous and antiquated would not be followed, it is still in vogue, and this will doubtless continue to be the case until all teachers are required to prepare for their work by professional training. It has been argued in favor of the Memoriter method that it cultivates the memory. But this argument is fallacious. When poetry or striking passages of prose are memorized, and are remembered on account of their beauty, the effect is to train the memory; but it is well known that lessons in history are very soon forgotten. However carefully they are learned, they soon run into confusion in the mind and are forgotten. In this method, the words are everything and the thought nothing. It follows, therefore, that when the words are forgotten, nothing remains except a vague sense of half-defined images. Only such matters as are indispensable in our daily employment, and are for that reason of frequent recurrence, are permanently fixed in our minds. The actor remembers his part in a play by virtue of repetition, but he reads the newspapers and speedily forgets what he has read. A poem full of beauty, emotion, and true to nature, is easily remembered, but a magazine article or

an item in a newspaper makes but a slight impression upon the mind. The memory is very much like a servant. If discipline is relaxed, the servant becomes negligent and careless. If, on the contrary, he is held strictly to his responsibilities, he becomes more and more exact and painstaking. In like manner, if the memory is rigorously required to reproduce upon demand whatever has been confided to it, and, in case of failure, is punished by the imposition of additional tasks, it will in time become faithful and reliable.

It must not be understood that the writer is opposed to verbatim memorizing, for the contrary is true. It is only with respect to the matter that is required to be committed to memory that objection is here made. The ideas in a historical textbook, but not the language, should be learned so carefully as never to be forgotten. The teacher, on the day before a lesson is to be recited, should go over it with the class. The objects in view should be to clear away any obscurity in respect to the meaning, and to get an outline or analysis of the lesson. If it can be done, there should be found for each paragraph a single word that will recall its contents. This outline should be thoroughly fixed in the memory, and later, by way of review, it should be incorporated with the outlines of preceding lessons, so as to form one continuous whole. During recitations, these outlines singly, and in order collectively, should frequently be called for, so that, when the textbook has been finished, its entire contents may be given by points from memory.

Above all, do not permit pupils to give the exact text. One of the best exercises in acquiring and confirming a good stock of words is in the requirement that pupils shall give the author's thought in words of their own choosing. Ideas are easily remembered, but mere words are inevitably forgotten.

31. The Topical Method.—The term *topical* refers both to the division of the matter in a textbook, and also to one of the best methods of giving that subject matter in recitation. Nearly all school books of the present time have their contents broken up, and the topics indicated by conspicuous side heads. This facilitates the work, not only of the pupil, but also

of the teacher. Of course the topics should be in close logical connection, and upon this depends greatly the superiority of one manual over another. The pupil should have these topics in his mind in their order of occurrence, and when called upon to recite, should be required to proceed without help from the teacher. Very frequently, two or more pupils may be designated to recite in turn the portions that make up a topic, if it is long and is divisible into parts. As has been stated above, the author's language should in no case be given by the pupil. An outline of the day's lesson in conjunction with the preceding lesson should be given by the first pupil that recites. Many teachers cause such an outline or analysis to be given both at the beginning and at the end of the lesson. The practice is a good one, and is worthy of general adoption. One very great advantage of this topical method is that a sense of logical sequence is developed among pupils. More than anything else, it is this art of properly dividing a subject into related parts that gives so great a charm to the writings of Macaulay. He was perhaps the greatest master of *paragraphing* that ever wrote in any language. Every paragraph is complete in itself and perfect; and the transition from one to another is graceful, and the sequence natural and obvious.

It must not be understood that the Topical method prevents the employment at the same time of the Catechetical or the Memoriter method. If a teacher desires to analyze motives, or causes, or consequences; in short, if he teaches not history merely, but the philosophy of history, he must ask questions. This may be done as occasion arises during the progress of the recitation, or at its close. Which plan is the better must be determined in any given case by the teacher himself. But while it is sometimes necessary and advantageous to use the method of questioning, the Memoriter method is invariably and hopelessly bad. When the questions of the teacher lead quickly and naturally to free and earnest discussion on the part of the pupils, the interest and profit will be very great. When the teacher of history can skilfully combine all the various methods and devices for awakening interest and enthusiasm among the pupils, we shall no longer hear it said that pupils hate the

subject. No other subject is quite so fascinating as this, if it be well taught, but to teach it so as to secure the best results is very difficult. To prepare and deliver effectively a sermon or an oration is perhaps an easier task.

32. Extension of Meaning of the Term *Topical*.— Although the word *topical* is usually employed in the sense explained under the preceding head, there is another meaning sometimes attached to it. This can best be illustrated by a quotation from a brief outline by Professor Tyler of the historical work pursued under his direction at Cornell University.

"Perhaps it may be a peculiarity in my work as a teacher of History that I am here permitted to give my whole attention to American history. At any rate, this fact enables me to organize the work of American history so as to cover, more perfectly than I could otherwise do, the whole field, from the prehistoric times of this continent down to the present, with a minuteness of attention varying, of course, as the importance of the particular topic varies. I confess that I adopt for American history the principle which Professor Seeley, of Cambridge, is fond of applying to English history, namely, that while history should be thoroughly scientific in its method, its object should be practical. To this extent, I believe in history with a tendency. My interest in our own past is chiefly derived from my interest in our own present and future; and I teach American history, not so much to make historians, as to make citizens and good leaders for the State and Nation. From this point of view, I decide upon the selection of *historical topics for special study*. At present I should describe them as the following:

"The Native Races, especially the Mound Builders and the North American Indians.

"The Alleged Pre-Columbian Discoveries.

"The Origin and Enforcement of England's Claim to North America, as against Competing European Nations.

"The Motives and Methods of English Colony Planting in America in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries.

"The Development of Ideas and Institutions in the American Colonies, with Particular Reference to Religion, Education, Industry, and Civil Freedom.

"The Grounds of Intercolonial Isolation and of Intercolonial Fellowship.

"The History of the Formation of the National Constitution.

"The Origin and Growth of Political Parties under the Constitution.

"The History of Slavery as a Factor in American Politics, Culminating in the Civil War of 1861-65.

"In all these subjects, I try to generate and preserve in myself and my pupils such an anxiety for the truth, that we shall prefer it even to national traditions or the idolatries of party."

33. Remarks on the Foregoing.—The student will perceive that in the sense illustrated above, by the Topical method is meant no more than an arrangement in chronological sequence of the principal items making up the complete history of a particular period. With this meaning, the method determines the arrangement of the contents of every scientific treatise on history. When the subdivisions are made down to minute episodes, the Topical method may be utilized in studying and reciting lessons from day to day, as has already been explained.

When in the succession of general topics the order of time is not followed, we have the Laboratory method, which is employed in the *lycea* and the universities of Germany, and in some of the colleges of the United States. Original researches by this latter method should be dominated by the Topical method, both in generals and in particulars.

34. The Laboratory Method.—In the teaching of chemistry, physics, mineralogy, metallurgy, botany, or any other of the natural sciences, the need of a well equipped laboratory is conceded. These laboratories, when complete, are furnished with all necessary scientific instruments, books of reference, specimens, and everything that is required in the most exhaustive original investigations and experiments. Something of the kind has been proposed in the study of history. Of course, no instrumental aids are required, but the plan contemplates that the student shall have access to all the original authorities, documents, reports, pamphlets, etc., that are resorted to by an author engaged in compiling a historical work. It is clear, however, that the unaided search of an ordinary student would yield nothing of value. He must have the guidance of a text-book from which he may learn where to find the information that he needs. Such books have been made in this country, but they have not been used to any great extent. The plan presupposes an immense library accessible to the student. In this

country, even under such circumstances, the method is not a good one. In this busy age, we cannot give to any one subject the time necessary to make any such method successful. No one here desires to make a life-work of the study of history, as is done in Germany, and in preparing to earn a livelihood, the most profound knowledge of this subject would rarely have any considerable market value in the United States. In Germany much is made of the study of history, and there is a demand for the services of persons specially trained to teach it. The Laboratory method proceeds upon the assumption that no modern writer of history is to be believed, and that every statement must be verified by reference to original sources. This, of course, takes more time than, in justice to other subjects of study, can be granted. Unless the student makes a life work of this subject, the Laboratory method is wholly impracticable as a plan for the classroom. In the composition of a historical treatise, however, this is the only rational method of doing the work, and it is specially suited to the preparation of a dissertation on some particular historical topic, or controverted point.

35. Historical Clubs.—In Germany especially, and to some extent in France, clubs for historical study are in vogue. They are commonly presided over by a professor or by some one designated for the purpose. He assigns to each member a topic upon which to prepare a paper, and this, at a time specified, the writer reads before the club. Some one is chosen beforehand to criticise the contents of the paper. In order that the critic may be able to do his work thoroughly, he is permitted to examine the dissertation in advance. After the critic selected has been heard, other members follow. These criticisms in the German *Gesellschaften* are unsparing, and appear to be made without any regard for the author's feelings. To an American the criticisms appear brutally blunt and severe, but they are accepted by the victim with an admirable philosophy and good nature. It is a valuable discipline, for nothing else so effectively enables one to avoid the folly of overestimating his own powers.

Of course, it is not history alone that may be studied in this

way. In every civilized country, there are innumerable organizations for various purposes, but it is only in Germany since 1830, and in France for about a quarter of a century, that history has been systematically pursued by such societies. Much may be accomplished in this way, and the teacher in our public schools is better situated than any one else to inaugurate and direct the work. The teacher is naturally expected to take the initiative in such matters, particularly because he has perfect facilities for reaching parents and others whose cooperation are necessary. Indeed, the teacher's usefulness is not limited to his work in the classroom, at least it should not be. When it is remembered that man is naturally a gregarious animal, and lends himself gladly to the furtherance of any scheme involving association with his fellows, we can readily see how useful an intelligent teacher, having executive and organizing aptitudes, may be in a community. Such activity greatly helps the teacher in his proper work in the schoolroom. It causes him to be better known and appreciated by the patrons of his school, and largely increases his influence. If such outside usefulness were generally prepared for in the schools where our teachers are trained, and the methods of its successful realization were carefully considered and systematized, the remuneration and tenure of office of the profession would be speedily advanced.

36. Interest in Historical Study may be Increased by Public Librarians.—An admirable plan of creating among the reading public an interest in historical reading and study has been described by Mr. William E. Foster, the Librarian of the Providence Public Library. The object in view included not only historical reading, but also such geographical, political, economical, and other subjects as are suggested by current events. The method pursued was to post at the library, newspaper clippings referring to important matters, and then to give below the titles and library numbers of books in which could be found additional information relating to the subjects so posted. It was immediately found that the plan was an excellent one. Increasing numbers of visitors would stop to read

the clippings, and, naturally, they would procure and read the books. Neighboring educational institutions were invited to send lists of subjects in which their students were interested, and the volumes in which these subjects were treated were not only reported back, but the lists were posted at the library. The work was at first done by hektograph, but it was speedily necessary to resort to printing, and lists were finally sent to other cities. These lists were printed in the local newspapers whose readers would cut them out, take them along to the library to guide in the selection of books, and preserve them for future reference. Mr. Foster says that the plan developed until, in response to numerous requests, the more extended lists were printed in the "Library Journal" of New York, and that finally, in 1881, was begun the regular issue of the "Monthly Reference Lists." This latter periodical has attained a wide circulation in this country, and it has readers in Europe. He gives, as specimens of current topics, such as :

"The Stability of the French Republic."
"The German Empire."
"European Interests in Egypt."
"Indian Tribes in the United States."
"The Unification of Italy."
"The Closing Years of the Roman Republic."
"The Plantagenets in England."
"Tendencies of Local Self-Government in the United States."
"Elements of Unity in Southeastern Europe."

The foregoing is perhaps the nearest approach to the Laboratory method of Germany that is practicable in this country. Its tendency is to render the reading by the public systematic and orderly, and to turn it more to those subjects that at the time are uppermost in the public mind. It is, moreover, a plan by which intelligent students can be useful to others. There are many newspaper editors that would be glad to print such lists of topics, whether supplied by librarians or by well informed general readers. We hear much of altruistic effort ; here is a field for persons disposed to exert themselves in behalf of a larger general intelligence. By these and similar means, the teacher may extend his functions beyond the classroom.

37. The Lecture Method.—This method is much employed in the teaching of a great variety of subjects, particularly in colleges and universities, and in the higher technical institutions. This is more especially the case in the colleges and universities of Europe. In the United States, courses of lectures are very commonly arranged in nearly all of our large cities and towns during winter. In these courses, the subjects are usually popular rather than didactic ; for, if a lecture is intended to instruct, it is almost certain to be sparsely attended. The people that go to lectures expect to be entertained ; a fact indicating that the Lecture method in teaching history has, under ordinary conditions, very little value. Unless a lecturer thoroughly knows his subject, and has besides rare graces of delivery, he cannot hope to furnish his audience any material or lasting benefit. But there are circumstances under which this method may be employed with excellent results by the teacher of history. Some of these conditions are as follows :

I. *The lecturer must be thoroughly master of his subject.* He must know the entire field covered by the lecture ; he must know it not merely as a detail of facts, it must lie in his mind as scientific organized knowledge. Its philosophy must be familiar to him. The laws of cause and effect, of sequence in time, and all the various interdependences must unite this knowledge into one logical structure. Some one says that history is philosophy teaching by example. We can know only facts and their relations ; but a knowledge of facts alone, facts in isolation, is scarcely worthy of being called knowledge. Facts become important only when their relations are fully understood. The voyage of Columbus, considered merely *as* a voyage, has no more interest than any other voyage across the Atlantic ; but when it is taken in connection with related events before and after, it becomes one of the most momentous occurrences in history. The battle between the Monitor and the Merrimac was a slight affair compared with the battle between the Chinese and the Japanese at the Yalu River, or the destruction of the Spanish fleet by Admiral Dewey in the harbor of Manila, or that of Admiral Cervera at Santiago de Cuba. But when that first meeting between iron vessels is

considered in regard not only to its influence in shaping events during our own war, but also as necessitating the remodeling of the navies of the world, its deep significance becomes apparent. The performance of the dynamite cruiser "Vesuvius" at Santiago de Cuba, and the late developments in the matter of submarine navigation, will doubtless be the beginning of striking readjustments of the world's methods of warfare. Events are great, though not so much in themselves as in their relations.

It follows, therefore, that to employ the Lecture method effectively in teaching history, it is necessary for the lecturer to have mastered the philosophy of his subject, to have pondered deeply upon the logic of events. His knowledge must be thorough and profound, and it must be organized. He must be able to give in a sentence what may have cost him weeks of reading and reflection.

II. *He must not enter into details.* If the lecturer introduces many particulars, it becomes impossible for him to exhibit strongly any logical and connected whole. By the lecturer's matter and manner, his audience should be compelled to grasp and remember the general scheme of the lecture. This scheme should be so conceived and presented as to create an impulse on the part of the audience to find the details that will confirm and complete it. It should be a nucleus around which there shall be a continuous accumulation.

III. *The student should be supplied with a good outline of the lecture.* It is customary for students to take notes of lectures that they deem important. If original research with reference to the matters treated is contemplated, these are indispensable. But the task of writing these notes diverts the attention from the main argument, and much of the effect and unity is lost. The best method of meeting this requirement is for the lecturer himself to supply a complete outline of the lecture. He avoids by this means the possibility of being misunderstood, and the later researches of the students are perfectly definite. If reference is made in these notes to authorities where details may be found, the outline of the lecture becomes immensely more valuable. In any case, the notes can be made the basis for

subsequent examination into the proficiency of the students. This is the method of procedure in our schools of law and medicine, where the teaching is largely done by means of lectures.

38. Remarks on the Lecture Method.—In teaching history by this method, great care is necessary that the subject and its treatment shall be adapted to the age and intelligence of the pupils. This is a matter of difficulty. It requires a thorough knowledge by the lecturer of the mental status of the pupils, and besides, that he shall have the rather rare versatility that enables one to make his language, manner, and method suit an audience of children or of cultured adults. Tyndall possessed this power of adaptation to a wonderful degree. His Christmas lectures on Light and Electricity were listened to with rapt attention by audiences of more than 5,000 children, and in this country he lectured on the same subjects to immense audiences composed largely of educated people and specialists. The error into which a lecturer is most likely to fall will consist, therefore, in making his subject too little philosophical, or too profoundly so.

If a discussion of the lecture is made to follow, directed and supplemented by the lecturer himself, its effect is amplified and deepened, and erroneous impressions corrected. In Germany, this method, with various accompaniments and modifications, and in its most elaborate and philosophical form, is much employed in the *Seminaria* or "Training Schools," and in the "Practice Course" of the universities. But it is to be remembered that, in these departments, only comparatively small groups of advanced students are addressed, and that the lecture is intended only to suggest lines of subsequent original research by the students.

It is extremely doubtful whether the most accomplished lecturer on history proper could make this method valuable below our high schools. Into these, however, and into our colleges, it has been introduced, and in many cases with marked success. But while this method is useful only in the higher study of history, there is a modification of it that may be

regarded as indispensable in the historical work in our lower schools. This, on account of its importance, shall be carefully explained in the next topic.

39. The Biographical Method.—Before history proper can be studied with any profit from textbooks, the *historic sense* must be developed; and of all methods for this purpose, the Biographical method is the best with beginners. By the historic sense is meant:

I. *A Demand of the Mind that Narratives shall be Distinguished as **True** or as Mere **Myth** or **Story**.*—To very young children a fairy story is as apparently true as the account of a real occurrence. The tales of the "Arabian Nights" are just as veracious to them as if the incidents occurred before their own eyes. Dickens strikingly exemplifies this in a beautiful sketch entitled "The Child's Story."

> "They had plenty of the finest toys in the world, and the most astonishing picture books—all about simitars and slippers and turbans, and dwarfs and giants, and genii and fairies, and bluebeards and bean-stalks, and riches and caverns and forests, and Valentines and Orsons; and all new and *all true*."

Indeed, it never occurs to children up to about eight years of age to inquire as to the truth of what they hear or read—everything is real, everything true. At this age, questions of probability begin feebly to suggest themselves, and the mind begins to file, but, with slight emphasis, its protests against incongruity.

As the result of many tests made upon children, it has been ascertained that by certain kinds of training this sense of *historic truth* may be rapidly developed, and thus the child may be prepared for serious historical work. It would be interesting to detail here some of the many tests that have revealed this psychological fact, but the limits assigned for this Instruction Paper will not permit it.

II. *A Demand of the Mind for the **Time** of Events.*—What some one has called the *perspective of history* is absent in young children. The writers of fairy stories have never deemed it necessary to be more specific in this respect than to begin with

"Once upon a time," or with "Once upon a time, long, long ago," or with similar vague phrases. To young children, the stories of Columbus and Washington are equally remote, and neither dates farther back or forward than "King Arthur's Round Table," or the myth of "Jason and the Golden Fleece." No such inquiry as "When did it all happen?" is heard from these youthful auditors until after about the age of eight years has been passed. After this time, the demand for the time of events is made with increasing frequency. Still later, comes the mental requirement for a definite sequence in regard to time of the several items that make up a single event; and still later, for the relation in time of several independent events. Until this last instinct has become definite, the historic sense with respect to time is incomplete. And it is long after the pupil desires to know the sequence of time in the events of a narrative that he becomes importunate about what was at the same time going on in the rest of the world.

III. *A Mental Demand for the **Cause** and the **Consequence** of Historic Action.*—Early in the life of children we often hear the inquiry, "Why did you do that?" This is one of the first manifestations of an instinct to investigate the causes of action. Such investigations are at first confined to the child's actual surroundings, and they generally have reference only to actions that affect his own physical or mental well-being, or his personal rights. It is much later when he carries these inquiries outside into the matters of history. In these early years, his instinct deals only with the *causes*, not the *consequences*, of personal actions. Long afterwards the tendency asserts itself to trace action to the *effect* it produces.

It is related that a lawyer once advertised for an office boy. On the day indicated, a large number of applicants appeared. The lawyer said, "Boys, before I decide which one of you I shall select, I wish to tell you a story." He then very vividly, as some lawyers can, related an incident that may be outlined as follows:

"A farmer one night heard a disturbance near his barn among his poultry—with his gun, he went to the barn—an owl sat on the roof—the farmer shot at it—the wad from his gun lodged

among the dry shingles and fired the barn—it burned rapidly—his horses and cows were in the barn—he attempted to save them—his life was lost in the effort—his wife, in trying to rescue her husband, was burned to death—the barn, the farmer, his wife, and all the stock were consumed."

The boys listened with suspended breath, and a deep sigh at the close told the story of the intensity of their interest and sympathy. Presently one of them asked, "Mister, did he hit the owl?" "You are the boy I want," answered the lawyer. In this is an illustration of the fact that the instinct to trace events to their legitimate outcome has a market value. Doubtless the student is familiar with the myth concerning Epimetheus and his brother Prometheus. Their names, denoting afterthought and forethought, are indicative of their mental qualities. Most people have Epimetheus, and very few, Prometheus, for their prototypes.

IV. *An Impulse to Criticise Historic Action, and to Make Inferences from It.*—Criticisms of historic events generally have reference to the motives of action, and are based upon the assumption that actions have an *ethical* quality—rightness or wrongness; or they concern the expediency of the means employed to accomplish certain ends.

40. Ethical Criticism.—To illustrate what is meant by ethical criticism, the incident may be cited of the slaughter, by order of Napoleon, of nearly 1,500 Turkish prisoners taken at the storming of Jaffa. His biographers and critics are still disputing whether the exigencies of the situation and the laws of war warranted the act. And the people of our own country are by no means unanimous on the question whether General Grant was right to "fight it out on this line if it takes all summer." He had to choose between a more dilatory method with a probable saving of life, and the method that he adopted, that of ending the war quickly by sheer force of superior numbers, and without considering the lives it might cost. Much is to be said on each side of such questions, and it is a part of the teacher's work to develop in his pupils a critical instinct that looks at historical events from all sides.

To a child, the ethical quality in human deeds is quite overshadowed by heroic action and daring. The doings of the pirates of the Spanish seas create no sentiment of revolting and horror; they are only fearless freebooters whose legitimate prey is the world. The horrors of battle are quite lost in the glorious exhilaration as he reads or hears of the rush of infantry, the thunder-like roll of artillery, and the magnificent charges of cavalry. There is no room in his young heart for pity of the vanquished, he cannot hear the groans of the wounded, or see the white upturned faces of the dead. Very slow is the growth of the ethical sense. Even "children of larger growth" have a very rudimentary notion of the right and the wrong in human action.

There is gradually developed in every mind a disposition to predict or infer what is to happen next in any succession of events; or to conjecture the occurrences that have preceded a given state of things. When Robinson Crusoe saw the strange footprint in the sand, the remains of a fire, and the bones that he recognized as human, his first mental impulse was to seek an explanation of these phenomena. His earliest conclusion was that his island had human inhabitants other than himself. This he investigated and disproved, and thus established the alternative fact that the island had been visited by cannibals. So far he had been making inferences as to what had *already* happened. Now he begins to deal with the *future*. "They will return. What has happened is likely to happen again." Such is his thought, and from that time he is in daily expectation of their return.

41. Test of the Power of Inference.—To test the power of inference in young students of history, Mary Sheldon Barnes gives the following as a typical exercise:

"If you were shipwrecked on an island in the middle of the sea, and [if] you found in one corner of the island an old house of logs, and part of an old wooden boat with broken arrows in the bottom of it, what would these things tell you?"

Many children of different ages and degrees of intelligence were required to give their views in writing. Their inferences as to what had happened on the island were carefully collated,

and some very instructive conclusions were reached regarding the development of the faculty of critical, legitimate, and historical inference at different school ages. The student will find her little book, "Studies in Historical Method," to contain much suggestive and valuable help.

42. Method of Developing the Historic Sense.—Having set forth pretty fully what is meant by the *historic sense*, we shall now explain what is generally conceded to be the best method of developing it.

Nowhere in the world has history been so successfully taught as in Germany. The subject is handled there in such a way as to make the student an intelligent and a persistent reader of history during his entire life. His training is such, too, that his subsequent reading is methodical and systematic. He is not taught to "hate history," but it is to him an inspiration and a discipline. With him the period of historical study preceding the university work covers about nine years—from the age of nine or ten to about nineteen. It is during the first five years that the Biographical method is employed. This method we now proceed to describe.

The first two years of historical work are taken up with stories told by the teacher about the great men and the great events of the world. In this work no dates are given, and times are indicated only approximately. The central purpose is to awaken and develop the historic sense, and to this end, the impressions must be the most vivid possible. Only teachers specially trained are employed in this work. Of course no textbooks or books of any kind are used. It is much the same as the entertaining of children by telling them stories in the nursery. These stories occupy a half hour each, twice a week, and, naturally, they are eagerly anticipated by the pupils. They serve to carry the children from their own narrow sphere into the great world of heroic effort and achievement beyond, and to awaken vague ambitions and hopes concerning their own future. Every one knows the intense interest and delight that children find in a story well told, and no effect upon the mind endures as does that made during highly wrought emotion.

Leonidas, "lion-like," becomes, to the child so taught, a type of heroic and unselfish devotion to country forevermore. Salamis —the heart of the child will beat faster hereafter when he hears the name. Themistocles, Aristides, Demosthenes, Lycurgus, Socrates, Alexander—what a mine of biographical wealth the old Greek race furnishes for the delectation of the student, and the ideals and aspirations of men are higher and nobler for the lives of such men.

In these tales, the teacher naturally begins with his own country, and proceeds in an orderly way with the epoch-making men and events of other countries. Gradually, as the horizon of the pupil widens, he comes to feel the need of greater definiteness as to time and place, cause and effect, ethical fitness, and means and motives. Geography lends its aid. "Here was born this great man ; here he did his work ; here he died and was buried." "On the banks of this river the battle was fought ; here, through a mountain pass the defeated army attempted to escape and was destroyed or captured." Little by little, pity for the vanquished, and the subsequent fate of those whose future was ruined by the defeat, begins to take its place in the child's heart, and questions of right and wrong— the ethical sense—are vaguely outlined in his consciousness.

And, thus, slowly indeed, but surely, is built up a mental substructure upon which shall rest later a symmetrical knowledge of history.

At the end of two years, the same ground is gone over again, but in a different way. The Biographical method is still pursued, but this time the object is to link events into a harmonious outline. The elements of time and place, of cause and effect, of means and end, and of ethical fitness are to be employed in giving unity of effect. The Battle of Salamis has already been told ; now the whole story of Xerxes' invasion of Greece, with its causes and consequences, is gone over. The pupil is furnished with a pamphlet containing names and dates, not for study, but as simply suggestive aids to the memory. This pamphlet is prepared by the teacher, and, in his work, the order of its contents is closely followed. It is useful, too, in the oral and written exercises on the part of the pupils, who are required

to impress upon their memories what has been taught. The law of association is utilized by every possible means. Brief, but clear explanations of the manners and customs that prevailed in those far-away historic times are given by the teacher; forms of government are described, not at length and formally, but in sharp, well defined outline. The learning of dates under this *régime* is not the slavish work usually made of it, but each date takes its place in the memory easily, and stands with respect to other dates as definitely as a star in a constellation. The characters of whom he has learned are not mere names; they are clothed in flesh, and warm blood circulates through their veins and arteries. What Emerson says of science is true of history, "Something is wanting to science until it has been humanized. The table of logarithms is one thing, and its vital play in botany, music, optics, and architecture, another." So these names of history must be changed into real personages in the mind of the pupil, before they become examples and imperatives in his life. Mencius says, "A sage is the instructor of a hundred ages." When we get this realistic knowledge of the wise and the noble, we ourselves are made wiser and nobler.

This, then, is the Biographical method, and its successful use depends almost entirely upon the teacher. He, must, of course, know his subject as an organized whole, as well as know it in its parts; he must be willing to devote much time to preparation; he must be able to produce vivid impressions; and he must not lose his grasp upon the general scheme, and, in consequence, mutilate and weaken the parts by meaningless digressions.

43. A Specimen Lesson in a German School.—The following account of a lesson illustrating the Biographical method is taken from Dr. Klemm.

(1) A biographical narrative was given by the teacher, who spoke in very simple and appropriate language, but feelingly, with the glow of enthusiasm and the chest tone of conviction. He made each pupil identify himself with the hero of the story. The map was frequently used or referred to. Bits of poetry taken from the reader were interwoven, and circumstances of our time, as well as persons of very recent history, were mentioned at the proper occasion. The attention was breathless.

(2) The story was then repeated by pupils, who were now and then interrupted by leading questions. The answers were again usea to develop new thoughts not brought out by the first narration. Particularly was it cause and effect, and the moral value of certain historical actions which claimed the attention of the teacher. To me it was very instructive to see these children search for analogous cases in human life as they knew it.

(3) The pupils were led to search in their stores of historical knowledge for analogous cases, or cases of decided contrast. This gave me an insight into the extent of their knowledge. When, for instance, certain civil virtues were spoken of, they mentioned cases that revealed a very laudable familiarity with history. But all their knowledge had been grouped around a number of centers—that is, great men. That is to say, their knowledge had been gained through biographies.

(4) The pupils were told to write, in connected narration, what they had just learned. This proved a fertile composition exercise, because the pupils had something to write about—a thing that is not quite so frequent in schools as seems desirable.

44. Underlying Principles of the Lesson. — Dr. Klemm goes on to tell of the teacher's explanation to him of the principles that should characterize the method.

The aim should be "to nourish and strengthen all the powers of the soul, interest, emotion, and volition." "The pupil's intellect is increased by making him familiar with historical deeds, by affording comparisons and making distinctions, by causing keen judgment and correct conclusions." "The pupil's heart is influenced by instruction in history, because many great, sublime, noble, and beautiful actions and motives are presented, which cause pleasure, and lead to imitation, unconsciously to the pupil." "The pupil's will power is greatly stimulated by instruction in history, because he is warned and inspired by truth, right, and duty, to love his country and his fellowmen."

45. Methods of Securing These Ends.—The teacher enunciates to Dr. Klemm the conditions upon which depends the securement of these ends, as follows :

(1) That the teacher of history be a person whose heart is full of patriotism, and beats strongly for truth, right, and duty.

(2) That the instruction be not a mere recital of names and dates, of battles and acquisitions of land, nor dissertations upon abstract ideas and generalities, but above all, a simple narration of deeds and events, and a glowing description of persons and circumstances.

(3) That the teacher connect the new historical knowledge with circumstances and conditions, such as are either known to the pupils, or are near enough at hand to be drawn into the discussion.

(4) That the pupil should not be allowed to remain receptive, but must be induced to be active in this study.

(5) That the teacher should induce his pupils to compare similar and dissimilar actions and persons, and thereby induce judgment upon cause and effect from a moral or an ethical standpoint, so that not merely the intellect be developed, but also the heart and the will.

(6) That instruction in history be brought into organic connection with the study of language; for this reason, reading is to be brought in as an assistant. Recitations of patriotic poems and ballads can be woven in profitably, and that geography must aid history is self-evident.

46. Remarks upon the Foregoing Illustrative Lesson.—The writer feels that it is unnecessary to apologize for illustrating at length so excellent a plan as is realized in the Biographical method of beginning history. That the method is excellent is demonstrated by its long use in the German elementary schools. That it has not proved so valuable in this country is owing, not to faults in the method itself, but to a lack of ability on the part of the teacher to use it skilfully and effectively. Educators know that if children have the good fortune to fall into the hands of able teachers, they themselves, should they subsequently become teachers, will remember and strive to imitate in matter, manner, and method, their former teachers. And it is probably true that no person ever became a great teacher, if he himself had been poorly taught. Man is only an improved type of the ape in this imitative instinct. Many an excellent plan of procedure in teaching has been abandoned for no better reason than that the teacher lacked the genius to devise original methods of using it, and had no illustrative prototype. In teaching, as in other things, excellence is attained by the slow processes of evolution, and final success is hypothecated upon innumerable antecedent failures.

47. The Biographical Method as Advocated by Herbart and Others.—So marked have been the good results obtained in the German schools by this method, that many pedagogists, at whose head are Herbart and Ziller, have advocated its introduction at the beginning of the child's school life. They have outlined the course to be pursued in carrying out their theories. During the first year, certain of the tales of the Grimm Brothers are told over and over again by the teacher,

and are finally drawn from the children as voluntary oral narrative, or by means of suggestive questions. These become the material for lessons in morals, religion, general information, object lessons, language lessons, etc. The delightful stories of Hans Christian Anderson, being slightly more realistic, can be similary used.

The second year's work consists of the story of Robinson Crusoe. This is broken up into brief episodes, each complete in itself, and when, toward the close of the year, they are united, they form a connected whole.

After this come the Sagas of the Scandinavian mythology, stories of Odin, Thor, Loki, Balder, the Valkyries, and of many others of the rugged but poetically beautiful characters that figure in the myths of the icy North. From these, too, are drawn lessons of poetic and moral beauty, and they serve to furnish concrete images for the imaginative instinct found in every child.

Then the stories of the Old Testament are utilized, followed by tales from the Odyssey and the Iliad, Shakespeare, Livy, Herodotus, Xenophon, Hesiod, Æschylus, and others. So the work goes on to the time at which history proper is taken up in the regular German course, when the pupil is nine or ten years of age.

48. Some Reasons for Beginning History Early.—It is conceded among educators that the chief need with little children is language. In consequence of this fact, studied and systematic work has been instituted to provide for this want. The most conspicuous effort in this direction is the kindergarten, which has been much decried and much lauded. The central requirement of kindergarten work is that it shall deal with concrete objects, a knowledge of which reaches the mind principally through the two senses of sight and feeling. Almost nothing is done for the other senses. The child is expected to get, in his own environment, all the sensations he requires of smell, taste, and hearing. Of the words that he learns, the greater part are nouns and adjectives. The various actions and motions expressed by verbs he learns by observation, mostly

elsewhere than in the kindergarten. Adverbs he learns with verbs, and the various relation words and the pronouns come but slowly. Now the teacher that tells him a fairy story, or a tale from mythology, must reach his mind without placing in his hands sensible objects of any kind. Verbs, adverbs, pronouns, relation words, all easy to be understood, and all illustrated by what the child sees every day, must be so used that, by sheer force of repetition and context, he may gradually get exact notions of their meanings, and learn to use them himself. In this early work, the value of a teacher is measured by his skill in story telling—by his ability to transfer to ideal uses words usually applied to sensible objects, by his vivacity, the music of his voice, and his earnestness. Obviously, teaching of this kind supplements the work among the concrete in the kindergarten, and rapidly supplies a vocabulary suitable to the narrow sphere of a child. If rightly done, it is an excellent training in the use of words in ideal or mental senses.

Another imperative requirement in the education of a young child is the formation in his mind of definite centers of interest that may, by subsequent accumulations, be enlarged and rendered more comprehensive and more definitely significant. There is a certain attractive affinity between such centers in memory and thought and the related ideas that reach the child later. "The child must have ideas before he can compare and classify them," say our educators. What better way to get ideas than this?

When we remember that, of the words with which we are familiar, only a very small percentage was learned from the dictionary, and that the rest were gradually accumulated by reading and conversation alone, it will be obvious that the story telling method is a correct natural method. It is a method that begins in the nursery and endures as long as we live. Some one says of the Biographical method that it matters but little how early it is begun, provided only that it is begun rightly.

Many other reasons for this early work might be given, but enough has been said on the subject to show that it would be difficult to begin too soon to enrich the vocabularies of our children, to awaken and develop the historic sense, and to form in their minds definite centers of historical interest.

49. The Comparative Method.—Mr. Herbert B. Adams, one of our most eminent teachers of history, in describing this method, employs the word *comparative* in two senses. In its first use, he makes it signify a comparison of similar phases of the history of different nations at the same or different times. A brief quotation from this author will illustrate :

"It would be a fine thing for American students, if, in studying special topics in the history of their own country, they would occasionally compare the phases of historic truth here discovered with similar phases discovered elsewhere; if, for example, the colonial beginnings of North America should be compared with Aryan migrations westward into Greece and Italy, or again with the colonial systems of Greece and of the Roman Empire, or of the English Empire today, which is continuing in South Africa and Australia and in Manitoba, the same old spirit of enterprise which colonized the Atlantic seaboard of North America. It would interest young minds to have parallels drawn between English colonies, Grecian commonwealths, Roman provinces, the United Cantons of Switzerland, and the United States of Holland. To be sure, these various topics would require considerable study on the part of teacher and pupil, but the fathers of the American Constitution, Madison, Hamilton, and others, went over such ground in preparing the platform of our present federal government."

It is this method that Plutarch follows in his delightful "parallels." In all the range of biographical literature, there is nothing quite so fascinating as these parallels, and while this fact is due in large measure to the style in which they are written, in still larger measure it is owing to the pleasure we find in the comparison of similar characters, in the detection of differences and resemblances. This method is applicable in the study of innumerable phases of the history of nations, as, for example, the comparison of our own Civil War with the French Revolution or with the Revolution in England against the Stuarts under Cromwell; the invasion of Greece by Xerxes, and the expedition of Alexander; the invasion of Russia by Napoleon and the March of the Ten Thousand under Xenophon; the commercial and naval rivalry between Rome and Carthage, and the similar rivalry between England and Continental Europe. The well informed and thoughtful teacher of history will have no difficulty in finding examples to illustrate almost any episode in the history of his country.

The second sense in which Professor Adams uses the term *comparative* will best be understood from the following quotation :

"But my special plea is for the application of the comparative method to the use of historical literature. Students should learn to view history in different lights and from various standpoints. Instead of relying passively upon the *ipse dixit* of the schoolmaster, or of the school book, or of some one historian, pupils should learn to judge for themselves by comparing evidence. Of course, some discretion should be exercised by the teacher in the case of young pupils; but even children are attracted by different versions of the same tale or legend, and catch at new points of interest with all the eagerness of original investigators. The scattered elements of fact or tradition should be brought together as children piece together the scattered blocks of a map. The criterion of all truth, as well as of all art, is *fitness*. Comparison of different accounts of the same historic event would no more injure boys and girls than would a comparative study of the four gospels. On the contrary, such comparisons strengthen the judgment, and give it greater independence and stability. In teaching history, altogether too much stress has been laid, in many of our schools, upon mere forms of verbal expression in the textbook, as though historic truth consists in the repetition of what some author has said. It would be far better for the student to read the same story in several different forms, and then to give his own version. The latter process would be an independent historical view based upon a variety of evidence. The memorizing of "words, words," prevents the assimilation of facts, and clogs the mental process of reflection and private judgment."

50. Remarks on the Comparative Method.—It will be seen from the foregoing quotations that Professor Adams employs the term *comparative* in two widely different meanings ; one meaning denotes a comparison of analogous events, the other a comparison of different accounts of the same event. In the first, the trustworthiness of the historic records is assumed wherever they may be found ; in the second, the truth or the completeness of the various accounts must be thought of as only approximate—the records are to be taken together and averaged. Each requires judgment and skill in collating resemblances and differences, but the former exercises the faculty of a higher and more mature phase of the faculty of comparison than does the latter, and both involve much study and reflection on the part of the pupils and the teacher. Under proper conditions of age and maturity of the pupils, of industry, intelligence, and

scholarship on the part of the teacher, and of library facilities, this method would undoubtedly be very effective. But, unfortunately, these conditions of success are generally wanting, and this is especially the case in our lower grades of schools. Only to a very limited extent would this plan of history work be practicable in our country schools, and the same would be largely the case in the graded schools of our towns and cities. However, if the teacher himself is in possession of wide and accurate historic scholarship, and at the same time has access to the necessary historical authorities, both phases of the method may be advantageously resorted to, both in country and in city schools. By reading different accounts of the same event to his pupils, emphasizing similarities and differences, by causing among them discussions that he directs and summarizes, and by many other means, the teacher may utilize, in a large measure, the Comparative method.

51. Other Methods.—There are several other plans of teaching history that have been designated by distinguishing names. These, however, are in use only in the higher institutions of learning in this and other countries, and are, therefore, of little practical value to the ordinary teacher of history. But while they may not be of any value as working methods, to the students of this Paper, they shall be briefly explained below; for teachers may perhaps find in them guiding suggestions for their own study of history, and for the work of their pupils in other subjects.

I. *The Cooperative Method.*—This is a method not only of *studying* history, but of *writing* it. Leopold von Ranke, perhaps the greatest of historians, who did more than any one else to create, develop, and organize the historical methods of Germany, is the father of the Cooperative method.

"The most notable example of the cooperative method in universal history," says Professor Adams, "is the new monographic history of the world, edited by Professor Wilhelm Oncken, but composed by the eminent specialists in Germany. One man writes the history of Egypt in the light of modern research; another that of Persia; a third reviews the history of Greece, giving the latest results of Grecian archeological investigations; others revise Roman history and the early history of Germanic peoples."

The foregoing extract will sufficiently illustrate what is involved in this method. In every department of human activity the division of labor has been introduced so generally that, in the ordinary industries, it is now difficult to find a "trade" that one may learn in its entirety. Manufacturers find that, in the construction of a whole composed of many parts, labor is economized and the output increased by assigning the various parts to as many different individuals. Thus, one man makes, or partially makes, a certain wheel in a watch, another works upon a different wheel, and still another turns, engraves, or decorates the case. In this division of labor, aptitudes of different workers determine what each shall do.

The same method has been carried into literary work. The making of a great dictionary is a good illustration. One specialist is eminent in physical science; to him is assigned the work of defining the terms belonging to that department. The most eminent authority obtainable for each department writes the definitions pertaining to his special subject. The whole is a great cooperative work.

More than twenty-five years ago, the publishing house of D. Appleton & Co. began to issue, under the editorship of Professor Youmans, a list of popular science treatises called the "International Scientific Series." Each volume covered some special topic, and was written by the man supposed to be, as compared with all others, the most competent in the world to treat that particular subject. Professor Tyndall wrote the first volume, the title of which is "The Forms of Water." Other authors just as eminent followed, until this series, a perfect illustration of the Cooperative method, has grown into a collection of incomparable value. To know thoroughly the contents of all these works, would be an admirable general education in science for any man.

II. *The Seminary Method.*—The Seminary method is only a continuation of the German plan of teaching history. It is distinguished by original research by the students, of whom a comparatively small number work together; by the preparation of original theses as the result of such investigations; by the reading and criticism of these theses by students and teachers.

and by the restriction within narrow limits of the areas investigated at any one time.

"The Seminary method of modern universities is merely the development of the old scholastic method of advancing philosophical inquiry by the defense of original theses. The *Seminary* is still a training school [in Germany] for doctors of philosophy; but it has evolved from a nursery of dogma into a laboratory of scientific truth."—*H. B. Adams.*

To Leopold von Ranke, who died in 1886, at the age of 91 years, belongs the honor of having transformed the *Seminars* of Germany from religious institutions into scientific laboratories. In some of our universities this method is used in connection with others, but it is obviously impracticable in schools of lower grade. It is intended solely for such students as desire to make a specialty of history.

52. The Eclectic Method.—"All roads lead to Rome," says the proverb; so, all methods must be known and used by the teacher, if he would attain to the highest success in his profession. Better than any one method is a combination of all methods, provided that this combination is determined by an intelligent appreciation of the requirements of each particular situation. No teacher ever became great in his profession by pursuing undeviatingly a single plan of procedure. Napoleon's successes were owing, not to superior forces, but to superior genius in adapting means to ends; in bringing to bear, in a particular emergency, just the agencies required to accomplish his purposes. His plans and military processes were eclectic—determined by circumstances; the methods of his enemies were in accordance with the established principles of military science. They could not deviate from the beaten track—they were hampered by the rules learned from their teachers.

The conditions of success for a teacher are exactly similar. Means and methods must be various, suited, in each case, to requirements. Any single plan long pursued becomes monotonous and ineffective. The Eclectic method aims at variety, freshness, and the sustainment of interest. It is a method made up of elements selected from all sources, and determined by existing circumstances. More than any other, it requires in the teacher judgment, and an exact understanding of his pupils and

of the subject that he is teaching. Properly used, it is the best of all methods, for it takes into account, in each case, the needed elements of success, and these are always unique—always peculiar. At one time, he lectures; at another, he questions; now he tells a story in illustration of some point; again, he resorts to research by the pupil; sometimes a historical poem or ballad is read; sometimes the pupil prepares a thesis. Here is a lesson furnishing instruction in ethics—in moral beauty; here, one dealing with political economy and good citizenship. No opportunity of utilizing side issues is lost, but thoughtfully, wisely, discriminatingly, the teacher employs every means of uniting the multitude of lessons and principles and inferences into a coherent, symmetrical, logical whole.

53. Conditions of Success.—But this is a method requiring in the teacher rare powers of management and of organization, as well as comprehensive and thorough acquaintance with his subject. It is, moreover, a method that induces rapid growth, not only in the pupil, but in the teacher himself. Each year reveals some imperfection in the devices and processes of the last year's work. It is, in short, a method of growth, of evolution, and in its best phase, it is the climax and perfection of all methods. Its employment induces and develops in the teacher that best of all attributes, originality; and the example to the pupil of an intelligent use of appropriate means will become an influence in all his after life.

One special error of procedure is likely to attend the use of the Eclectic method; indeed, it is to be guarded against with every method. It is the probability of obscuring the general plan by side issues. Always, when the logical connection is broken by an illustrative aside, by an application of some principle to a particular case, or by an ethical or economic deduction, the main thread should be formally and distinctly resumed. At such points, it is well for the teacher to require from the pupils a *résumé* of the chapter or lesson up to the point where the break occurred, for it must not be forgotten that a coherent logical whole is the matter important above all others. Everything else should be made secondary to this, and

when a historical work is finished, it should lie in the mind of the class with all the definiteness of a landscape. In the consideration of fact or application, of illustration or inference, do not lose sight of the general scheme.

54. Observations upon Methods.—Whatever method or combination of methods may be employed by the teacher of history, little will be accomplished unless the pupil gives his best powers to the study. The teacher's contribution to the work is, in the nature of things, only directive. He may superintend the work wisely and with comprehensive views, or he may not; but the final outcome depends largely upon what the student does for himself. There is a growing notion that if we can but have a good teacher, his work will so supplement what the child may do, whether that be well done or otherwise, that the result will be satisfactory. The goodness of a teacher, however, is, in large measure, determined by what he can induce the pupil to do for himself. Before comparisons or applications can be made, or laws inferred, there must be a basis of facts in the mind of the pupil; and with this working material he must be perfectly familiar. This is to be acquired by the pupil's own efforts. In this, the teacher's aid avails but little. To be a scholar in any proper sense, one must "burn the midnight oil." And, contrary to an opinion entertained by some and too much encouraged by medical incompetents, this mental work expended in study and acquirement is undoubtedly good for the mind, and is not hurtful to the bodily powers; for, it is a well known fact that when business men, after having been actively engaged for years in the most intense activity of body and mind, retire for "rest," the repose of the grave quickly follows.

This use of the memory in accumulating the facts of history is especially important and necessary in the earliest school work. Dr. W. T. Harris, Commissioner of Education, says:

"The elementary school will always have the character of memory work stamped upon it, no matter how much the educational reformers may improve its methods. It is not easy to overvalue the work of such men as Pestalozzi and Froebel. But the child's mind cannot seize great syntheses. He bites off, as it were, only small fragments of truth at best.

He gets isolated data, and sees only feebly the vast network of inter-relation in the world. This fragmentary, isolated character belongs essentially to primary education."

Referring to the importance of a disciplined and retentive memory, Professor Hinsdale quotes the following from the Psychology of Professor James:

"No one, probably, was ever effective on a voluminous scale without a high degree of this physiological retentiveness. In the practical as in the theoretic life, the man whose acquisitions *stick* is the man who is always achieving and advancing; while his neighbors, spending most of their time in relearning what they once knew but have forgotten, simply hold their own. A Charlemagne, a Luther, a Leibnitz, a Walter Scott—any example, in short, of your quarto or folio editions of mankind, must needs have amazing retentiveness of the purely physiological sort. Men without this retentiveness may excel in the *quality* of their work at this point or that, but they will never do such mighty sums of it, or be influential contemporaneously on such a scale."

55. Summary.—The Memoriter method, therefore, so far, at least, as acquirement is concerned, is one of extreme importance in the early stages of history study. The principal thing to be guarded against, as has already been explained, is the memorizing of lessons in the exact *words* of the author. The means of guarding against this have already been mentioned and emphasized. The *thought* expressed is the principal thing, and, in arriving at the thought with exactness and precision, there should not remain in the text one word whose meaning, as there used, is in the slightest degree vague. This is largely a work to be looked after by the teacher. The habit of resting content with nothing that is indefinite or uncertain, of following everything to its last analysis, is not easily formed, and the teacher that establishes and confirms such a mental habit in his pupils has done much for their later educational growth. In the formation of such a habit, it must be remembered that the relation between words and the thoughts they are intended to express is very uncertain—scarcely anything is more so. There are very few writers that so choose their words as to say exactly what they mean, and it is from the context and from our own knowledge of the subject, that exact meanings must often be gathered. It is, therefore, a part of the teacher's work to clear

away ambiguities that come from the careless and indiscriminating use of words. The same may be said of arrangement. The teacher will often be required to adjust parts that are out of proper logical or chronological relation.

RELATION OF HISTORY TO OTHER SUBJECTS.

PRELIMINARY CONSIDERATIONS.

56. Vastness of the Subject of History.—In the early years of the present century, it was possible for a student to become tolerably familiar with almost the entire field of ordinary human learning, at least so far as it had been written in our own language. Comparatively little had been done in the physical sciences and in mathematics. Most of the scholarship of the world was engaged in endless disputes about metaphysics, theology, and other nebulous subjects. It is true that some great historical work had been done, but in all of it, the real, the inner life of the people, was almost completely ignored. Historical investigations were not minute and scientific, as they are now. Kings and courts, and political intrigues, and battles, and military leaders absorbed the attention of historians, to the exclusion of what is now regarded as history. Modern methods of investigation have since been introduced in every quarter, and the domain of all the inductive sciences has been expanded to such an extent that no person can hope to master completely, in our short lifetime, any one subject, even if he neglects every other.

In a recent conversation with, perhaps, one of the greatest of living organic chemists, he said to the writer that a perfect knowledge of organic chemistry would involve the necessity of remembering at least eight million formulas, processes, combining proportions, affinities, reactions, incompatibles, etc. Discussing the adjustments necessitated in educational methods by the division of labor in scientific investigations, and by the development of specialties, he said that education in the early

future will be measured by facility in consulting and understanding books of reference. However this may be, it is certain that the men that make their mark most indelibly on the scroll of the world's progress—the men whose success in life is the greatest for themselves and the most valuable to the world—are the specialists. These are the men that learn to do some particular thing better than any one else can do it. Such men compel those that seek the best of its kind to come to them. They are not obliged to seek a market for their products. Alvan Clark might have removed to the other side of the earth, but orders for the largest and best lenses that are made would have followed him, and he could have fixed his own price. Stevenson took refuge in far Samoa, but he could not get away from the demand for finished and masterly literary work. With respect to such men as Dickens, Gladstone, Pasteur, Tyndall, Bell, Tesla, Edison, the important thing is that they be alive. Where they may happen to be is of slight importance. The world will find them with its cry for help.

This necessity for devoting one's best powers to some specialty is applicable also to the subject of history. He that wishes to become great in understanding, writing, or teaching history must make it a life work. He must, moreover, love his work. And, even if one does not mean to devote his attention to history exclusively, he must, to teach it well, be a persistent student of the subject.

57. Division of Labor in Teaching.—The assignment to different persons of the several parts of a task consisting of many elements and processes is not confined to science, commerce, and the various industries. Our best schools are doing the same thing. And this is true not only of our colleges with their professors for special subjects, but also of many of our public schools. The best teacher of mathematics teaches mathematics, and the same arrangement is made with respect to other subjects. And this is a usage that is growing and has come to stay. It is reaching farther and farther down along the grades in our system of education. When our population becomes denser the graded system will be introduced even into

our country schools, and we shall have different teachers in language, in reading, in writing, in geography, and in history. Even the little folks of the kindergarten will look to one teacher for their knowledge of numbers, to another for manual devices and physical expertness, and to still another for language training. No machinist can make equally well the various parts of a locomotive; neither can a teacher secure equally good results in every school study.

The extension of the division of labor to teaching is something to be wished for and encouraged. Many of our cities and towns have introduced it, and, wherever this has been done, its great advantage has been demonstrated. Should the introduction of the division of labor in the work of education become general, it will necessitate the training of teachers in special subjects; and, although a generous all-sidedness of culture in a teacher will still be required, the one subject for which he has the greatest liking and aptitude will be emphasized in his preparatory training.

58. Objections to Specialization in Mental and Physical Training.—Nowhere in the world has devotion to single subjects of study been more general than in Germany. Critics of German culture have made the point that such special training in one subject has the effect of dwarfing in every other. They allege that the Germans do not have a single complete history of their own country—only an unorganized collection of brilliant treatises, each of which covers a particular period. This is doubtless true, but is it something to be deprecated? It may be said, in answer, that if one desires the best possible treatment of almost any subject, he must go for it to the Germans. The best cyclopedias, the most accurate maps, the most profound mathematical investigations, the ablest works on logic and metaphysics, the highest Greek and Latin scholarship, even the most excellent English grammar, and the most appreciative and scholarly edition of Shakespeare—all these are German. And after all is said, is it not perfection in details rather than imperfect general schemes that the world most needs? If a great bridge is to be built, do we not seek out the

greatest engineer available? He does not, perhaps, know Greek or Sanskrit, he is not an athlete or a chemist, he is unacquainted with whist, and golf, and baseball; but what of that? He is great as an engineer, and that is the important matter. The great military leader cannot be at the same time equally great as the leader of an orchestra; Newton cannot do the work of Mozart, nor can Michael Angelo conduct the investigations of Faraday, Darwin, or Pasteur. "Jack of all trades, but master of none" is a more serious criticism than that urged against the specialization of the Germans. The world will see no more masters of universal learning—no more Scaligers or Admirable Crichtons. It needs rather men eminent in specialties. Moreover, the most effective training is in the direction of inherited tendency. It was vastly easier to make of Patti a great singer and of Rosa Bonheur a great painter, than it would have been to make of the former even an ordinary painter and of the latter a mediocre singer. Find out what your boy was born for, and help him to become eminent if he can. German specialization is the only development that is perfectly rational and perfectly natural.

CORRELATIONS OF HISTORY.

59. Interrelation of Subjects of Study.—While, from the foregoing considerations, it is clear that the greatest eminence and usefulness are attainable only by devotion to one subject, it is equally clear that no subject is entirely isolated from every other. Perfection in one thing implies a certain degree of acquaintance with many related matters. The great sculptor must know anatomy, human and comparative; the eminent engineer must be acquainted with graphic art, the strength of materials, the laws of momentum, the effects produced by changes of temperature, and the general properties of matter. Similarly, the subject of history has its related subjects. These are many, and each is extensive enough to constitute a life work for the greatest intellect. The student or teacher of history, therefore, cannot know all these thoroughly. The field is too wide for the brief span of life. He may,

however, understand their general principles and the nature of their connection with his specialty. Before entering upon a consideration of the subjects with which history is correlated, it is necessary to understand the meaning of correlation as used in educational science.

60. Meaning of the Term *Correlation*.—The word *correlation* has only very recently been introduced into pedagogical writings. The consequence is that its precise signification, when so used, has not yet been settled. The term, as generally used, may be defined as the act of bringing into mutual or reciprocal connection, action, or correspondence, two or more persons or things, or it is the state of their being in such relation. Applied to the subject matter of education, there is much diversity of meaning attached to the term. By some it is interpreted to mean that all subjects of study are more or less closely related to one another ; so that an adequate knowledge of any one implies and necessitates an equal or a partial knowledge of every other. To illustrate, no one can be fully acquainted with the subject of music, if he is ignorant of acoustics and of the mathematical relations of the different wave lengths in the propagation of sound through air ; for upon these is dependent the entire theory of harmony and discord.

61. Committee of Fifteen.—Others, again, insist that, because such relations exist among subjects of study, none of them should be taught apart from the rest, but all should be taught in conjunction. The extreme advocates of this view insist that some literary work should be taken as a sort of text from which the study of all school subjects should proceed with equal step. In the report of the Committee of Fifteen, and in the discussion that followed, reference is made to the story of Robinson Crusoe as such a center, from which every needful study may be evolved and fully taught. The following quotations from the report of that committee will be instructive :

"Your committee would mention another sense in which the expression "correlation of studies" is sometimes used. It is held by advocates of an artificial center of the course of study. They use, for example, DeFoe's 'Robinson Crusoe' for a reading exercise, and connect with it the lessons in geography and arithmetic. It had been pointed out by

critics of this method that there is always danger of covering up the literary features of the reading matter under accessories of mathematics and natural science. If the material for other branches is to be sought for in connection with the literary exercise, it will distract the attention from the poetic unity. On the other hand, arithmetic and geography cannot be unfolded freely and comprehensively if they are to wait for the opportunities afforded in a poem or a novel, for their development. A correlation of this kind * * * * is a shallow and uninteresting kind of correlation, that reminds one of the system of mnemonics, or artificial memory, which neglects the association of facts and events with their causes and the history of their evolution, and looks for unessential quips, puns, or accidental suggestions with a view to strengthening the memory. The effect of this is to weaken the power of systematic thinking which deals with essential relations, and to substitute for it a chaotic memory that ties things together through false and seeming relations, not of the things and events, but of the words that denote them.

"The correlation of geography, and arithmetic, and history, in and through the unity of a work of fiction, is at best an artificial correlation, which will stand in the way of the true objective relation. It is a temporary scaffolding made for school purposes."

Farther on the report contains the following :

"The story of Robinson Crusoe has intense interest to the child as a lesson in sociology, showing him the helplessness of isolated man and the reinforcement that comes to him through society. It shows the importance of the division of labor. * * * * * * Consequently, the history of Robinson Crusoe is not a proper center for a year's study in school. It omits cities, governments, the world commerce, the international process, the church, the newspaper and book from view, and they are not even reflected in it."

62. Remarks upon the Foregoing Quotations.—The writer believes that the absurdity and uselessness of the method of correlation described and criticised in the foregoing quotations will be sufficiently obvious to every thoughtful teacher. It appears to be necessary, however, that some additional comments should be submitted.

In the first place, then, there seems to be little question that every subject of study should be taught as a distinct entity—as isolated and complete in itself—except in so far as matters belonging to other subjects are used to illustrate and emphasize its principles. These illustrations should, in general, bear a relation to the main subject similar to that in geometry between a

demonstrated proposition and a corollary to it. These correlation extremists have a notion that many branches can be successfully studied together, and that the law of association is thus utilized in the best possible manner. As well might one attempt to learn a half dozen trades at the same time. It is not meant that, when we study one subject, its relations to others must be carefully excluded from consideration ; it is intended only that side issues must not be permitted to cloud, and so to divert attention from the main subject as to destroy its unity.

And just here the writer may be permitted to remark that teachers especially should endeavor to see matters in proper proportion and with due reference to their relative importance. The world is full of enthusiasts on every subject, of people that have discovered the "much sought *kalon*." These people imagine that they can tell us how to do perfectly what the world has hitherto been able to do only indifferently well. They know an infallible remedy for every disease, and how to perfect every process or method. To them, everything that is, is cankered, and the world has been waiting and yearning for their arrival to set things right. There is something contagious about the enthusiasm of these evangelists of "fads," and teachers should not permit themselves to be deluded by trivial matters that have been exaggerated out of all proportion to other things. The teacher of music comes to imagine that, in our schools, his specialty is the main thing—that children are created principally in order that they may sing. Everything else should be subordinated to music. The man employed to supervise drawing, the teacher of physical training, of sewing, of cooking, of manual training, the instructors, in short, in the various other "educational fringes," as some one calls them, all labor under a similar hallucination. Their zeal in urging the claims of their several specialties has resulted in crowding into the curriculum of the schools many matters of slight educational value, to the neglect or exclusion of others that are really essential. They smile in a commiserating way when any teacher or educator ventures to protest. "Poor fellow, he is behind the times ; he forgets that the world is progressing in

educational science, even though he himself makes no advance." He has to bear the odium of being regarded as an apostle of the "three R's." The fact is that all these matters have educational value, but relatively to many others, their value is very slight, and not overshadowing, as their advocates actually believe. These subjects are like the quantities known in mathematics as *infinitesimals*, which denote real quantity indeed, but which, in comparison with finite quantity, may be regarded as zero and dropped out of consideration.

But this tendency to exaggerate the importance of the subject that one knows best, and can teach best, is general. The teacher that can teach languages best imagines that his specialty is of paramount value, and so on for the others. It would be difficult to overstate the importance of the teacher's having definite and correct views of comparative educational values. Having such views, he will know what amount of time and effort should be given to each branch, and he will preserve a wise conservatism with respect to the new matters that are constantly being urged for a place in the course of study.

63. Correlation of History with Geography.—As has been stated, it is not meant that correlated subjects are to be taught together and finished at the same time. It is intended only that certain facts belonging to one subject have an illustrative bearing upon another, and serve to emphasize it, and give broader and more significant views concerning it. These facts aid in discovering general laws. This is especially the case with physical and political geography as aids in the study of history. The settlement of countries, the development of colonies, the direction and rapidity of this development, the rise and fall of civilizations, the products of the earth and their exchange among nations; all these, and many other factors affecting the history of the world, are not fortuitous—the result of mere chance. They are determined more by the physical features of the earth than by any other influences. River basins, mountain systems affecting rainfall and climate, ocean currents and their accompanying air currents, elevations of surface, and innumerable other facts of physical geography

have dominated the history of the world to such an extent that they must be taken into account in any intelligible view of the progress of the race. All these must be noted in teaching history. For example, in the history of America, why are the great commercial centers just where they are? What gives Chicago, Philadelphia, Duluth, Mobile, New Orleans, Charleston, San Francisco, New York, and Boston their importance? Upon what do the fertility and climate of the Pacific states depend, and why are the states between the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada nearly rainless? Upon what does their prosperity largely depend? To what are owing the wealth and prosperity of the Mississippi Valley and the Atlantic Slope? Why were the original thirteen colonies all included between the ocean and the Appalachian System? What influence are railroads, and artificial waterways, and irrigation likely to have upon United States history? What advantages do we derive from our geographical isolation, and what are the chief arguments in favor of and against a policy of colonization? Such are some of the questions having a bearing upon the study of history. Political geography, too, throws a flood of light upon history. The thoughtful teacher, with these sidelights, can give unity, coherence, and interest to history to an extent that is possible in no other way. With their aid, laws and principles emerge from confusion and detail, and events take on a new and deep significance. History ceases to be a mass of unrelated facts and dates, and its determination by the laws of cause and effect—of necessary sequence not in time merely, but in every other important relation—becomes apparent.

64. Correlation of History with Sociology, and Political Science.—The term *sociology*, as the name of a science, is intended to include in its scope "the origin and history of human society and social phenomena, the progress of civilization, and the laws controlling human intercourse." Sociology is not to be regarded as mere history, but as a philosophical study of society. But considerations relating to men as forming society are so closely allied to those relating to men as organized politically and forming states, that

the teacher of history is not properly equipped for his work unless he is familiar with the data, the inductions, and the generalizations of sociology. The remarkable work on "Sociology," by Herbert Spencer, is indispensable to the teacher of history. It will bear reading many times. If, besides, the teacher has access to the same writer's monumental work on "Descriptive Sociology," the source from which Mr. Spencer largely gathered the material for his "Sociology," great advantage will be derived.

Equally close in correlation with history is political economy, or "that branch of civics that treats of the nature of wealth and the laws of its production and distribution, including all the causes of prosperity and the reverse. It discusses labor, wages, population, capital, money, rent, value, trade, and the relation of government to industry and economic conditions." With a knowledge of the principles and laws of political economy, which are themselves derived from human experience as revealed by history, the teacher can interpret for himself the causes and consequences of political action, and make them clear to his pupils. The principles that regulate good and bad political action, both in individuals and in nations, are but dimly seen without the guidance of political economy. Many excellent treatises on this subject are of easy access, but perhaps one of the best is Professor Laughlin's abridgment, with notes, of the work by John Stuart Mill.

Under the general science of civics is included the subject of international law and usage. This, with reference to questions arising in war, is, at this writing, of especial interest in the United States. Every teacher should be familiar with this subject, particularly if he is a teacher of history. President Woolsey's work, and that by George B. Davis, Judge Advocate of the United States Army, will be found interesting and instructive.

65. Correlation of History with Ethics.—Ethics, or "the science of human conduct considered with respect to rightness and wrongness," includes in its most general sense, the various branches of political and social science, civil, political, and international law and jurisprudence. In its application to

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history, it is intended to consider the moral quality of individual and national conduct which, next to cause and effect, is one of the most instructive aids in the teaching of history. Without it, action is divested of that which makes it distinctly human, nations and individuals act without conscience, and history engages only the intellect. "Was it right or was it wrong?" "What should he have done under the circumstances?" "Was the punishment in this case deserved?" "Did the nation act in this instance as an individual should have acted?" These, and innumerable questions like them should constantly be started with thoughtful pupils. Judiciously employed, they serve rather to emphasize than to destroy the unity of history. The teacher, therefore, should be acquainted with both theoretical and practical ethics, and should be skilful in applying its principles to the subject he teaches. Of the sources of information, no special mention need be made, for there are innumerable treatises readily available.

66. Conclusion.—It is hoped and believed that what the writer has herein set forth with much care, and which he has gleaned from many years of personal experience in the classroom, from many other years in supervising the work done by others, and from much reading both of writers of our own land and of France and Germany, will prove to be valuable to the student and spur him to higher ambition to excel. However this may be, one thing is certain : he that would succeed in the difficult and useful profession of teaching must himself earn success. He should form a habit of self-criticism, and aim to do, year after year, better work than ever before. He should not be willing to settle down into routine methods, always doing the same things in the same way. Some one has said that poets and teachers are made in heaven. Such aphorisms may, many of them, be relegated to the limbo of fancy. Shall we not rather say with Richelieu?—

> "In the lexicon of youth, which
> Fate reserves for a bright manhood, there is no such word
> As—*fail.*"

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