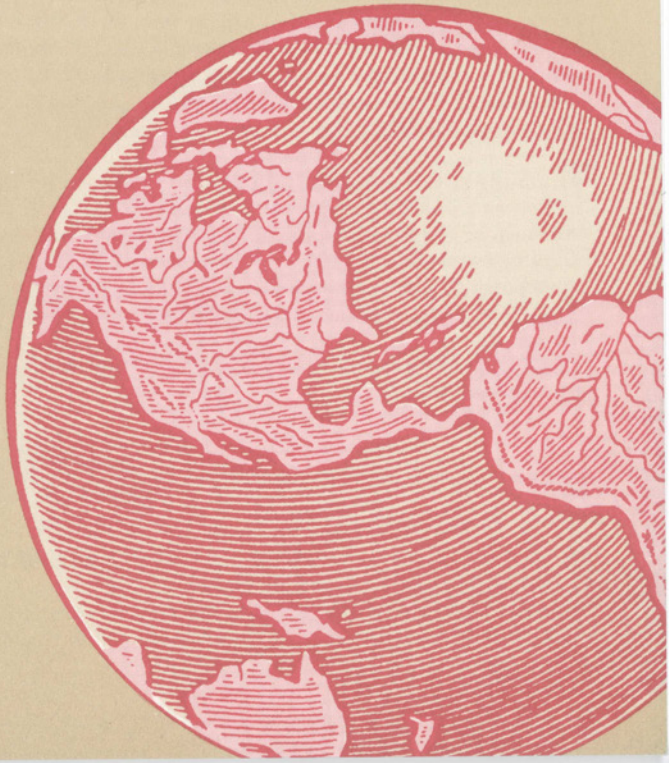
Volume 18 Number 2 • Fall 1993

TEACHING HISTORY

A Journal of Methods



TEACHING HISTORY
A JOURNAL OF METHODS

Teaching History: A Journal of Methods is published twice yearly in the Spring and Fall. *Teaching History* receives its chief financial support from the Division of Social Sciences and the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences of Emporia State University. It also receives support from the College of the Ozarks. Annual subscriptions in U.S. currency are $5.00 for individuals and $10.00 for libraries and institutions. Rates in Canadian currency are $6.00 and $12.00. All business communications, including subscriptions, should be sent to Sam Dicks, Campus Box 4032, ESU, Emporia, KS 66801-5087.

All correspondence in regard to contribution of manuscripts and editorial policies should be directed to Stephen Kneeshaw, Department of History, College of the Ozarks, Point Lookout, MO 65726-0017. All books for review and correspondence regarding book reviews should be sent to William Mugleston, Department of History, East Georgia College, 237 Thigpen Drive, Swainsboro, GA 30401-2699. Manuscripts of articles submitted for publication should be accompanied by self-addressed envelopes with return postage. Manuscripts should be typed double space with footnotes on separate sheets.

Teaching History: A Journal of Methods disclaims responsibility for statements either of fact or opinion, made by contributors.

ISSN 0730-1383

TEACHING HISTORY
A JOURNAL OF METHODS
Volume XVIII, Number 2, Fall, 1993

CONTENTS

REVIEWS

STATE OF THE STATE OF TEACHING PUBLIC HISTORY

Barbara J. Howe
West Virginia University

It has been almost fifteen years since the 1979 meeting in Montecito, California, that sparked the organization of the National Council on Public History (NCPH), an event that may be used to signal the birth of the "official" public history movement, so perhaps it is an appropriate time to reflect back on the nature of teaching public history over the years. That is not to say that no public history courses were taught before the late 1970s, for that is certainly not the case. Archival management programs and historical agency programs predate that time and produced many successful graduates. The earliest program of the 55 cited in *A Guide to Graduate Programs in Public History* (NCPH, 1990) dates from 1973, before the term "public history" was first used for the University of California-Santa Barbara program.[1] Beginning in the late 1970s, particularly at the University of California-Santa Barbara, more multi-purpose or generalist public history programs developed within academic history departments, almost always at public or large urban institutions with missions to serve taxpayers or local communities.

At least some of these came, in part, because a few people recognized that historians could and should be, indeed *had* long been, pursuing careers as historians in the National Park Service, National Archives, state historical societies, and other organizations. These historians were almost invisible to academic historians, though, unless, as did former National Park Service historian Dr. Heather Huyck, they wore their uniforms when attending AHA and OAH meetings. Students interested in pursuing public history careers, then, found it difficult to get advice on options available.

Another impetus to the creation of public history programs was the academic job crisis of the 1970s, which also helped spur the creation of the National Coordinating Committee for the Promotion of History. The job crisis came at a fortuitous time, in some ways, because the public's interest in history skyrocketed with the well-known *Roots* phenomenon and the celebration of the

The author wishes to thank Jeffrey Brown of New Mexico State University, Rebecca Conard of Wichita State University, Elizabeth Monroe of Indiana University-Purdue University at Indianapolis, Patricia Mooney-Melvin of Loyola University of Chicago, Constance Schulz of the University of South Carolina, and Ivan Steen of the State University of New York-Albany, all colleagues in the cause of public history, for their comments on an earlier version of this article.

---

[1] The NCPH guide cites the following dates for the origin of programs: 1973 - 3, 1974 - 1, 1975 - 3, 1976 - 1, 1977 - 1, 1978 - 4, 1979 - 2, 1980 - 6, 1981 - 3, 1982 - 3, 1983 - 3, 1984 - 2, 1985 - 6, 1986 - 4, 1987 - 2, 1988 - 2, 1989 - 3, 1990 - 2, n.d. - 3. The date given is the first introduction of course work, but, in a few cases, programs expanded or changed directions at a later date. Wichita State University's program is not listed in this catalogue, and West Georgia College is considering developing a program.

nation's bicentennial in 1976. Historic preservation, building on the 1966 National Historic Preservation Act, also entered a new phase in the 1970s, as increased federal regulations required agencies to identify and evaluate historic resources and federal income tax credits encouraged the rehabilitation of historic buildings into commercial space.

Departments that initiated public history programs in these years had to experiment to determine where public history fit into their traditional curriculum. How does one evaluate an internship? Do public history students need to study a foreign language or are other research tools more appropriate? Is the public historian the person to whom one sends all requests for service from the faculty, regardless of the individual's expertise? How does research based on faculty-student contracts for federal agencies factor into the promotion and tenure formula? Who will hire graduates of these programs? While every department has not yet answered all of these questions to its own satisfaction, there is now enough history to the teaching of public history, and enough tenured faculty doing this work, that new programs should no longer have to search as hard for answers.

Public history programs that have been successful have become integrated parts of their departments. Courses may come and go as interests and resources change, but at least some of the young public historians who started these programs are moving into the graying ranks of the senior faculty. Words like "non-teaching careers" or "non-academic careers" are disappearing from the profession as graduates have become established in their own careers. Networking now can entail contacting graduates to seek their help in placing new students.

Academic Level of Public History Programs

Most public history programs are at the master's level because students need a good knowledge base that comes from an undergraduate program. The undergraduate level is also the best place for students to take courses in other departments that will help to prepare them for a public history career, for graduate programs are usually limited in the number of hours students can take outside the history department. Students interested in museology or historic preservation, for example, benefit from courses in archaeology or geography, while geology would be an excellent science requirement for budding historic preservationists. Courses in the history of interior design or landscape architecture would benefit students working at historic sites or managing historic house museums. Students who wish to work in state or federal government offices could take political science courses in public policy. Basic accounting and management courses would help all students who expect to progress into the ranks of administrators, and most public historians end up with some of those responsibilities as they move through their careers. Good undergraduate advising, then, can help students decide if they want to pursue a career in public history and develop some of the knowledge that they will need to be effective members of the

interdisciplinary teams that are so important in public history. Undergraduate students can also learn valuable skills and test their areas of interest by volunteering for local historical agencies during the academic year or on summer vacation.

Public history programs, at whatever level, share a common goal of preparing students as historians who have the knowledge and skills to work in a public arena, such as an archives or library, government history office or state historical agency, state historic preservation office, historic site, or museum. Students may also choose to work for a contract history business or a historic preservation contract firm that may also include archaeologists or landscape architects, or they may choose to be independent contractors. Historians interested in environmental history, land use history, and public policy are well suited to address some of the major issues of the 1990s, such as toxic waste disposal, "Super Fund" clean-up projects, and the protection of open space. Arizona State University prepares some of its students to work in the field of book publishing, while two West Virginia University graduates have used their public history background to staff the research office of the university's fund-raising foundation. Others may find employment in both the public and private sectors, not always with the title of historian, but as policy analysts and policy makers who employ their knowledge of history, research, and historical thinking to considerable advantage. In addition to paid employment, public historians are excellent volunteer board members for historical societies, historic preservation organizations, and museums because they understand the language of those institutions and have access to national networks of colleagues for information.

Some history departments offer a minor doctoral field in public history, and it could be argued that few departments would have the resources to offer more than that. However, in *most* departments, and probably across the profession, the doctorate may still be too "sacred" a degree to "risk" what some might consider "tampering" by introducing public history. There are, however, many public historians with Ph.D.s, particularly in the high levels of administration at state historical agencies, archives, and federal history offices; students wishing to pursue public history careers in those areas would be well advised to consider getting a Ph.D. eventually, even if it is not an entry-level requirement as it is for an academic career. A public history M.A. background might also be valuable for historians planning to pursue traditional academic careers, for it will allow them to introduce their students to a variety of career options for historians, enliven their classes by assignments that incorporate public history or teach a public history class, and better provide professional service as they become involved in exhibit planning, consultation, or agency research. Likewise, students in traditional graduate programs can benefit from public history courses to broaden their perspectives on the profession.

Evaluating Public History Programs

The most important key to evaluating good public history programs is that public historians are, first and foremost, historians. They know how to seek out knowledge and develop a context for that knowledge in the traditional areas of the discipline and should be able to navigate the aisles of a library as well as any other historian. Public history students sit next to other graduate students in lecture and seminar classes, with the proportion of those classes varying by institution. American history courses seem to be most popular, but students who wish to work for international corporations should also be taking a broader range of courses.

Public historians are also historians who develop additional tools of their trade, such as a knowledge of federal policies for cultural resources management or the ability to process manuscript collections, to add to their research, writing, and analytical skills. Here, they often speak a different language than their traditionally trained colleagues, for words like "accession' and "deaccession," "National Register of Historic Places" and "CRM" (cultural resources management), "RFPs" (requests for proposals) and "cost sharing" are tossed around casually and, to the uninitiated, confusingly. Good public history programs, therefore, should offer their students at least a beginning course in understanding this specialized language of their preferred area of work, just as good general history programs provide students at least a beginning knowledge of the specialized tools of research needed in Asian or African history, if that is their area of expertise.

Public history programs vary widely, depending primarily on faculty strengths and available resources such as museums and archives. Faculty should have experience in the areas they will be teaching and should continue to be active in that area, for the practical side of public history education is based on experience more than "book learning," and legislation in a field like historic preservation can change far faster than a book can get it into print, with legal and financial consequences if the wrong information is conveyed to a federal official or building owner. The most common areas of emphasis, however, as documented in *A Guide to Graduate Programs in Public History*, compiled by the NCPH Publications Committee in 1990, are in agency administration (15), archives (34), editing and publishing (14), local and community history (24), museum studies (31), oral history (18), policy studies (11), and historic preservation/cultural resources management (29). Fewer programs exit in business (7), historical archaeology (4), living history (1), and nonprint media (3).

Special Components of Public History Education

Students in these programs learn to use more than the traditional manuscript collections, scholarly articles, and monographs that historians have long considered their stock-in-trade when doing research. Students in a museum studies

program use the museum collections to research a particular artifact or to develop an exhibit that uses artifacts to discuss daily life or military engagements. Monographs provide context for a political campaign. Artifacts such as posters, newsclips, and buttons, in a well planned exhibit, bring that campaign to life for far more people than are likely to ever read the monograph. Public history students also may use oral history far more extensively than other history students, for they are preparing for careers where they may be documenting history by preserving the memories of those who helped make policy in institutions like the U.S. Senate or documenting the history of a neighborhood by interviewing long-time residents and community activists. This kind of documentation, particularly at the local level, can help empower a community to preserve its own history and understand its place in the region or nation. Also, public history students interested in working in historic preservation or for local historical societies are well served by becoming as familiar with the resources in courthouse record rooms or historical society libraries as they are with those in an archives.

Some assignments in the 1989 *Public History Course Syllabus Packet* illustrate ways to blend historical research with public history methods of presentation. For example, Edward Berkowitz's course on social welfare history at George Washington University asked students to research and write "a short historical analysis of Reagan's workfare proposals and their effects on public policy" and to write on "the reserves controversy in old-age insurance and try to draw parallels between it and the modern controversy over social security financing." Philip Scarpino's "The Practice of Public History" course required students to complete a "mini-internship" for a client in the Indianapolis area, as well as write grant applications for two statewide funding agencies. Field trips and guest speakers, which are rarely part of traditional history courses, are also important in introducing students to public history opportunities and providing role models and contacts for students.

Some of these types of assignments can be introduced into other history courses at the undergraduate level. When teaching a U.S. history survey course once, I asked students to write their paper as a policy statement to President Reagan, explaining to him that one of the domestic or foreign policy issues in the news that semester had a history that he should know when making his decisions. *Thinking in Time*, by Richard Neustadt and Ernest May, is an excellent guide to this approach.[2] Students in my women's history class do oral histories with older women to learn how one "average" woman's life fits into the broad themes of the course and to learn that all sources historians use are not words on paper. I have also used slides of historic sites to discuss urban history or the history of the New Deal in a survey course and taken students in a West Virginia history course on a walking tour of downtown Morgantown to explain how the history of the

---

[2] Richard E. Neustadt and Ernest R. May, *Thinking in Time: The Uses of History for Decision Makers* (New York: Free Press, 1986).

community and state could be reflected in the buildings they saw everyday. These become both subtle and blatant ways to introduce to students the idea that historians can learn from and work at historic buildings or sites. Some departments may have mechanisms for students to do undergraduate internships or special projects.

Team research is also an important part of public history work and should, therefore, be part of a good public history program. Traditionally trained historians have few opportunities for collaborative research, but public history students must learn to integrate and value many perspectives on a project. Dr. Theodore Karamanski of Loyola University of Chicago, for example, had students in his "Management of Historic Resources" course participate in the *Survey of Maritime Cultural Resources on the Illinois Shore of Lake Michigan* as part of a contract between the Chicago Maritime Society and the Illinois Historic Preservation Agency. My "Introduction to Public History" course each year includes a class project that requires the 12 to 15 students to design a product that meets the needs of our client, research the material needed, and write up their part of the project; clients have been as diverse as the Women's Centenary Project of West Virginia University, the local Easter Seals Society, and Main Street Morgantown, a downtown revitalization group.

Almost all public history programs have some type of internship requirement, while about one-half also require a master's thesis. Internships provide students an opportunity to apply their classroom experiences under the supervision of a professional. They should also allow students to produce a substantial product that is valuable to both the student as a learning experience and to the sponsoring institution to justify the supervision that the intern needs.

Professional ethics and professionalism in general is one common theme that appears in public history courses on a regular basis but probably rarely in traditional history courses. Public historians recognize, more than do academic historians, that they can face issues of professional ethics in dealing with supervisors, employees, or the public. In many ways, these are the same types of issues that academic historians face in determining what they will publish or teach, for they do not operate in isolation from demands of administrators, students, or publishers either, but public history courses provide a forum for discussing these issues.[3]

Public History Academic Programs and the Historical Profession(s)

Public history programs must be tied into a wider range of networks than the American Historical Association, Organization of American Historians, or

---

[3] For more on the area of ethics, see Theodore J. Karamanski, ed., *Ethics and Public History: An Anthology* (Malabar, FL: Robert E. Krieger Publishing Co., 1990).

similar groups provide. These should be both regional and statewide, as well as national. Public historians in the academy, for instance, are likely to be active in their statewide historic preservation or museums associations because those organizations attract the professionals whom they will need to know to arrange internships or to make contacts for job placement.

This is particularly important because public history programs that include archival training or historic preservation must address the pressures of accreditation or standards that the American Association of Museums (AAM), Society of American Archivists (SAA), and National Council on Preservation Education (NCPE) have introduced. The American Association of Museums published its "Criteria for Examining Professional Museum Studies Programs" in 1983. The Society of American Archivists approved its second set of "Guidelines for Graduate Archival Education Programs" in 1988. NCPE's revised "Standards for Graduate Education in Historic Preservation" were issued in 1992, and similar standards for undergraduate programs are expected soon. Formal accreditation is an issue very familiar to our colleagues in business or engineering, or even in psychology if one looks at Colleges of Arts and Sciences, but it will likely only enter academic history departments through their public history programs as the SAA and NCPE suggest the number and types of courses students should have. The National Council on Public History has also discussed professional standards for programs, and additional information on this issue is available from NCPH. Accreditation, however, usually requires dollars to support a site visit and to make any recommended additions to the curriculum or library holdings. In these days of tight funding for higher education, that may be difficult to accomplish.

The National Council on Public History provides a forum for public historians to meet and share ideas, just as the Society of American Archivists, American Association of Museums, National Trust for Historic Preservation, and American Association for State and Local History have long provided places where those interested in archives, museology, historic preservation, and state and local history, respectively, could gather. The NCPH is unique, though, not in its ability to draw together practitioners, academics, and students, but in its attempt to attract *all* those interested in public history in its myriad forms. This has been particularly important for the teaching of public history for NCPH conferences have been a continuing source of new ideas and camaraderie. The NCPH Curriculum and Training Committee, for example, organized a post-conference meeting for public history program directors at the April 1993 conference in Valley Forge, Pennsylvania, that allowed directors to examine issues such as accreditation, helping students find employment, and evolving curricula.[4]

---

[4] For more information about public history programs, *A Guide to Graduate Programs in Public History* is available through the NCPH at 327 Cavanaugh Hall, Indiana University-Purdue University at Indianapolis, 425 University Blvd., Indianapolis, IN 46202-5140. NCPH also has available the AHA-NCPH sponsored *Careers for Students of History*, which provides a bibliography for further information, and a 33-minute video entitled "Public History Today," which features historians working for the

Teaching public history is challenging and fun. You can see the "lightbulbs go on" when students view "Public History Today" and exclaim, as one of mine did on the first day of the "Introduction to Public History" course, "I never knew historians could do all that!" Students like the idea of doing something with their knowledge of history other than writing book reviews and term papers. Good public history programs should provide them with opportunities to create a beginning resumé for their job search and help prepare them for that all-important job search as well as for future graduate study. Students should also know, as should faculty, that continuing education is as important as formal public history education at the graduate level. Workshops sponsored by the National Park Service for its employees or by professional groups like the Society of American Archivists, as well as national, statewide, and local professional meetings all help public historians, including public history faculty, stay current in their knowledge.

Even if they never teach a course in public history or attend such a meeting, however, all faculty, at whatever level they may teach, can at least introduce students to the idea that historians are engaged in a wide variety of activities, where their teaching may be to school children in a museum program or their research in a government office. That would be the best service that we could offer to our future colleagues during their years in our classes.

National Park Service, a large urban historical society, and a contract history firm specializing in land-use issues. NCPH's Committee on Professional Standards published its *Analysis of the 1990-91 Survey of Academic Programs in Public History* in 1992, and copies are available for $10.00 through the Middle Tennessee State University Center for Historic Preservation. Charts documenting careers in information science, business, and other areas are available through the National Center for the Study of History, RR #1, Box 679, Cornish, Maine 04020-9726. Newsletters and journals from groups such as NCPH, the Society for History in the Federal Government, the American Association for State and Local History (AASLH), the American Association of Museums, the National Trust for Historic Preservation, and the Society of American Archivists should be available at major libraries. AASLH publishes a directory of historical societies and organizations in the United States and Canada. At least browsing through these publications provides an easy way to begin to understand the issues facing these organizations and the opportunities they provide.

MAKING HISTORY COME ALIVE: DRAMATIZATION IN THE CLASSROOM

Frederick D. Drake
Illinois State University

Denee Corbin
Purdue University

Rationale for Dramatization

People of all ages love a story that involves heroes and villains. They particularly like to observe characters confronted with difficult choices and personal decisions over issues with relevance to their lives. That is why biography is popular with students of all ages. It provides a personalized account of the past through the humanized perspective of a single historical figure. Even more engaging is a live dramatization, especially for students. It enlivens history by making the dead past come alive.[1]

In presenting the life and times of people and events through dramatization, a teacher can bridge the gap in the battle between the "old" and "new" history.[2] We believe a teacher should emphasize both political *and* social history, allowing students to pose questions to historical figures addressing the full realm of historical conditions.

Under the format of dramatization that emphasizes a dialogue between historical figures and the audience, students have an opportunity to interact with past figures. It is important for students to develop history's "habits of the mind" such as "historical empathy" and an understanding that "time and place vary."[3] There is a multitude of men and women, both famous and obscure, who are stimulating figures to portray. Their simulation provides an opportunity for students to have an experience that makes historical figures seem real and come alive.

---

[1] For example, see Randolph B. Campbell, "History Through Biography; A Review Essay," *Teaching History*, 4 (Spring, 1979), 31-34; Robert S. Feldman, "Historical Role Playing: An Alternative Teaching Strategy," *TH*, 5 (Spring, 1980), 66-74; and Pauline Ucci Dyson, "Dramatizing History With a Victorian Tea," *TH*, 11 (Fall, 1986), 71-76.

[2] In a 1989 American Historical Association publication, proponents of social history and the traditional political, diplomatic, and intellectual history articulated their positions. For example, see Gertrude Himmelfarb, "Some Reflections on the New History," *AHR*, 94 (June 1989), 661-670, and Joan Wallach Scott, "History in Crisis? The Others' Side of the Story" *AHR*, 94 (June 1989), 680-692.

[3] From The Bradley Commission on History in the Schools, *Building A History Curriculum: Guidelines For Teaching History In Schools* (Westlake, OH: National Council for History Education, 1988), 9.

Dramatization is a valuable teaching strategy. It elicits emotions and causes students to take sides, invest their feelings, and become more involved with the past. The teacher in costume sets the stage for historical investigation. By using drama, teachers are allowed to step outside themselves and into an historical figure's situation in a way that may be more acceptable and understandable to students. The teacher who uses drama in the classroom can model actions and behaviors of particular people who adapted to social and political conditions and caused change in their own lives and in society. Through drama the teacher is able to present a societal issue from a variety of perspectives. The inclusion of emotions and other details allows students to practice conflict resolution, problem-solving, and gives them the opportunity to apply their knowledge. Drama helps students consider values and practice decision-making.

Teachers of elementary, secondary, and college levels might raise questions about dramatization as a method of instruction. Is dramatization a dignified method of instruction that should be seriously considered? How will students react to their teacher who is in costume or armed with props? Will students become involved or is dramatization just another form of lecture? Will students merely be a passive audience, wanting only to be entertained—as if watching television? What will be the result for students once the dramatization has occurred?

A study by Goodlad and others found that eighth-grade students believe history and social studies are boring and constitute the least relevant subject area in the curriculum.[4] Sadly, some college students tend to agree. What is missing for the student? Description? Dialogue? Emotion? Realism? A human quality? All of these things are often missing in written or lecture-type presentations about people and events distant in time and place.

We believe a first-hand experience will enhance student attitudes as well as encourage the learning and retention of history. This means someone from a distant time or place can describe, create emotion, and explain a point of view. This increases the likelihood of bringing a distant time and place into the realm of the students' world. Using drama can create the opportunity for varied learning experiences. Students begin to see that history is about people no matter what the time, place, or cultural setting. They begin to see themselves as part of the ongoing process of history.

You as a character of the historical past might be asked questions never asked of you before as a teacher. For example, a figure of the early national period could have experienced malaria. Given the contemporary concern about HIV, students might ask, "Were you as afraid of malaria as we are of AIDS?" Such a question is evidence of the drawing of historical parallels.

Dramatization provides a unique opportunity for the student, at any grade level, to witness first-hand the struggle and contradictions of a specific historical

---

[4] John I. Goodlad, *A Place Called School* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1984), 210-213.

figure, distant in time and space. Above all, it helps the student understand why beliefs (such as owning slaves, deciding about secession from the Union, and leading armies in the Crusades) were held and decisions made within an historical context. The teacher, however, must deal with a believability gap. Otherwise, students may feel uncomfortable about their teacher acting like another person. Thus, the teacher must prepare the students for the experience of dramatization.

The purpose of this paper is twofold. We will make general suggestions as to how teachers can prepare and present a historical figure to their class and how students can be guided through the same process and then we will offer some specific suggestions for one of our most successful dramatizations.

Procedures

The first thing a teacher must do is identify instructional objectives. The teacher should choose a figure, actual (such as James Madison) or a composite (such as an Irish immigrant), who will address these issues in a dramatic fashion. Because dramatization can promote a myriad of questions and encourage interaction between students and the historical figure, the teacher must have a firm grasp of the era and the perspective of the personality presented. This of course requires research and preparation.

We suggest the following procedures for teacher preparation. Scholarly biographies provide themes about the figure's life. They provide insight into academic discourse relative to conflicts and decisions an historical figure has made. Once a teacher has become familiar with the perspectives of the figure, the teacher may consult other sources. These might even include children's biographies as they often include facets of the figure's childhood otherwise overlooked. Moreover, children's biographies address issues with which younger students can identify. Similarly, biographical sketches from popular magazines such as *American Heritage* often provide interesting vignettes as a resource for teachers. Primary sources such as letters, diaries, financial ledgers, and family documents offer an opportunity to personalize the historic figure.

Instead of creating a script to be memorized, record and categorize information into themes, periods of the person's life, and turning points that affected the individual. Becoming familiar with the recorded information (which reflects your original instructional objectives) helps you to portray a more natural and believable person. Rather than presenting a lecture, tell the figure's life story.

Student Involvement

For this to be a valuable learning experience, it is necessary for students to interact with the figure throughout the presentation. Therefore, remaining in character is essential for successful dramatization. A simple prop or costume

(which does not need to be expensive or elaborate) will help focus the students' attention onto a particular time and place of the portrayal. This will also help you remain in character.

Success is limited without the participation of students. Students should be familiar with a descriptive history of the time period so they can relate how the historic figure reacted to the events. Preparing students to listen and watch for specific ideas and feelings in the presentation can enable students to identify the perspectives, biases, and personal conflicts.

A teacher may make this a one-way presentation. We believe it is better for a discourse to take place between students and the historic figure. To encourage such discourse, we have found success in the following activities: (1) conduct the presentation in a press conference format with students as members of the press; (2) "seed" the class, if necessary, with prepared questions to encourage spontaneous inquiry; (3) have students write a response to the character from the perspective of a friend, opponent, or news reporter; (4) have students research and role-play a character who would have known the historic figure and present their portrayal to the class; (5) have students research the same event and role-play individuals who disagreed with the original figure; (6) have students study prepared materials about the figure and critique the teacher's presentation regarding content accuracy that might include anachronisms and historical context; and (7) use student portrayal as authentic assessment.

Students who will role-play must go through the same process as the teacher. For students to portray an historical figure, they too must "do history." Students must find out about the individual they will portray through primary and secondary sources in order to create the whole person. They must assume the perspective of the person they are role-playing so they can respond to the people and events of the time. Students must put themselves in "someone else's shoes" as they role-play. It should be clear to students that emphasis is on the historical context rather than acting talents.

Dramatizing the Lives of James and Dolley Madison

During the late 1980s, with the United States celebrating the bicentennial of the writing of the Constitution, the *Federalist* essays, and the Bill of Rights, we found it an opportune time to dramatize James and Dolley Madison for students as well as civic groups. The Madisons provided ideal characters to use dramatization as a means of exploring both the political and social history of the Early National era.[5]

---

[5] In 1986 the authors received James Madison Fellowships from Project '87. Besides using dramatization in their own classes at the elementary, middle, secondary, and university levels, they have presented approximately 200 dramatizations of James and Dolley Madison to students and civic groups in the Great Lakes region, Texas, Washington, D.C., and Pennsylvania.

As a Virginia leader, James Madison articulated the advantages of an "extended republic" in speeches at the Constitutional Convention and in the *Federalist* essays.[6] Madison was a political philosopher and practical politician whose ideas are meaningful for students today. His role at the Grand Convention in Philadelphia went beyond the desire to create a stronger central government. Madison was a proponent and defender of human civil liberties. Above all, he wanted to protect the rights and liberties of individuals within a civil society.[7] Most students are unaware of this great contribution.

Later, during the First Congress, Madison fought to protect rights and liberties and maintain the structure of the Constitution. In the summer of 1789, Antifederalists were determined to alter the "great work" of the Constitution. Madison, however, withstood Antifederalist plans. The Virginia representative proposed the Bill of Rights, which he had been against at the Constitutional Convention. It was Madison's Bill of Rights that emerged from Congress in 1789. What students do not know is that Madison was verbally assaulted during the First Congress by the same people who had called for a Bill of Rights during the ratification of the Constitution.[8]

Whether working at the Constitutional Convention, securing a Bill of Rights, challenging Alexander Hamilton's model of the federal government in the 1790s, or serving as chief executive in the War of 1812, the fixed star in Madison's vision of the United States was ordered liberty—the securing of rights and liberties of the individual. At times in his political career, Madison would turn to the national government to protect rights and liberties. At other times, he would turn to state governments for the protection of peoples' rights.

To explore only the political life of Mr. Madison, however, would result in a limited image of the fourth president. His personal story—especially his relationship with his wife Dolley—also reflects the social setting of the time and provides opportunities for viewing the various facets of President and Mrs. Madison's characters.

---

[6] Madison spoke of an extended republic in letters and papers. For a specific reference, see James Madison, *Notes of Debates in the Federal Convention of 1787* (Athens: Ohio University Press, 1966), 75-77 and James Madison, "Federalist No. 10" (New York: The Modern Library, 1937), 53-62.

[7] In presidential addresses to the Organization of American Historians and the American Historical Association, Carl N. Degler has suggested that a central idea of history and history instruction be "national identity." Degler encouraged historians and teachers to focus on the question: "What does it mean to be an American, that is, a citizen of the United States?" For Degler's addresses see Carl N. Degler, "Remaking American History," *The Journal of American History*, 67 (June 1980), 7-25, and Carl N. Degler, "In Pursuit of an American History" *AHR*, 92 (February 1987), 1-12. We believe that portrayal of James and Dolley Madison helps address this issue of a national identity, particularly as an issue of majority rule-minority rights.

[8] *The Debates and Proceedings in the Congress of the United States*, Vol. I (Washington: Gales and Seaton, 1834), 424-449; 659-659; 703-761.

Dolley Madison took no active part in political matters, but James kept her informed of developments. She admired him so much that her attitude was simple: Whatever he believed was right. Whatever his endeavors she would support his efforts. Dolley established new trends as the wife of a public official. She attended functions to hear her husband's speeches. She accompanied James to Washington, D.C. though most political wives did not live there regularly because of the primitive conditions in the new capital. During the War of 1812, Dolley, as First Lady, thought it unseemly to continue with the regular social calendar. She made it fashionable for ladies to sit in the gallery of the House of Representatives when Henry Clay spoke or to hear Attorney General William Pinkney argue a case before the Supreme Court.

Dolley, however, did not think of herself as being involved in politics. She wrote her sister, "Politics is the business of men. I don't care what offices they hold or who supports them. I care only about people."[9] Although she felt politics was "the business of men," Dolley's support of her husband contributed to his political career. Her Wednesday afternoon drawing room receptions, to which she invited both dignitaries and ordinary folk, made her husband's administration more accessible. When Madison's arthritis prevented him from writing in the 1830s, he dictated and Dolley copied "Advice to My Country."

Dramatizing James and Dolley Madison has given us the opportunity to pursue several teaching goals whether in the setting of a third grade through twelfth grade class, a college survey course, or an auditorium with 400 to 500 people who seek to learn more about the Constitution, *Federalist* essays, the Bill of Rights, and other basic writings or events in the early national period.

There are as many as seven goals we have attempted to achieve during a dramatization which have application beyond dramatizing the Madisons specifically. We dramatize the Madisons to 1) introduce an audience to the ideas of government James Madison developed and expressed; 2) introduce an audience to the social and economic setting during the life of the Madisons; 3) acquaint the audience with other delegates who participated at the Constitutional Convention and provide a summary of their respective ideas and contributions; 4) describe for the audience the interpersonal relationships of James and Dolley Madison; 5) help an audience comprehend the role of James Madison at the Constitutional Convention and the First Congress to secure a Bill of Rights; 6) help an audience understand the positions of the Federalists and Antifederalists regarding the ratification of the Constitution and their philosophy of government; and 7) help an audience comprehend Madison's idea on majority rule and minority rights, the rule of law, and a republican government.

Audience participation in a dialogue with James and Dolley is one way to achieve our several instructional goals. An audience that asks questions of the

---

[9] Letter of February 26, 1808. Reproduced from the Collections of the Manuscript Division. Library of Congress.

Madisons tends to enjoy the presentation more and gains more insight about the writing of the Constitution, *Federalist* essays, and the Bill of Rights, and about political maneuverings in the Early National period. Because each audience, whether students or members of civic groups, differs in knowledge and personality, audience involvement also varies.

To capitalize on audience involvement we generally utilize a press conference format. This technique helps us dramatize and present the life, times, and ideas of the Madisons and the triumphs and tragedies they faced. Dolley "sets the scene" by informally chatting with the audience; her informality is followed by a formal statement by James. Upon completion of President Madison's formal presentation, approximately ten minutes in length, the audience and the Madisons engage in a press conference. Many questions are "planted" in advance to random members of the audience. The following are sample "planted" questions:

> You have been called the "Father of the Constitution." When did you first receive this distinction and do you think it is deserved?
>
> You are known for taking notes at the Constitutional Convention. Did other delegates take notes and were they as precise in their notetaking?
>
> Thomas Jefferson is considered one of the great Founding Fathers of our nation. Is it not true that Mr. Jefferson was your "mentor" and that you were merely mimicking this great man?
>
> Mr. Madison, other than Dolley, were there any other women in your life?
>
> Mrs. Madison, how did you react to political events of the day such as the Bill of Rights, the Whiskey Rebellion, and the War of 1812?
>
> Mrs. Madison, how did you try to help your husband's political career? Is it true you protected him at social occasions?
>
> Mrs. Madison, would Mr. Madison have been as successful without you?
>
> What were your greatest successes at the Grand Convention? What were your greatest disappointments?
>
> Why was a Bill of Rights not part of the Constitution submitted for ratification?

Do you believe Thomas Jefferson helped or hindered ratification of the Constitution?

What was your position regarding a Bill of Rights? Were you a reluctant architect of the Bill of Rights?

What satisfactions and disappointments did you experience in proposing a Bill of Rights?

Do you think most Americans of the 1790s really cared about their rights?

What do you think of American citizens today? In what ways are you proud of the American character? Are there disturbing characteristics?

Other than the first question, there is no required order or sequence for the audience to ask questions. By "seeding" the audience with prepared questions a dialogue is usually assured and more often than not other questions are asked by members of the audience—some who do not realize that a "seeding" has taken place! In fact, the press conference, which may last as long as one hour (depending on the class), produces spontaneity and an interaction that is difficult to achieve via traditional expository teaching strategies. In most instances, nearly one-half of the press conference questions from the audience are questions we do *not* "plant."

With adult groups and older students we usually provide all of the sample questions and a few additional questions. Adults enjoy the opportunity to engage a figure from the past in conversation relative to the struggles and anxieties of founding a government that has power and yet protects people's liberties. With high school students we focus on the analysis of political ideas. In dramatization with middle school students our intent is to provide a narrative of the Madisons' lives and James Madison's role in writing the Constitution and the Bill of Rights. With elementary students we do not provide any questions. Young students are interested in the lives of James and Dolley Madison, their family members, and their experiences with friends. They, like older audiences, want to know about life at Montpelier, what the Madisons did when growing up, and about their marriage. Young students in particular, are not inhibited to ask questions regarding James and Dolley's early life—and even their death. The dialogue between the Madisons and an audience provides an opportunity for participants, whether young or old, to experience first-hand the historical concept of understanding the decisions and beliefs of individuals in the context of their own time.

Summary

In her *Teacher's Handbook*, Hilda Taba spoke of the importance of history and social studies education when she said we wish to produce individuals who 1) have a certain kind of knowledge; 2) can process information; 3) have a genuine sense of participation; 4) have a capacity to put themselves in other peoples' or nations' shoes; 5) have a capacity to transcend their own ethnocentric skin; 6) can keep on learning; 7) can face change without trauma; 8) can handle international situations objectively; 9) have loyalties; and 10) have a sense of the complexity of global issues.[10]

The use of drama can certainly contribute to the attainment of each of the above goals and can enhance a student's understanding of historical mindedness.

---

[10] Hilda Taba, *A Teacher's Handbook to Elementary Social Studies: An Inductive Approach* (Palo Alto: Addison-Wesley, 1971), 13.

THE RETURN OF MARTIN GUERRE, TEACHING HISTORY IN IMAGES, HISTORY IN WORDS

Richard A. Voeltz
Cameron University

The Return of Martin Guerre received rave reviews from historians and history teachers when it was first released in this country in 1983. The distinguished Princeton University historian Natalie Zemon Davis had acted as historical consultant to the producers of the film while at the same time researching and writing her book, *The Return of Martin Guerre* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1983). Critics and historians especially praised the film for its sensitive renderings of daily life in sixteenth-century France, of the *mentalité* of the period, i.e., how people actually view their world. Therefore, if for no other reason, the film is a significant learning resource for students of history from secondary to upper-level college courses.[1] By acquainting students with the concept of *mentalités*, in this instance common reference points and symbols of an historical era, the entire concept of periodization in history, with its inherent artificiality, becomes a subject of suspicion to inquiring minds. And no era in history needs further reconsideration in terms of periodization than the Renaissance and Reformation.

An historical period is traditionally marked at the beginning and end by political, military, and intellectual events, but Renaissance may not be a proper term for a distinct era. Charles Homer Haskins wrote that everything that prevailed in the fifteenth century in Florence existed in the twelfth century in Paris, as opposed to Jacob Burckhardt's assertion that a sudden "shaft of light" destroyed the old, common ways of thinking.[2] Burckhardt reenforced a powerful, persistent image of the Middle Ages as an age of the untutored, and the irrational, of witches and burning stakes, of the Black Death, and of demons and hobgoblins ready to pounce on the ungodly. Burckhardt claimed that with the beginning of the Renaissance, all was light, and the great fermentation of unreason was finally conquered—an image that dies hard. Just witness the theme of a conference recently held at Cameron University in Lawton, Oklahoma, "The Year of the Renaissance—The Resurgeance of Learning." Wallace K. Ferguson attempted to referee the dispute by declaring the age a "period of transition," while Joan Kelly-

---

[1] For a discussion of the use of the film in an advanced placement European history course see, Patricia J. F. Rosof, "*Mentalité* in the Advanced Placement Curriculum," AHA *Perspectives*, 30 (March 1992), 18, 20-21. My own experience using the film and book took place in an upper-division Renaissance and Reformation course taught at Cameron University, Spring 1990, and I would like to give special thanks to the students in that class.

[2] Charles Homer Haskins, *The Renaissance of the Twelfth Century* (1928, 1970), is still a classic. Jacob Burckhardt, *The Civilization of the Renaissance in Italy* still remains the last word on the concept of the Renaissance as being a time of great individuality, and of the Renaissance as a rebirth, but the perspective of the work is nineteenth-century.

Gadol questioned whether the term Renaissance, in its traditional meaning, applied in any way to women.[3] But thinking in terms of *mentalité* forces students to confront the problem of periodization in history. The period of the Renaissance and Reformation may only be understandable if it is recast in terms of a set of shared assumptions by the people of early modern Europe—and we cannot understand that society until we understand these assumptions, or to paraphrase Robert Darnton, until we "get the joke."[4]

After the teacher introduces Renaissance art, both early and high, Petrarch, Lorenzo Valla, Castiglione, Pico della Mirandola, Machiavelli, and Leonardo de Vinci, the film *The Return of Martin Guerre* presents students with visual images of marriage, birth, death, agriculture, family structure, sexuality, consummated marriage, unconsummated marriage, *charivari*, missing husbands, returned husbands, fraudulent husbands, ideas of land ownership and loyalty, gender roles, village relationships, illiteracy, and the workings of the French legal system in the sixteenth century. For students in the 1990s who assume that the only *mentalité* that ever existed is the one they now share, such a materially and spiritually different world can come as a shock—and a much needed, healthy shock to one's cherished assumptions about how the world should be viewed.[5]

Thus, the film and the book can introduce students to the concept of *mentalité*. But the real purpose behind this paper is to go beyond this concept, and even beyond the debate about historical authenticity and what *Martin Guerre*—film and book—does or does not reveal about early modern culture,[6] and to impress upon history students the idea that there may be more than one historical reality, and that truths conveyed in visual form may be different from truths conveyed in words. A very successful strategy for attaining this goal is to have students read Davis's book before they view the film. This should challenge them to think about the differences and similarities in the presentation of the story.

---

[3] W. K. Ferguson, *The Renaissance in Historical Thought*, (Boston, 1948); Joan Kelly-Gadol, "Did Women Have a Renaissance?" in Renate Bridenthal, Claudia Koonz, and Susan Stuard, *Becoming Visible, Women in European History* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1987), 175-201.

[4] Robert Darnton, *The Great Cat Massacre* (New York: Basic Books, 1984), 5.

[5] The actual story of Martin Guerre upon which both film and book are based should by now be very familiar to anyone interested in early modern Europe so I shall not repeat it in the text. Most of the information concerning the case comes from a book, *Arrest memorable du Parlement de Toulouse*, written by Jean Coras, the judge who presided over the dramatic trial.

[6] If one wants to develop further the notion of historical authenticity and the Martin Guerre story, see Natalie Zemon Davis, "Any Resemblance to Persons Living or Dead: Film and the Challenge of Authenticity," *Yale Review*, 76 (Fall, 1987), 457-482. In a lively exchange in the *AHR* Robert Finley accuses Davis of "refashioning" the story of Martin Guerre by using interpretation to stray from the facts, and Davis then responds. See Robert Finley, "The Refashioning of Martin Guerre," and Natalie Zemon Davis, *The Return of Martin Guerre*, "On the Lame," *AHR*, 93 (June 1988), 553-571, 572-603. For the use of these articles in teaching critical thinking, see Phylis A. Hall "Teaching Analytical Thinking through the 'AHA Forum' and the *Return of Martin Guerre*," *Perspectives* (January, 1990), 14-16.

The instructor will find many useful ideas in John E. O'Connor, *Image as Artifact Video Compilation* (1988), which includes segments of *The Return of Martin Guerre* as the first of thirteen video selections. Designed to serve as a full course in making history students visually literate, the individual selections can be incorporated into appropriate courses. The accompanying *Guide to the Image as Artifact* contains a number of documents, interviews (including one with Natalie Davis), and recordings that support each selection. Also included are questions for discussion with hints on how to develop them, a sequence-by-sequence outline of the film, and then points for discussion based upon the sequence-by-sequence outline. Although more expensive, the laserdisk option offers the instructor much more flexibility and convenience than the VHS format. Of course, an instructor can develop individual strategies for getting the students to think about the differences between the book and the film, but *Image as Artifact* does a superb job in providing questions and hints for development.

What becomes apparent to most students is that the book presents characters as having more complexity. Bertrande de Rols is portrayed as much more independent in the book. Martin appears more sympathetic because of his youth and the fact that as a Basque he is an outsider in the village. Arnaud du Tilh, the imposter, is dealt with more critically in the book than the film, where the actor Gerard Depardieu literally charms the viewing audience with his performance. The visual media in general has difficulty presenting the complexity of personality, but film does provide vivid physical descriptions that far outshine any printed word image. Davis herself felt that working with visual media made her think differently about the past. According to O'Connor, "Davis comments in her interview that in researching the *mis-en-scène* (decisions about costumes, props, and dialogue) for the film, and in thinking about the ways characters would have reacted to one another, she was led to ask questions that had never occurred to her before as a historian."[7] In the O'Connor guide instructors are urged to question their students about "historical truth," and whether the book is mightier, or more accurate, than the visual. Maybe factual details from the past can be proven or disproven. So what? History is not the past, it is not the sum total of all these details. Rather history is an interpretation of the past: "Therefore, whether in print or in film, history—the interpretation of the past—can only be said to be true to the interpreter. There is always room for another interpretation, another view that is true to some other perspective."[8]

Having now thrown them into the icy pool of historical relativism, I presented my students the follow-up assignment of reading Robert Rosenstone's provocative essay "History in Images/History in Words, Reflections on the

---

[7] John D. O'Connor, *Guide to the Image as Artifact Video Compilation* (Washington, D.C.: American Historical Association, 1988), 1-10.

[8] *Ibid.*

Possibility of Really Putting History onto Film."[9] Here Rosenstone raises a troubling thought for traditional historians: "To think of the ever-growing power of the visual media is to raise the disturbing thought that perhaps history is dead in the way God is dead. Or, at the most, alive only to believers—that is, to those of us, who pursue it as a profession."[10] The number of "Biovids" or pop histories abound and are made universally available to everyone. While committing great "sins" against history, these pop histories (lives of Napoleon, Peter the Great, Mussolini, Sam Houston, Theodore Roosevelt, Gandhi, the *Winds of War*, *War and Remembrance*, and recently *The Chronicles of the Young Indiana Jones*) may well become the accepted "truths" for generations of kids who will never learn anything else about these subjects. Television "docudramas" and, now most provocatively, Oliver Stone's *JFK* all blend fact and fiction into heady brews whose potency has historians deeply concerned, or maybe just jealous. "Filmmakers make myths," Stone says without apology about his film *JFK*. And as David M. Kennedy, Professor of History at Stanford University whimsically noted in a recent editorial:

> "Here we go again," they complain. Once more, the ramparts of historical accuracy will have to be defended against the slings and arrows of fabulists. Once more, the canons of scholarship will be invoked against the licentious romancers. Once more, like so many stiff-necked Savanarolas haranguing the Florentine mob, the guardians of historical truth must flourish the knout over the gullible, heresy-prone American public.[11]

But Rosenstone is not so quick to dismiss visual history as some sort of pernicious fusing of myth and history. Indeed, written narratives are "verbal fiction," so visual narratives will be "visual fictions"—"that is, not mirrors of the past but representations of it." He continues, "This is not to argue that history and fiction are the same thing or to excuse the kind of outright fabrication that marks Hollywood historical features. History on film must be held accountable to certain standards, but these standards must be consonant with the possibilities of the medium. It is impossible to judge history on film solely by the standards of written history, for each medium has its own kind of necessarily fictive element."[12]

---

[9] Robert Rosenstone, "History in Images/History in Words: Reflections on the Possibility of Really Putting History onto Film," *AHR* 93 (December 1988), 1173-1185.

[10] *Ibid.*, 1175.

[11] David M. Kennedy, "Kennedy Assassination: Bonding a Generation," *Los Angeles Times*, December 22, 1991.

[12] Rosenstone, 1181. For those interested in pursuing further the controversy surrounding Oliver Stone's film *JFK*, see the *AHR*, 97, (April 1992), where the "*AHR* Forum" features articles by Robert Rosenstone, "*JFK*: Historical Fact/Historical Film," Marcus Raskin, "*JFK* and the Culture of Violence," and Michael Rogin, "*JFK*: The Movie."

Rosenstone sees tremendous potential for films to recapture the power that narrative history once had. He calls for a "shift in perspective . . . to represent the world in images and words rather than in words alone, to touch history."[13] Or as Natalie Zemon Davis put it, to create the "pastness of the past."[14] For Rosenstone, "History does not exist until it is created. And we create it in terms of our underlying values."[15] Rosenstone—and I also—believes we live in a post-literate, post-modern, hypervisual culture that is changing the very character of our relationship to the past. Many cultures get along just fine without a rigorous, "scientific" history. There are numerous ways to understand and relate to the past. One legacy from the Renaissance is the primacy of history as word. Film is now battering down the walls of privilege held by the word, and "to acknowledge the authenticity of the visual is to accept a new relationship to the word itself."[16] But did the word really ever recapture the past? The controversial historian Simon Schama writes that events did actually happen, but they "can't be very clearly determined even with the resources we have available." Since historians can never truly enter into a past world, Schama believes they "are left forever chasing shadows, painfully aware of their inability ever to reconstruct a dead world in its completeness, however thorough or revealing their documentation." Schama sees humanity today as unavoidably remote from the historical subjects, and therefore suggests that "we are doomed to be forever hailing someone who has just gone around the corner and out of earshot."[17]

So my students in Renaissance and Reformation, after their final essay in which I ask them to consider some of the complexities of interpreting the past through the word and through image, should come away with the understanding that history is indeed complex, multifaceted, a form of drama and analysis, that may not be scientifically knowable. All we can offer are different parts of historical truth, that conveyed in words, and increasingly that conveyed in visual images. But I seriously doubt if the latter is any more successful in hailing Schama's historical someone who has "just gone around the corner, and out of earshot."

---

[13] *Ibid.*, 1184.

[14] *Image as Artifact*, 62.

[15] Rosenstone, 1185.

[16] *Ibid.*

[17] Gordon Wood, "Novel History," *New York Review of Books*, June 27, 1991, 15-16. Schama caused a firestorm among historians when he created imaginary dialogue in his book *Dead Certainties (Unwarrented Speculations)* (New York: Knopf, 1991). Schama is quoted in the review of that book by Gordon Wood, 12-16.

USING DATABASES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES CLASSROOM

Harvey C. Foyle

and

Bill Yates
Emporia State University

The knowledge base in history and the social studies is increasing exponentially. For example, Bosnia-Herzegovina is usually thought of in the context of World War I. Yet with the dissolution of the Eastern European communist block and the disintegration of Yugoslavia, this region is headline news once again. New countries, new capitals, new leaders, and an ever growing array of data. This knowledge explosion necessitates that students learn to manipulate information and make sense out of that information.

Educational research supports the use of databases in problem-solving activities. The computer is useful as an organizational and memory storage device,[1] and aids people in problem-solving.[2]

Students, developing their own databases, can learn to segregate information into parts, classify information, develop observation and data acquisition skills, develop social skills in working together, and gain a sense of ownership that comes with mastery. These skills are important for history and social studies instructors to teach and students to learn.[3]

Students not only need to be able to manipulate data provided by commercial databases, but they need to understand the basic principles of collecting, categorizing, and sorting that data. Students can manipulate a database and get past the low-level factual gathering often done in history and social studies classes and deal with the high-order questions and responses related to analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Each time the students resort or rearrange their data, they can identify new trends, clarify ideas, compare and contrast information, identify relationships involving correlations, make inferences from the data, test hypotheses, and draw conclusions.[4] Each of these information age skills relates to

---

[1] E. R. Steinberg, A. B. Baskin, and E. Hofer, "Organizational/Memory Tools: A Technique for Improving Problem Solving Skills," *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 2 (1986), 169-187.

[2] C. S. White, "Developing Information-Processing Skills Through Structured Activities with a Computerized File-Management Program," *Journal of Educaitonal Computing Research*, 3 (1987), 355-375.

[3] B. C. Yates and D. Moursund, "The Computer and Problem Solving," *The Computing Teacher*, 16 (1988), 12-16; R. P. Taylor, "Interview with Robert Taylor," in D. Kendall and H. Budin, "Computers for Intellectual Regeneration," *Social Education*, 51 (1987), 34-36.

[4] J. Watson, *Teaching Thinking Skills with Databases* (Eugene, OR: International Council for Computers in Education, 1989).

the training that history and social studies teachers received and attempt to teach to their students.

A number of methods and activities can be used to help students acquire and develop critical thinking skills. For example, students can design their own database about American presidents. There already are such commercial databases available. However, students need to understand the amount of work, skill, and knowledge that goes into the preparation of databases. Thus, by having students create their own presidential databases, they come to understand the complexity of commercial databases. Indeed, students should learn to determine their own categories of information rather than always being led to preselected conclusions effected by the selection of data by others.

Headings for the presidential database fields might include information typically found in an encyclopedia: the number of the presidential administration, first name, last name, month of birth, day of birth, year of birth, town of birth, state of birth, college/university education, religion, occupation or profession, political party, age at inauguration, years served, month of death, day of death, year of death, age at death, town of burial, state of burial, election's runner-up, Vice-Presidents. This would seem like a great deal of information to work with, but at this point there are only 42 presidential administrations. Such a database would have 22 fields (columns) and 42 rows or 924 pieces of information to manipulate. Simply listing the presidents in numerical order would yield some information (Figure 1). However, sorting this amount of data by hand would be tedious, consume time, and dampen student motivation. The use of the computer counters those factors in that sorting this amount of data is easy, takes only seconds, and heightens motivation as students observe new patterns of data (Figures 2, 3, 4).

Although over-simplifying for the purpose of this article, we will use a database that contains some of the information that refers to the presidents of the United States: the number of the presidential administration, last name, state of birth, religious preference, and occupation (recognizing, of course, that some had more than one career field). The sheer bulk of the larger database forces us to use this smaller subset to indicate how the information can be used. When students sort data by various categories, different patterns of information are arrived at and hypotheses may be made that are inspired by the sorted data. For example, in Figures 2, 3, and 4 the data are sorted by occupations, religious affiliation, and birthplace state. This sorted data might produce some of the following hypotheses by students.

Figure 2 was sorted by occupations. Students rapidly note that a specific occupation is held by most presidents. They can hypothesize if there are any significant differences between the presidents' administrations who had the dominant occupation (lawyers) and the presidents' administrations who did not have that occupation. Students could then research the presidents who held other occupations. Students might wonder why so many presidents were lawyers. Is this a prerequisite for being president or did it just happen.

Figure 3 was sorted by religious affiliation. Students can correlate those religious identifiers with periods of time and should note that certain

denominations were in the majority during certain periods of time. The students might hypothesize that as the nation expanded and elected presidents from certain parts of the nation, religious identification also changed. Immigration and settlement patterns might be correlated to this information. In addition, is a religious preference important or necessary in order to be president? Nixon is listed as a Quaker, but he stated that he was not a practicing Quaker. Also, his presidential actions during the Vietnam War and Watergate scandal are not compatible with Quaker beliefs. How does religious preference affect a person's chance at becoming president? What impact, if any, does religious preference have on presidential actions?

Figure 4 was sorted by state of birth. Students might have some of the same hypotheses as for Figure 3, especially in terms of migration patterns. However, they might hypothesize that these states held large populations during those periods of time and contained more voters. Thus, do large populous states carry the presidential elections? How many large states are needed to win the presidency?

The whole process of rearranging the data is simplified by the computer since it allows the student to quickly reorder information into new and more revealing relationships than just the numerical order of presidential administrations. After using a small and simple data set as an instructional example in order to introduce the concepts of the use of databases, students can go on to larger databases. Larger and different databases can be developed, purchased, or accessed by students. With the advent of CD-Rom databases, students are already coming into contact with databases as card catalogues in libraries, multimedia presentations in classrooms, and even the parts departments of automobile dealerships. The ever-expanding use of databases in our society necessitates that students make some sense out of the mass of data available today.

History and social studies teachers can help students make sense of the growing amount of information by integrating computer databases into their classroom lessons. Once students have worked through a database unit, the teacher can hold discussions about the historical method and research methods. The students' concrete experiences with this simple database should motivate them to examine larger, more complex databases available in the social studies.

In conclusion, students may retain factual knowledge while learning the methods of history and social science. But more importantly, these methods can be taught while using the computer as a tool that allows us to access the expanding knowledge of the information age.

FIGURE 1
PRESIDENTS BY NUMBER

No	Last Name	Month Born	Birthplace State	Religion	Occupation	Age	Age
1	Washington	February	Virginia	Episcopalian	Planter	57	67
2	Adams,J	October	Massachusetts	Unitarian	Lawyer	61	90
3	Jefferson	April	Virginia	Unitarian	Planter & Lawyer	57	83
4	Madison	March	Virginia	Episcopalian	Lawyer	57	85
5	Monroe	April	Virginia	Episcopalian	Lawyer	58	73
6	Adams,JQ	July	Massachusetts	Unitarian	Lawyer	57	80
7	Jackson	March	South Carolina	Presbyterian	Lawyer	61	78
8	Van Buren	December	New York	Dutch Reformed	Lawyer	54	79
9	Harrison,WH	February	Virginia	Episcopalian	Soldier	68	68
10	Tyler	March	Virginia	Episcopalian	Lawyer	51	71
11	Polk	November	North Carolina	Methodist	Lawyer	49	53
12	Taylor	November	Virginia	Episcopalian	Soldier	64	65
13	Fillmore	January	New York	Unitarian	Lawyer	50	74
14	Pierce	November	New Hampshire	Episcopalian	Lawyer	48	64
15	Buchanan	April	Pennsylvania	Presbyterian	Lawyer	65	77
16	Lincoln	February	Kentucky	Presbyterian	Lawyer	52	56
17	Johnson,A	December	North Carolina	Methodist	Tailor	56	66
18	Grant	April	Ohio	Methodist	Soldier	46	63
19	Hayes	October	Ohio	Methodist	Lawyer	54	70
20	Garfield	November	Ohio	Disc. of Christ	Lawyer	49	49
21	Arthur	October	Vermont	Episcopalian	Lawyer	51	57
22	Cleveland	March	New Jersey	Presbyterian	Lawyer	47	71
23	Harrison,B	August	Ohio	Presbyterian	Lawyer	55	67
24	Cleveland	March	New Jersey	Presbyterian	Lawyer	55	71
25	McKinley	January	Ohio	Methodist	Lawyer	54	58
26	Roosevelt,TR	October	New York	Dutch Reformed	Author	42	60
27	Taft	September	Ohio	Unitarian	Lawyer	51	72
28	Wilson	December	Virginia	Presbyterian	Educator	56	67
29	Harding	November	Ohio	Baptist	Editor	55	57
30	Coolidge	July	Vermont	Congregational	Lawyer	51	60
31	Hoover	August	Iowa	Friend (Quaker)	Engineer	54	90
32	Roosevelt,FD	January	New York	Episcopalian	Lawyer	51	63
33	Truman	May	Missouri	Baptist	Businessman	60	88
34	Eisenhower	October	Texas	Presbyterian	Soldier	62	78
35	Kennedy	May	Massachusetts	Roman Catholic	Author	43	46
36	Johnson,LB	August	Texas	Disc. of Christ	Teacher	55	64
37	Nixon	January	California	Friend (Quaker)	Lawyer	56	
38	Ford	July	Nebraska	Episcopalian	Lawyer	61	
39	Carter	October	Georgia	Baptist	Businessman Farming	53	
40	Reagan	February	Illinois	Disc. of Christ	Actor	73	
41	Bush	June	Massachusetts	Episcopalian	Businessman	65	
42	Clinton	August	Arkansas	Baptist	Politician	46	

FIGURE 2
PRESIDENTS BY OCCUPATION

No	Last Name	Month Born	Birthplace State	Religion	Occupation	Age	Age
40	Reagan	February	Illinois	Disc. of Christ	Actor	73	
26	Roosevelt,TR	October	New York	Dutch Reformed	Author	42	60
35	Kennedy	May	Massachusetts	Roman Catholic	Author	43	46
33	Truman	May	Missouri	Baptist	Businessman	60	88
41	Bush	June	Massachusetts	Episcopalian	Businessman	65	
39	Carter	October	Georgia	Baptist	Businessman Farming	53	
29	Harding	November	Ohio	Baptist	Editor	55	57
28	Wilson	December	Virginia	Presbyterian	Educator	56	67
31	Hoover	August	Iowa	Friend (Quaker)	Engineer	54	90
2	Adams,J	October	Massachusetts	Unitarian	Lawyer	61	90
4	Madison	March	Virginia	Episcopalian	Lawyer	57	85
5	Monroe	April	Virginia	Episcopalian	Lawyer	58	73
6	Adams,JQ	July	Massachusetts	Unitarian	Lawyer	57	80
7	Jackson	March	South Carolina	Presbyterian	Lawyer	61	78
8	Van Buren	December	New York	Dutch Reformed	Lawyer	54	79
10	Tyler	March	Virginia	Episcopalian	Lawyer	51	71
11	Polk	November	North Carolina	Methodist	Lawyer	49	53
13	Fillmore	January	New York	Unitarian	Lawyer	50	74
14	Pierce	November	New Hampshire	Episcopalian	Lawyer	48	64
15	Buchanan	April	Pennsylvania	Presbyterian	Lawyer	65	77
16	Lincoln	February	Kentucky	Presbyterian	Lawyer	52	56
19	Hayes	October	Ohio	Methodist	Lawyer	54	70
20	Garfield	November	Ohio	Disc. of Christ	Lawyer	49	49
21	Arthur	October	Vermont	Episcopalian	Lawyer	51	57
22	Cleveland	March	New Jersey	Presbyterian	Lawyer	47	71
23	Harrison,B	August	Ohio	Presbyterian	Lawyer	55	67
24	Cleveland	March	New Jersey	Presbyterian	Lawyer	55	71
25	McKinley	January	Ohio	Methodist	Lawyer	54	58
27	Taft	September	Ohio	Unitarian	Lawyer	51	72
30	Coolidge	July	Vermont	Congregational	Lawyer	51	60
32	Roosevelt,FD	January	New York	Episcopalian	Lawyer	51	63
37	Nixon	January	California	Friend (Quaker)	Lawyer	56	
38	Ford	July	Nebraska	Episcopalian	Lawyer	61	
1	Washington	February	Virginia	Episcopalian	Planter	57	67
3	Jefferson	April	Virginia	Unitarian	Planter & Lawyer	57	83
42	Clinton	August	Arkansas	Baptist	Politician	46	
9	Harrison,WH	February	Virginia	Episcopalian	Soldier	68	68
12	Taylor	November	Virginia	Episcopalian	Soldier	64	65
18	Grant	April	Ohio	Methodist	Soldier	46	63
34	Eisenhower	October	Texas	Presbyterian	Soldier	62	78
17	Johnson,A	December	North Carolina	Methodist	Tailor	56	66
36	Johnson,LB	August	Texas	Disc. of Christ	Teacher	55	64

FIGURE 3
PRESIDENTS BY RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION

No	Last Name	Month Born	Birthplace State	Religion	Occupation	Age	Age
29	Harding	November	Ohio	Baptist	Editor	55	57
33	Truman	May	Missouri	Baptist	Businessman	60	88
39	Carter	October	Georgia	Baptist	Businessman Farming	53	
42	Clinton	August	Arkansas	Baptist	Politician	46	
30	Coolidge	July	Vermont	Congregational	Lawyer	51	60
20	Garfield	November	Ohio	Disc. of Christ	Lawyer	49	49
36	Johnson,LB	August	Texas	Disc. of Christ	Teacher	55	64
40	Reagan	February	Illinois	Disc. of Christ	Actor	73	
8	Van Buren	December	New York	Dutch Reformed	Lawyer	54	79
26	Roosevelt,TR	October	New York	Dutch Reformed	Author	42	60
1	Washington	February	Virginia	Episcopalian	Planter	57	67
4	Madison	March	Virginia	Episcopalian	Lawyer	57	85
5	Monroe	April	Virginia	Episcopalian	Lawyer	58	73
9	Harrison,WH	February	Virginia	Episcopalian	Soldier	68	68
10	Tyler	March	Virginia	Episcopalian	Lawyer	51	71
12	Taylor	November	Virginia	Episcopalian	Soldier	64	65
14	Pierce	November	New Hampshire	Episcopalian	Lawyer	48	64
21	Arthur	October	Vermont	Episcopalian	Lawyer	51	57
32	Roosevelt,FD	January	New York	Episcopalian	Lawyer	51	63
38	Ford	July	Nebraska	Episcopalian	Lawyer	61	
41	Bush	June	Massachusetts	Episcopalian	Businessman	65	
31	Hoover	August	Iowa	Friend (Quaker)	Engineer	54	90
37	Nixon	January	California	Friend (Quaker)	Lawyer	56	
11	Polk	November	North Carolina	Methodist	Lawyer	49	53
17	Johnson,A	December	North Carolina	Methodist	Tailor	56	66
18	Grant	April	Ohio	Methodist	Soldier	46	63
19	Hayes	October	Ohio	Methodist	Lawyer	54	70
25	McKinley	January	Ohio	Methodist	Lawyer	54	58
7	Jackson	March	South Carolina	Presbyterian	Lawyer	61	78
15	Buchanan	April	Pennsylvania	Presbyterian	Lawyer	65	77
16	Lincoln	February	Kentucky	Presbyterian	Lawyer	52	56
22	Cleveland	March	New Jersey	Presbyterian	Lawyer	47	71
23	Harrison,B	August	Ohio	Presbyterian	Lawyer	55	67
24	Cleveland	March	New Jersey	Presbyterian	Lawyer	55	71
28	Wilson	December	Virginia	Presbyterian	Educator	56	67
34	Eisenhower	October	Texas	Presbyterian	Soldier	62	78
35	Kennedy	May	Massachusetts	Roman Catholic	Author	43	46
2	Adams,J	October	Massachusetts	Unitarian	Lawyer	61	90
3	Jefferson	April	Virginia	Unitarian	Planter & Lawyer	57	83
6	Adams,JQ	July	Massachusetts	Unitarian	Lawyer	57	80
13	Fillmore	January	New York	Unitarian	Lawyer	50	74
27	Taft	September	Ohio	Unitarian	Lawyer	51	72

FIGURE 4
PRESIDENTS BY BIRTHPLACE STATE

No	Last Name	Month Born	Birthplace State	Religion	Occupation	Age	Age
42	Clinton	August	Arkansas	Baptist	Politician	46	
37	Nixon	January	California	Friend (Quaker)	Lawyer	56	
39	Carter	October	Georgia	Baptist	Businessman Farming	53	
40	Reagan	February	Illinois	Disc. of Christ	Actor	73	
31	Hoover	August	Iowa	Friend (Quaker)	Engineer	54	90
16	Lincoln	February	Kentucky	Presbyterian	Lawyer	52	56
2	Adams,J	October	Massachusetts	Unitarian	Lawyer	61	90
6	Adams,JQ	July	Massachusetts	Unitarian	Lawyer	57	80
35	Kennedy	May	Massachusetts	Roman Catholic	Author	43	46
41	Bush	June	Massachusetts	Episcopalian	Businessman	65	
33	Truman	May	Missouri	Baptist	Businessman	60	88
38	Ford	July	Nebraska	Episcopalian	Lawyer	61	
14	Pierce	November	New Hampshire	Episcopalian	Lawyer	48	64
22	Cleveland	March	New Jersey	Presbyterian	Lawyer	47	71
24	Cleveland	March	New Jersey	Presbyterian	Lawyer	55	71
8	Van Buren	December	New York	Dutch Reformed	Lawyer	54	79
13	Fillmore	January	New York	Unitarian	Lawyer	50	74
26	Roosevelt,TR	October	New York	Dutch Reformed	Author	42	60
32	Roosevelt,FD	January	New York	Episcopalian	Lawyer	51	63
11	Polk	November	North Carolina	Methodist	Lawyer	49	53
17	Johnson,A	December	North Carolina	Methodist	Tailor	56	66
18	Grant	April	Ohio	Methodist	Soldier	46	63
19	Hayes	October	Ohio	Methodist	Lawyer	54	70
20	Garfield	November	Ohio	Disc. of Christ	Lawyer	49	49
23	Harrison,B	August	Ohio	Presbyterian	Lawyer	55	67
25	McKinley	January	Ohio	Methodist	Lawyer	54	58
27	Taft	September	Ohio	Unitarian	Lawyer	51	72
29	Harding	November	Ohio	Baptist	Editor	55	57
15	Buchanan	April	Pennsylvania	Presbyterian	Lawyer	65	77
7	Jackson	March	South Carolina	Presbyterian	Lawyer	61	78
34	Eisenhower	October	Texas	Presbyterian	Soldier	62	78
36	Johnson,LB	August	Texas	Disc. of Christ	Teacher	55	64
21	Arthur	October	Vermont	Episcopalian	Lawyer	51	57
30	Coolidge	July	Vermont	Congregational	Lawyer	51	60
1	Washington	February	Virginia	Episcopalian	Planter	57	67
3	Jefferson	April	Virginia	Unitarian	Planter & Lawyer	57	83
4	Madison	March	Virginia	Episcopalian	Lawyer	57	85
5	Monroe	April	Virginia	Episcopalian	Lawyer	58	73
9	Harrison,WH	February	Virginia	Episcopalian	Soldier	68	68
10	Tyler	March	Virginia	Episcopalian	Lawyer	51	71
12	Taylor	November	Virginia	Episcopalian	Soldier	64	65
28	Wilson	December	Virginia	Presbyterian	Educator	56	67

REVIEWS

Roy Swanstrom. *History in the Making: An Introduction to the Study of the Past*. Lanham, NY and London: University Press of America, 1991, Pp. 137. Paper, $9.75.

Roy Swanstrom offers a clearly written introduction to the study of history in this reprint of a 1978 publication. Unfortunately, the title is misleading, for this book is not for just any student. It was written for, and will be meaningful only to, students who are practicing Christians. In particular, it would be useful for seniors taking history in Christian high schools and students taking an introductory history course in Christian colleges.

In *History in the Making*, Swanstrom combines his knowledge as a historian with his Christian perspective. He begins with discussion of history as a field of study. He provides good argument on the importance of studying history, stating that "few aspects of the present hold much significance or can be genuinely understood apart from their historical past."

He then discusses the relationship between Christianity and historical inquiry. Next he examines responses that have been offered to answer the question: Is there a pattern or meaning to the past? He then discusses how the Christian perspective helps one study history. And finally, he suggests how studying history might enrich one's life as a Christian.

The book includes sections here and there that will be of interest to the general reader. For example, he provides a good discussion of the uses and problems of primary and secondary sources. Moreover, he makes a good argument for the validity of the Christian perspective by placing it in the context of differing historical perspectives. But taken as a whole, this book will be meaningless to non-Christians and to Christians who do not agree with the author's particular religious beliefs. Swanstrom writes, for example, that "we must take into consideration the peculiar and perhaps imponderable work of the Holy Spirit" and "We realize that nations and civilizations are under the judgment of God. . . ."

Swanstrom has a conversational writing style that makes the book highly readable and easy to understand. Given the particular audience for which the book was written, evangelical educators and history instructors in Christian senior high schools and colleges should find that the chapters will generate a lively discussion in the classroom.

University of Hawaii at Manoa — Eileen H. Tamura

Neil R. Stout. *Getting the Most Out of Your U.S. History Course: The History Student's Vade Mecum*. Lexington, MA and Toronto: D. C. Heath & Co., 1993. Pp. v, 81. paper, $4.00.

Jules R. Benjamin. *A Student's Guide to History*. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1991. 5th edition. Pp. xiii, 160. Paper, $9.50.

Donald W. Whisenhunt. *A Student's Introduction to History*. Boston: American Press, 1993. 2nd edition. Pp. v, 64. Paper, $3.95.

The problem of new college students not only ignorant of history, but indifferent and even hostile to it, has spawned a sub-industry of "how to" books as supplements to the traditional survey course. These works usually have two aims: to explain to students just what history is (and is not) and to give them practical guidance in navigating their way through a history course—note-taking, reading, coping with exams, producing a research paper, and the like. Here are three of the best.

Getting the Most Out of Your U.S. History Course comes as a "free" supplement with D. C. Heath's U.S. history text *The Enduring Vision*, or it may be purchased alone. Stout, who has taught at the University of Vermont for many years, has produced a pithy, practical guide. He admits in his preface what many of us would also confess, that as a brand new freshman "I didn't

have a clue about how to study, take exams, write papers, or much of anything else." His first chapter, the best to this reviewer, wisely begins by explaining how high school and college history courses differ. He then tackles reading a textbook (including graphs and charts), taking notes properly, and taking examinations. There is even a short section trying to humanize history instructors as real people. The only nonsense here is when Stout discourages marking up one's own books ("defacing," he calls it); the student should rely instead on note-taking and the student guide to the textbook. Note-taking is fine and I encourage it; but proper marking up of a book (such as the SQ3R method) is also perfectly acceptable, especially when students pay a fortune for books. As for the student guide, it too often becomes a substitute for the textbook. Chapters two and three cover researching and writing book reviews and papers. Students groan at writing assignments, but Stout makes a strong case for them, noting that "writing is the one skill gained in a history course that is most likely to pay off in the 'real world'." There is useful guidance on writing with a computer, and sensible cautions about plagiarism. All in all, a valuable little book. *Vade mecum*, incidentally is Latin for "go with me"— a useful item such as a reference work that one always carries.

Benjamin's *A Student's Guide to History* is a venerable old standby, now in its fifth edition (although the changes from the fourth are difficult to detect). It is about twice as long as Stout's and more of a straightforward narrative. Where it differs is in the first chapter; in fourteen packed pages Benjamin explains what historians do, how they work, how the past is around us everywhere, different schools of historical interpretation, methods of historical research, and how history can help one in daily life and on the job. Most of this could probably be grasped fairly easily by the neophyte history student, although a somewhat higher skill of reading is demanded here than with Stout's book. Benjamin then covers much the same ground as Stout, although in more depth; he also gives excellent examples of well- and poorly-written essay exam answers, as well as a ten-page example of a well-crafted research paper, broken down to illustrate its organization. The longest part of the book is a 44-page appendix of "Basic Reference Sources for History Study and Research."

Donald Whisenhunt's work is not a "how-to" book, but a brief, generally well-written, down-to-earth essay on the nature of history, what historians do, and what can be learned from history. As he admits early on, his ideas "are neither numerous nor profound. They are basic answers to the questions that every student has, whether articulated or not." He is aiming at the reluctant college student pressed into a required course who will likely never take any more history. He explains what history is not (genealogy; the other social sciences; a "blueprint" for the future), and concludes sensibly enough that history "is the study of the past with the goal of providing meaning for the contemporary world." Accountants, lawyers, physicians, indeed all people use history to navigate through work and life. He emphasizes that a better knowledge of history by American policymakers might have made Vietnam somewhat less agonizing, and warns students that ignorance of history makes them vulnerable to charlatans denying the Holocaust and the Great Depression. A new chapter not in the first edition, "Schools of History," describes the progressive and consensus schools, the New Left, and recent social history. Writing to a student audience, Whisenhunt gently chides them for being "semi-literate in history," a more charitable assessment, perhaps, than many history instructors would grant privately. Chapter 7, "How is History Studied?" wisely points out that reading, reading, and more reading is the best way to really learn history. This book has few flaws beyond an occasional clunky phrase such as ". . . the complex issues in the larger societies and centuries."

Books of this genre won't create history majors, nor are they intended to. Only an enthusiastic instructor and a well-crafted, well-taught course have a chance of doing that. But they can make the going easier in the survey courses that are the daily lot of most teachers.

East Georgia College William F. Mugleston

Andrew Wear, ed. *Medicine in Society: Historical Essays*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1992. Pp. vii, 397. Cloth, $69.95; paper, $19.95.

The growth of social history has been enormous over recent years. One area of historical study in which this trend has had great impact is medical history. Certainly within living memory historians studying medicine were mostly concerned with the biological and technical work of physicians. Perhaps reflecting the growing concern about health care in modern society, such study began to broaden. A seminal though hardly solitary example of the change is William H. McNeill's *Plagues and Peoples* (1976). By the 1990s medical history has come to be part of our understanding of how people lived as well as the study of the methods and profession that developed to keep them well.

Andrew Wear's anthology *Medicine in Society* is an attempt to pull together our knowledge of the part health care has played in people's lives from the classical era to the latter twentieth century. This is, of course, an enormous undertaking, but within certain parameters the contributors have done excellent work. One limitation is that other than an essay on the classical era by Vivian Nutton, the focus is quite Western and generally, thought not exclusively, English and American from the Early Modern period to the present. Topics vary. Andrew Wear has provided a chapter concerning environmental factors and health in Early Modern England, and while such factors are not ignored in other periods, they do not get such in-depth attention. Although such limitations are inevitable in a work of this scope, they do block some useful comparative analysis.

There are several fairly common themes running through the book. Roy and Dorothy Porter have focused particularly on the patient's perspective of therapy for both physical and mental illness, and other contributors, though less specifically, have also tried to give a sense of what medicine has meant to those on the receiving end. Katharine Park and Roy Porter have shown that before the nineteenth century alternative treatments (quackery) and resort to religion were as important as treatment by physicians. The slow pattern of change then began to accelerate in the Enlightenment, when, as discussed by Guenter Risse, new systems of classification and the importance of healthful lifestyles emerged.

Then in the nineteenth century, modern medicine began to take shape. Lindsay Granshaw's essay is focused on the emergence of the hospital as the center of both treatment and study. The growth of public health and professionalization among physicians are discussed by Elizabeth Fee and Dorothy Porter. Paul Weindling has written about the demographic aspects of changing patterns of mortality, which he shows to be much more complicated than simply a matter of improved care and the shift from infectious to chronic ills. Jane Lewis considers the impact of the welfare state and the provision of medical care on a wider and wider scale, and Arthur Imhof concludes with an optimistic assessment of the overall changes in the human condition due to the development of medicine.

Medicine in Society is an important book that will help teachers and students of society and culture better understand the development of what has become a contemporary preoccupation. It shows that health care did not suddenly become a major topic of concern after World War II or even with the rise of scientific medicine in the second half of the nineteenth century. It has influenced people's lives at least since the classical era, and has finally come into the perception of historians, as have so many other elements in society that in the days of history as war and politics were passed over.

Fort Valley State College Fred R. van Hartesveldt

David Knight. *Ideas in Chemistry*. New Brunswick: Rutgers University Press, 1992. Pp. 213. Cloth, $47.00; paper, $18.00.

This is no run-of-the-mill (or run-of-the-laboratory) history of chemistry. As the title indicates, it is a history of "ideas in chemistry," and this approach allows David Knight, professor of history at the University of Durham, England, to range widely over intellectual history, including historiography. Knight is one of those historians who believes that a history, properly written, should be an interesting story, relatively true, going somewhere. For Knight that "somewhere" involves a modified progress theory in which chemistry originated in the occult, grew in scientific status and influence through a complex mix of speculative theory and empirical research, reigned as "queen of the sciences" in the nineteenth century, then declined to its current "reduced" status as a "service science."

In an informal yet erudite manner Knight explains how chemistry had its origins in alchemy, a complex synthesis of God, man, and nature. Knight's writing has a wonderful grace and clarity; for instance:

> Alchemists were not . . . concerned simply with matter and its transformations, but saw these as symbols also of changes in people as God's spirit worked upon them. A character change from baseness to nobility was a true conversion or transmutation parallel to that of lead to gold; and the imperishability of gold recalled the eternal life which awaited God's elect.

From such beginnings arose the science of chemistry. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries mechanical analogies reigned. Scientists were supposed to gain knowledge by analyzing and synthesizing, by taking things like clocks apart and putting them together again. It became more important "how" the "pushes and pulls" worked than "why" they worked. Those who delved deeply into the nature of things favored the ancient atomic theory (much different from today's version) that correlated well with hard mechanical objects.

Beginning with Boyle, however, and culminating with Lavoisier and the concept of elements, chemistry liberated itself from mechanics, physics, and the atomic theory (the irony of this will be seen later) and entered the "golden age" of the nineteenth century. Chemistry went from strength to strength through the discovery of various "airs," including the eventually disproved philogiston. Black, Priestly, Scheele, Davy, Faraday, and many others explored, exposed, and clarified the nature of matter until it seemed that nothing could successfully challenge the reign of the chemists. Then a strange thing happened (to be witty, which would be in keeping with the style of this book) on the way to the laboratory: The atomic theory of physics emerged (partly due to the findings of chemists) to illuminate the fundamental structure of matter. Thus chemistry was reduced to its present status as a service science. "Whatever the future may be, the foundations of chemistry do now seem to be rooted in physics; and those who seek the most fundamental science will no longer flock to lectures on chemistry as they did two hundred years ago."

This is Knight's story—a complex and fascinating one. The above sketch does not begin to do justice to its richness. Besides good solid chemistry and physics, there are a wealth of allusions to and illustrations from other sciences, philosophy, literature, historiography, sociology, and everyday life. And this is what makes the book so difficult to evaluate. To the author's admission that it is "impressionistic and personal" some readers might add "idiosyncratic." This reviewer believes that intellectual historians and historians of science will find much useful information and enjoyment in the book, but novices in the field might do best to read a more conventional history of chemistry before delving into this rich brew of ideas in chemistry.

Winston-Salem State University Howard A. Barnes

Christiane Klapisch-Zuber, ed. *A History of Women in the West, Vol. 2: Silences of the Middle Ages.* Cambridge and London: Harvard University Press, 1992. Pp. x, 575. Cloth, $29.95.

Medieval sources often ignored women or viewed them through male eyes, creating problems for historians. This collection of integrated essays, first published in Italy in 1990, is a new entry into the growing number of works dealing with women in the medieval West. Unlike some collections of essays, *Silences of the Middle Ages* was prepared so that the chapters fit together as a coherent whole. The twelve chapters are organized around four themes: Norms of Control, Family and Social Strategies, Vestiges and Images of Women, and Women's Words. Aside from three chronological chapters, the approach is a thematic one designed to explicate how women were portrayed, how their conduct was regulated, and how they responded.

The first section, composed of five chapters, examines how medieval men saw women and how they prescribed correct conduct for women. Appropriately, the clerical depiction of women is the subject of the first chapter by Jacques Dalarun. While he demonstrates some change over time, the clergy maintained a largely misogynistic stance in its view of women. Claude Thomassett follows with the medical view of women, one that depicted women's nature as often contradictory, but one that was also a male fantasy at times, uninformed by reality. Carla Casagrande details how the classification of women in society was used to enforce male hegemony, emphasizing that women could not be their own guardians. Silvana Vecchio turns to marriage in her chapter, "The Good Wife." The focus then moves to fashion with Diane Owen Hughes's analysis of the means used to regulate women's fashions and how some women were able to circumvent such regulations.

The second part is a chronological treatment of women's history from the fifth to the fifteenth centuries. Suzanne Fonay Wemple treats the period from the fifth to the tenth centuries, emphasizing the impact of Roman law and Germanic custom in defining the status of women. Paulette L'Hermit-Leclercq follows with a treatment of women in the central Middle Ages and Claudia Opitz emphasizes the hardening of rules surrounding single women in the late Middle Ages. A chapter by Georges Duby deals with the largely positive impact that courtly love had on the status of women from the central Middle Ages onward.

The third section examines non-written evidence. Francoise Piponnier reviews archaeological evidence and Chiara Frugoni inquires into the artistic depiction of women.

Danielle Régnier-Bohler's final chapter returns to the perplexing question of how to recover women's true voice. In it she treats various women writers, especially mystics, as one means of breaking through the largely male domination of the sources.

Overall, there is a good deal of value here. The authors are leading scholars in the areas they treat, the translations from French and Italian are felicitous, the bibliography is reasonably complete, and the coverage is sound. Specialists might find some quibbles, for example Opitz may overestimate the capacity granted to women to practice medicine in countries other than late medieval France, but such quibbles are to be expected in a work that assays to cover as much ground as this one does.

In spite of the strengths of *Silences of the Middle Ages*, teachers searching for a book to assign for a medieval history class might be better served by turning to David Herlihy's *Opera Mulierbria* or Margaret Wade Labarge's *Small Sound of the Trumpet*. The essentially non-chronological format of the book is both a strength and a weakness. The chronological chapters are necessarily brief, but this brevity may limit their effectiveness for a student wishing to gain an overview of women in the Middle Ages. Even though the authors sprinkle their work with examples, the concreteness of Labarge and Herlihy's works may be more helpful to students. Nonetheless, some of the chapters, such as Fugoni's treatment of women in art or Thomassett's examination of the medical view of women, are highly useful summaries of the literature. *Silences of the Middle Ages* is a helpful work for students to dip into for condensed summaries of the literature rather than a book to be read in its entirety.

Converse College John M. Theilmann

Barry Coward. *Cromwell*. London and New York: Longman, 1991. Pp. vii, 204. Paper, $17.95.

Another book on Cromwell? Barry Coward argues that the massive literature on this enigmatic figure, much of it partisan, is precisely what makes a reevaluation of his character, motives, aims, abilities, and legacy necessary. Moreover, recent revisionist accounts of Charles I's reign and of the religious tensions of the seventeenth century place Cromwell's ideas and endeavors in a new light. Coward follows the chronological approach to Cromwell recommended one hundred years ago by S. R. Gardiner, finding Cromwell's words and actions more (but by no means completely) explicable when viewed in the context of wider events. However, Coward is careful to emphasize that his study is not a biography but rather, as part of Longman's "Profiles in Power" series, "it is a study of Cromwell as a political figure and of the historical problems associated with his exercise of power."

Coward focuses on the controversial points in Cromwell's career. What was his role in the trial and execution of the king? Why was his relationship with the Long, Rump, Barebones, and Protectorate Parliaments so problematic? Why did he refuse the crown? Ultimately, was he hero or villain, success or failure? Sifting through the myths and legends manufactured by admirers and detractors alike, Coward passes judgment on these and other historical arguments and backs up his views with evidence gleaned from Cromwell's speeches and writings, and other contemporary sources.

Coward does an admirable job of finding continuity in a life famous for its inconsistency and ambiguity. Well before he rose to prominence during the Civil War, Cromwell became convinced that he was one of the Elect, and his quest for a godly reformation was a consistent element in every stage of his career. Coward attributes much of Cromwell's erratic behavior to his attempts to reconcile this quest, with its accompanying political and social change, with the need to assure conservatives that he sought security of property and constitutional respectability. Cromwell resorted to military force only when he became convinced that it was necessary for satisfying the dictates of providence. He even would have been willing to support the monarchy had the king allowed annual parliaments and freedom of conscience. Much of the anger and disillusion that characterized his Protectorate came out of Cromwell's realization that parliamentary liberty would not automatically bring a godly reformation.

The book rescues Cromwell from the stereotype of military dictator. Coward's Cromwell is not the severe, forbidding figure of legend but rather a man willing to heed advice and make compromises. Caught between a mutually hostile parliament and army, he turned to authoritarianism out of frustration when he found people just did not know what was good for them. Although Cromwell failed in all of his aims, and ultimately his ideas and style of government provoked violent reaction, he *had* managed to bring stability and security in the wake of civil war and regicide. Coward believes that along with Cromwell's introduction of republicanism to England, his most important achievement "was, ironically, one that Cromwell would undoubtedly have not wanted: the establishment of Protestant nonconformity as a permanent feature of life in Britain from that day to this."

As Reader in History at Birbeck College, University of London, Coward must be accustomed to British undergraduates who generally are familiar with the events, personnel, and religious factions of the English Civil War. On this side of the Atlantic his work would be instructive reading for an upper-level or graduate course stressing historiography, since Coward involves the reader in his thought process as he weighs evidence and arguments and reaches conclusions. Additionally, he provides a bibliographical essay that renders the book a useful source for a student research paper or a teacher's presentation on seventeenth-century England

University of North Texas Marilyn Morris

William Carr. *A History of Germany: 1815-1990.* New York: Edward Arnold, 1991. Fourth edition. Pp. vii, 430. Paper, $24.95.

Now in its fourth edition, William Carr's *A History of Germany: 1815-1990* still ranks as one of the best single volume works available, succinctly delineating the political and diplomatic history of post-Napoleonic Germany. The first edition (1969) covered German history from 1815 until the end of World War II and received much acclaim and some criticism, though most of the criticisms were based upon differences in historical interpretation, not factual presentation. The second edition clarified Carr's historical interpretations and expanded the information on the Wilhelmine and Weimar eras. The third edition included a new chapter "The Two Germanies" covering 1945 to 1984. Carr's fourth edition "cleans up" the third edition's added chapter and includes a new chapter on Germany's reunification in 1990.

In the new "Preface" Carr clearly states his premise for the fourth edition: The Cold War ended and Germany peacefully united. These two events were not expected in the mid-eighties and since they occurred Carr desired to add them to his book. Carr admonishes the reader, however: "How successful the new Germany will be in finding its rightful place in the world constellation will determine whether the 'German problem' has been resolved once and for all." This leads the reader to think that Carr sees a unified Germany as somehow a possible threat to a world at peace.

Carr uses the first eleven chapters to discuss the importance of the *Volkgeist* to the political leaders in their efforts to create a nationalism among the German speaking peoples. This spirit of a unified people poses a "problem" because, to achieve national unity, existing political structures must be put aside, destroyed, in the best interests of the unified state. Throughout these eleven chapters Carr focuses on the political and diplomatic elements of Germany's history with little attention given to intellectual and cultural history. Mention is given to the Schlegels, Hegel, Max Weber, and a few others. He does not discuss the importance of Fichte in his call to the Germans to throw off their French oppressors; nor does he write of Wagner's glorification of the German people. These two men alone deserve some mention as their philosophical purpose was nationalism and German unification. It is this cultural and intellectual astigmatism that creates the "German problem" upon which Carr focuses.

The last chapter—the purpose for the fourth edition—is perhaps the weakest of all the chapters. It is not written with the same style and verve as the first eleven chapters. "The German Revolution 1989-1990" accurately recounts the facts surrounding the reunification of East and West but is pedantic in presentation when compared with the preceding chapters. Carr takes for granted that the student of history knows who President George Bush is without associating the head of state to his nation, the United States. This is akin to using the term the "Big Three" without dating the term since the composition of the "Three" changes from 1944 to 1945. This is a very minor flaw, but one made repeatedly with other heads of state.

Carr gives an adequate bibliography for all the chapters except the two newest. The bibliography for "The Two Germanies" is scant and there is no bibliography for the last chapter. The numerous quotations cited in the last chapter require the support given the preceding chapters.

I first read *A History of Germany*, the first edition, as an undergraduate attending the University of Texas. I credit Carr for sparking my interest in German nationalism. I still find this fourth edition to be a near-perfect text for college students, instructors, and anyone searching for a brief explanation of modern Germany's political history. I hope Carr will publish a fifth edition that includes a full bibliography and a bit more information on the cultural and intellectual influence upon the politics of German nationalism.

L. V. Berkner High School
Richardson, Texas

William Scott Igo

Avigdor Kahalani. *The Heights of Courage: A Tank Leader's War on the Golan*. New York: Praeger, 1992. Pp. xxiii, 198. Cloth, $42.95; paper, $12.95.

In the Yom Kippur War (October 6-25, 1973), Egypt and Syria nearly ended Israel's perfect record in military conflicts with the Arabs. Maximum surprise was achieved by timing the attack for Yom Kippur, the most sacred day of Judaism. The two-front attack was well planned, coordinated, and executed. The Israelis had become overly confident in the capabilities of their equipment. Although outnumbered by the Soviet- and French-equipped Arabs, Israel's weapons were superior in combat when used by properly trained personnel. Moreover, the Arabs used tactics unanticipated by Israel.

Arab infantry, humiliated by Israel in the Six-Day War (1967), had acquired new anti-tank and anti-aircraft weaponry that had greatly increased its firepower. In 1973, however, formidable Arab infantry spearheaded the assault along two wide fronts and nearly overwhelmed the Israelis. Israel's response to the unorthodox assault was to counterattack. These moves, spearheaded by tanks for their psychological shock value, were very nearly checked by the firepower of Arab infantry.

The stalemated war quickly became marked by high rates of material attrition that neither side could maintain for very long. Tank losses on both sides outstripped World War II levels. Some 3,000 tanks, seventy-five percent of them Arab, were destroyed in less than three weeks. Each side pressed its superpower sponsor for resupply. Both the Soviet Union and the United States were strapped to meet the needs of their warring surrogates.

Avigdor Kahalani has written a brief memoir of his role in the fighting. A veteran of the Six Day War, he was a Lieutenant Colonel in command of the 77th tank battalion that faced the Syrians on the Golan Heights in October 1973. *The Heights of Courage* first appeared in Hebrew under the title *OZ (Courage) 77* in 1975. This edition was translated by Louis Williams from the Hebrew edition.

Kahalani's work, written in diary format, might be good oral history, if he had referenced specific interview transcripts. Kahalani did refer, however, to "tape recordings of battle conversations." Presumably, these documents remain classified. Incredibly Kahalani depicted the airwaves between headquarters and tanks in the field as a crackling confused cacophony of orders, requests for air and artillery support, medical aid and the like, without ever hearing a single expletive in three weeks of close quarter fighting. The absence of any verifiable sources leaves the reader skeptical as to whether such cool conversations really took place in the heat of raging tank engagements at ranges of less than fifty feet. Similar conversations, supported by secondary sources, appear in Donald Neff's 1988 work *Warriors Against Israel*.

Kahalani is justifiably proud of the courage displayed by his men. His thesis, that only the courage of the Israeli troops won the victory, leaves many questions unanswered. Only briefly did he mention that the Russian-made tanks confronted by his men were in many ways inferior to the British and American-made tanks in Israel's arsenal. While the Russian tanks had larger, but less maneuverable cannon, their operation range was much shorter. Most important for desert warfare, the engines of Russian tanks were less powerful. Being air-cooled, they were subject to further power reduction in the desert heat.

This book might be used as a reader for an upper-division or graduate course. With a more believable dialogue, and a good film editor to adroitly handle the confusing flashbacks to the 1967 war, *Courage* would be an excellent screenplay.

Cooke County College Richard W. Byrd

Edwin P. Hoyt. *Hirohito: The Emperor and the Man*. New York: Praeger, 1992. Pp. x, 214. Cloth, $24.95.

Since the end of World War II and the subsequent American occupation of Japan, an Imperial conspiracy behind Japanese militarism and expansionism in East Asia prior to and during World War II has always played well in American academia, the press, and in the mind of the general public. The publication of David Bergamini's popular 1300-page tome, *Japan's Imperial Conspiracy* (1971), served to reinforce this theory. Bergamini's analysis of Hirohito essentially agrees with the findings of the International Military Tribunal for the Far East that sat between 1946-1948, which convicted and sentenced some twenty-five well-known Japanese officials for war crimes, the best known being the infamous General Hideki Tojo. Bergamini weaves his Imperial conspiracy theory from the diary of one of Hirohito's best-known courtiers, the Marquis Koichi Kido, who on many occasions harked back to Ito Hirobumi's Constitution of the Empire of Japan—1889 (Articles I-XVII) in reminding the Showa emperor that it was his constitutional duty to support the war effort and the national administration perpetrating it vis-a-vis that sovereignty rested with the emperor (Article IV). The Preamble and Articles XI-XIII are particularly germane to the case that Kido makes in his diary account.

The recent publication of Edwin P. Hoyt's scholarly biography, *Hirohito: The Emperor and the Man*, represents the first serious attempt that I know of to extricate the Showa emperor from the clutches of the Imperial conspiracy theorists. Making use of new evidence in the Imperial archives, Hoyt, an expert on the growth of Japanese militarism, portrays Hirohito as captive of an Imperial institution that had been perpetuated for over 2,600 years of turbulent Japanese history through sheer institutional inertia. Since the Meiji Restoration of 1868, Japan has had four emperors to include the recently crowned Emperor Akihito. The longest reigning and best-known of them has been Hirohito whose reign spanned more than six decades (1926-1989). Hirohito, while a Prince, actually presided over the affairs of Japan for five years before he ascended the throne due to the illness of his father, the effete and eccentric Taisho emperor (1912-1926) and was buffeted on all sides by his religious-pacifist mother, the Empress Dowager Sakado, who never fully gave her approval of him and the conduct of his office, and a host of Imperial advisers, some of whom went back to his grandfather, the Meiji emperor (1868-1912). His grandfather, who was the centerpiece of the Meiji Restoration of 1868, was domineering, but despite this, the Meiji emperor and all of his successors were controlled by their advisers who were drawn from the Genro clique (Council of Elders), the most notable and best-known being the court noble, Prince Kimmochi Saionji, whose influence at Court, to say the least, was inordinate. Even as late as the Manchurian Crisis of 1931, the aged and conservative Saionji was advising the young emperor.

From my reading of modern Japanese history I understand that the objective of the young Japanese intellectuals from Satsuma and Choshu who were behind the Meiji Restoration of 1868 was to secure for themselves a political arrangement that would ensure their continuance in power in the future. What they did not count on, however, was that the Restoration would engender a lively debate throughout Japan as to what type of government Japan should have and what role (if any) the people would play in it. The "People's Rights Movement" (Jiyū Minken) of the 1870s and 1880s to a great extent addressed these questions, and so the intellectuals around the Meiji emperor, such as Kido and Okubo, decided that a constitution would be adopted for Japan that would institutionalize many of the proposals put forward by the Movement, and that would perpetuate them in power in the future. The debate among the Meiji intellectuals was whether to adopt a British constitutional model or a German one. In Ito Hirobumi's famous Memorial to the Meiji emperor of December 14, 1880, calling for a constitution for Japan, there was a recognition that constitutionalism was the wave of the future and that power-sharing could not be avoided. Ito had arrived at this conclusion by studying constitutionalism in Germany during the 1880s. Ito wrote, "The present political disturbance is symptomatic of a general trend sweeping the whole world and is not limited to a single nation or province. . . . The change from old to new was accompanied by violent disturbances . . . An enlightened ruler and his wise ministers would

control and divert the force toward a solidifying of the government. To achieve this, all despotic conduct must be abandoned, and there can be no avoiding a sharing of the government's power with the people. . . . The method to be adopted by the government today is to follow the trends of the time to take advantage of opportunities when they appear." Barely a decade later, in 1889, Ito's Constitution of the Empire of Japan was promulgated, which enshrined power-sharing, despite its assertion that "The Emperor is sacred and inviolable" and despite the fact that it reserved Japanese sovereignty in his office.

Any casual study of Japanese politics from 1890 to about 1930 will show that the Imperial institution remained essentially captive to the whims of various Japanese political elements that the constitution of 1889 spelled out in Articles XXXIIII-LXXII—the Japanese Diet (Parliament), the Genro clique (or Council of Elders), political parties (Seiyūkai Party, established in 1900, and Kenseikai Party, established in 1916 and later changed to Minseitō in 1927), and the Japanese military, as the so-called Taisho political crisis of 1912 bears out. As early as 1912 there is evidence that the military in Japan got what it wanted. Not even able ministers like Saionji and General Katsura Tarō could keep them at bay. The quarrel in 1912 was over two army divisions, and sending a military representative to support the interests of the military in the Japanese Diet. Seen in this light, then, the Manchurian Crisis of 1931, which was to lead the Japanese Empire into World War II, was an inevitability.

On balance, Hoyt's biography is an invaluable tool in terms of refuting the Imperial conspiracy theory and in terms of reaching an objective assessment of the controversial and much-maligned Showa emperor on whom history is now about to pass judgment. Hoyt's book could be effectively utilized in a college-level course on the History of Modern Japan or in a course on the History of World War II. It is highly recommended reading for college-level history students, Japan scholars and watchers, and the interested lay person.

Quincy College Lawrence S. Rines

John E. O'Connor. *Image as Artifact: The Historical Analysis of Film and Television*. Malabar, FL: Robert E. Krieger Publishing Company, 1990. Pp. vii, 244. Cloth, $43.50; paper, $24.50.

The history of the recorded moving image is but little more than a century old. Yet it has been a century of dynamic change, change in part documented, reflected, and ushered in by development of film and television. The recorded moving image is therefore becoming an important source for historians reconstructing the recent past and equally as important a tool for educators teaching about it.

Image as Artifact is a product of a much larger American Historical Association (AHA) project, "The Historian and the Moving Image Media," funded by the National Endowment for the Humanities. The director of this project and the editor and principal author of this book, John E. O'Connor, is a professor of history at New Jersey Institute of Technology. An early American historian, he has been a pioneer in the field of recorded moving image media and history for a quarter of a century with numerous publications to his credit and as chairman and a founder of the Historians Film Committee and editor of its quarterly journal, *Film & History*. He also has been honored recently for his efforts by the AHA with an annual award—The John E. O'Connor Film Award—named after him.

This book is intended to serve as an introduction to the use of film and television imagery in the research and teaching of history by professionals involved in either or both domains. In considering the major methodological and philosophical problems to be addressed when regarding the recorded moving image as an historical artifact, this volume proposes a conceptual framework for its study and utilization. The first two brief chapters on the image as artifact and gathering

information on the image and its reception for historical analysis are introductory. They are followed by a long third chapter that is really the heart of the book, containing four frameworks of analysis preceded by an introduction. Each of these frameworks—"The Moving Image as Representation of History," "The Moving Image as Evidence for Social and Cultural History," "Actuality Footage as Evidence of Historical Fact," and "The History of the Moving Image as Industry and Art Form"—are comprised of three relatively clearly-written and insightful essays by O'Connor and eleven other contributing authors. Chapter IV presents an actual case study, utilizing *The Plow That Broke the Plains*, a 1936 film by the United States Resettlement Administration. And the concluding chapter provides a much-needed introduction to comprehending visual language effectively for historians and teachers.

Albeit introductory, *Image as Artifact* is not really for anyone who does not have at least some interest in the possibilities of film and television for the writing and teaching of history. This book is well documented with literature (with an extensive appendix of sources for further reading) and actual moving images, but most of the numerous examples cited from this latter category, like *The Plow That Broke the Plains*, are not from more-familiar commercial or popular film and television. For those who find *Image as Artifact* of interest, and many will, it should be helpful for them to know that it is only "one of three published resources which are interlinked and cross referenced so each can be used to its fullest measure." The other two are a two-hour compilation on disk or tape of the most significant moving image materials cited in the book with a study guide, and a pamphlet, *Teaching History with Film and Television* (1987). Both are available from the AHA and are listed in the Preface as is the mailing address of the AHA.

The University of Texas at Arlington Dennis Reinhartz

Albert Fried, ed. *Socialism in America: From the Shakers to the Third International—A Documentary History*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1992. Pp. xviv, 580. Cloth, $35.00; paper, $18.00.

When, in 1970, Doubleday published *Socialism in America*, the editor wrote in his preface, "There is no anthology of this kind now available." Although over two decades have passed since its initial appearance and the literature on American Socialism has proliferated, his earlier claim "still holds true: this is still the only available anthology on the subject." Its reissuance is a welcome readdition to the study of American Socialism. Fried's collection provides the student access to many documents that otherwise would be unavailable except in their original publication.

With the exception of a new preface, this volume is a reprint of the 1970 edition. The new preface is a valuable addition to the original book. In it, Fried modifies his original thesis that Socialism "was organic to American life" and that Socialism actually championed the very foundation of the American Republic by emphasizing the "conditions under which America's Socialisms took shape and had their effect on society." In brief, Fried argues that Socialisms thrived when America was non-military or anti-military as a result of America's uninvolvement in world affairs and national security was not threatened. Moreover, Fried posits the theory that if his thesis is true, America may see an emergence of new Socialist movements in the wake of recent changes in the global community and the internal structure of the United States.

Following a "synoptic view" of American Socialism, 46 documents (many excerpted from lengthier works) are arranged ideologically and chronologically in seven chapters. Each set of documents is introduced by a well-written essay designed to provide the reader with the historical context in which the documents were originally produced.

The shortcomings of *Socialism in America* must be noted but are not such that the book's usefulness is greatly compromised. As with any collected work, the selection of materials is a difficult task. There will be readers who believe something has been omitted and there will be readers who will argue that some selections should have been. For example, there is only passing mention of the True Inspirationists of Amana, Iowa, while the rise of the Oneida Perfectionist

Society is hailed as the apogee of American religious communism and given detailed discussion. By comparison, Amana was more "middle of the road" than Oneida. Nonetheless, the Inspirationists spawned more communities, existed much longer, and inspired other Socialisms such as the Union Colonists and Llano del Rio.

Perhaps the major omission and one recognized by the editor in his new preface is the lack of documents on and by women Socialists. However, Fried does provide the reader with a thorough list of titles that the interested student of American Socialism and women's studies may find useful.

Acknowledging this volume's usefulness as a foundation to the study of American Socialisms, it would be appropriate as a supplemental text in upper-level American history classes. Several of the documents would also be useful in political history and social change courses.

East Georgia College John R. Poindexter

David W. Blight, ed. *Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass, An American Slave, Written by Himself.* Boston & New York: Bedford Books of St. Martin's Press, 1993. Pp. x, 163. Cloth, $35.00; paper, $6.70.

The 1845 narrative of Frederick Douglass's life was, arguably, the most widely read and influential slave narrative prior to the Civil War. Certainly, it is was the best written. His story is one that should be familiar to students of the "Middle period," and this short text can be used as a fine supplement in an introductory college survey class or courses dealing with slavery or the Civil War. For those teachers looking to extract a few interesting and first-hand details of what a slave's life was like, I can think of no better source than this. I would even recommend this narrative to American literature teachers due to the artistic quality of Douglass's prose and the vivid images of slavery that are conveyed to the reader. Bedford Books of St. Martin's Press is to be highly commended for its re-issue and David W. Blight, author of *Frederick Douglass' Civil War: Keeping Faith in Jubilee*, has written an outstanding introduction as well as provided extensive notes on the text.

Space limitations only allow for a cursory look at this magnificent piece of historical literature. Douglass has provided the reader with a very interesting look at the life of a slave, and to a lesser extent, the life of a free black, as well as personal portraits of slaveholders and overseers, the moral dilemmas posed by the institution, the rising influence of abolitionists, and the increasing sectional tension wrought by slavery. These categories are not new, nor are the experiences of Douglass vastly different from that of thousands like him. But what sets this narrative apart from the others is the literary quality. Talking of a new overseer and his brutal discipline, Douglass wrote, "I was broken in body, soul, and spirit. My natural elasticity was crushed, my intellect languished, the disposition to read departed, the cheerful spark that lingered about my eye died; the dark night of slavery closed in upon me; and behold a man transformed into a brute!"

Preceding the narrative is a highly informative introduction by Blight as well as William Lloyd Garrison's original preface. Following the narrative, several important supplements are included, such as contemporary reviews of the work and a few of Douglass's speeches and personal letters, including one to his former master. A detailed chronology of Douglass's life (the narrative ends as he embarks on his abolitionist speaking career in the early 1840s), several thought-provoking questions to consider for classroom discussion, and a selected bibliography are also included. To the modern-day reader, the narrative is occasionally short on details. But Blight's copious notes are a wealth of information to complement the text, providing answers to many of the personalities mentioned or questions raised in the work, such as Douglass's method

of escape to freedom since he disclosed few details as a precautionary measure. The only real fault I find with this re-issue, like so many other historical works being published today, is that the notes are placed at the end of the text as opposed to the bottom of the page, necessitating a great deal of page-flipping and irritation. But this is a wonderful little book and particularly useful for topics related to slavery and the coming of the Civil War.

College of the Ozarks C. David Dalton

Corinne Azen Krause. *Grandmothers, Mothers, and Daughters: Oral Histories of Three Generations of Ethnic American Women*. Boston: Twayne Publishers, 1991. Pp. xiv, 231. Cloth, $24.95.

This work is based on a study of 225 women conducted in the mid-1970s, entitled "Women, Ethnicity, and Mental Health." Follow-up interviews in the late 1980s with eighteen of the women updated their reactions. Italian, Jewish, and Slavic immigrants made up the principal ethnic groups in Pittsburgh in 1900 and are the focus of this survey. Changes in peasant economies and religious pogroms drove thousands of families from eastern and southeastern Europe to seek better opportunities in the United States. Initially, most of the men worked in the steel mills and later branched out to small businesses. Women might take in sewing or help in family stores, but they were rarely employed outside the home until the second and third generations. With mastery of English, girls got service jobs in laundries, restaurants, or as domestics. With education some of the third generation moved into the professions.

This study is concerned primarily with the culture the immigrants brought with them and the changes resulting from life in America. Each group had deep convictions about the roles of women as well as of men, the raising of children, and commitment to the extended family. Beyond family loyalties, immigrant women related most closely with their religious roots. Church and synagogue associations provided needed support, but they also restricted integration into the new society. Ethnic neighborhoods also contributed to the slow pace of melding into the broader community. Girls, who were expected to marry within their communities, were taught homemaking skills at home with emphasis on the care of children and the preparation of traditional foods. Except for Jewish immigrants, schooling was not considered important for girls. Each generation showed greater awareness of the value of education for both boys and girls and pride in their academic accomplishments. World War II provided broader job opportunities and expectations for the daughters. The women's movement expanded the horizons of the granddaughters. While most individuals remained in the religious tradition of the older generations of their families, they became less strict in their observance of rigid rules.

In the process of remembering and speaking to strangers, memories of tensions within families seem to have faded. With the stress of becoming Americanized, there must have been serious disagreements. The overriding emotions expressed by each interviewee were of shared love and an awareness of the price paid for immigration to a new country.

For teachers this book offers a reservoir of anecdotes for lectures. For students, it will afford a foundation for research. The bibliography covers major and less well known studies of immigration published over the last fifty years. A listing of the questions asked in the interviews, perhaps in an appendix, would have given a springboard for students' research on the immigrant experience. Even lacking such a listing, a careful reading of any of the sections will provide student researchers with the basic questions to which they may add their own. Aside from the ethnicity aspect, students interested in family history will find this book a helpful tool for exploring the changing ideas about gender roles, courtship and marriage patterns, family relationships, the impact of religion, and the increasing importance of education and community involvement in twentieth-century America.

The Hockaday School, Dallas Texas Terry Brown

Wilson Jeremiah Moses. *Alexander Crummell: A Study of Civilization and Discontent.* Amherst: University of Massachusetts Press, 1992. Pp. vii, 380. Paper, $12.95.

Wilson Jeremiah Moses, ed. *Destiny and Race: Selected Writings, 1840-1898: Alexander Crummell.* Amherst: University of Massachusetts Press, 1992. Pp. ix, 360. Cloth, $35.00; paper, $12.95.

August Meier. *A White Scholar and the Black Community, 1945-1965: Essays and Reflections.* Amherst: University of Massachusetts Press, 1992. Pp. ix, 232. Cloth, $40.00; paper, $13.95.

In the tradition of biography, few would question the persistence of a Eurocentric and male bias. With the desirable goal of resurrecting otherwise unrepresented lives, biographers have increasingly presented us with individuals who might have been better known were it not for their gender or race. From this we have learned of the lives of many individuals, T. Thomas Fortune and Robert Vann, to name but two, who have been the subject of biography in recent years. A biography of Jackie Robinson gave us a much richer glimpse of mid-twentieth-century black and white lives. Our understanding of the black community and of America is the better for these efforts.

One would like to say the same thing about this paperback re-publication of Wilson Moses's biography of Alexander Crummell and the simultaneous publication of Crummell's writings as edited by Moses. Crummell was a nineteenth-century cleric who spent his career serving various churches in the eastern United States and Liberia. His writings advanced a number of issues including black nationalism and "back to Africa," but inconsistency in his thought and a rather acid-tongue rendered him less influential than he might otherwise have been. One does learn of the struggles of the black church, the difficulties facing black clerics in confronting a white diocesan leadership, obstacles in creating a mission and school outpost in Liberia, and divisions within the black community. However, these are issues that are better developed elsewhere. While Alexander Crummell's biography is an interesting study of a nineteenth-century black intellectual and while it is soundly grounded in available source material, I am not convinced that the full-length study makes the historiographical contribution one might like.

Far more important to the understanding of black America and to the understanding that white historians have of black America is the publication of a number of essays by August Meier. *A White Scholar and the Black Community, 1945-1965* includes Meier's essays on teaching in traditionally black colleges, thoughts on the life of a white scholar studying black America, and difficult-to-find pieces from the *Crisis, Liberation,* and *New Politics.* Notwithstanding the fact that the essays were written in other contexts, they still have much to say as we grapple with issues of the role of traditionally black institutions or of divisions within the black community. The preface to the collection is an insightful reflection by Meier on his career and his approach to his subject. Meier clearly was an early proponent of both applied and public history in that his reflections on black thought, his understandings of the divisions within black America, and his analyses of the relations between black and white America were all the basis for an active life in the NAACP and in the more general civil rights movement. Not content to merely serve the public, Meier also served his profession as he helped integrate the Southern Historical Association. Without question, the publication of these essays will help historians of the black experience better understand that experience and better understand August Meier.

Francis Marion University Thomas F. Armstrong

John Whiteclay Chambers II. *The Tyranny of Change: America in the Progressive Era, 1890-1920.* New York: St. Martin's Press, 1992. Second Edition. Pp. xiii, 333. Paper, $14.00.

John Whiteclay Chambers II of Rutgers University offers a thoughtful overview of that great episode of national housecleaning known as the progressive movement. He does this by describing and explaining the various efforts to uplift American life between the catastrophic depression of the 1890s and the era of the Great War. Unlike some authors who cover a particular historical period, Chambers provides his own interpretation, one that is sensible and fully developed. Generally speaking, he argues that the progressive movement marked the birth of modern America. But more than that, he sees it as a time of the "new interventionists." A plethora of individuals and groups correctly concluded that it was necessary to modify America's mostly unrestricted individualism and its poorly regulated marketplace. This stimulus came not merely from the post-Civil War phenomenon of industrialization and urbanization but from conditions produced by those five troubled years of the mid-1890s. "During the Progressive Era the interventionist, reformist mood stemmed from the traumatic disruptions of the depression of the 1890s," writes Chambers, "which helped convince many Americans that industrialization would not automatically cure its own ills and that purposeful action was required."

What is so valuable about *The Tyranny of Change* is that it contains the best and most recent scholarship of the progressive period. Chambers has a firm grasp of the historical literature, including such monumental works as David P. Thelen's *The New Citizenship: Origins of Progressivism in Wisconsin, 1885-1900* (1972) and Martin J. Sklar, *The Corporate Reconstruction of American Capitalism, 1890-1916: The Market, the Law, and Politics* (1988). So for either instructor or student, Chambers's book would provide a good overview of the period based on the leading historiography.

While *The Tyranny of Change* is not suited for introductory history students, it is appropriate for majors, advanced upper-division students, and graduate students. All groups will benefit from the concise bibliography. Although this section is hardly encyclopedic, it lists in an annotated format important works (articles and books) on a variety of topics.

Those individuals who cover the progressive movement in their American history survey or specialized courses will not only gain from Chambers's understanding of progressivism, but they will also benefit from some wonderful quotations and descriptive detail. Such materials can add to the attractiveness of anyone's lectures.

There are weaknesses to *The Tyranny of Change*, but they are minor. In the earliest parts, the narrative is poorly written, but then the over-all quality improves markedly. While it is difficult to consider *all* interpretations of a particular movement, Chambers would have profited had he incorporated the ideas presented by Albro Martin in his somewhat ignored study, *Enterprise Denied: Origins of the Decline of American Railroads, 1897-1917* (1971). Arguing that the political reformers ruined the railroad industry with unreasonable regulations, Martin sets out an excellent framework in which to examine carriers during the progressive era. But often such a conservative interpretation is slighted by scholars, particularly those who strive to be "politically correct."

Everyone who teaches American history for the decades of the 1890s through the 1910s should read *The Tyranny of Change*. The book holds considerable value for instructors and advanced students alike and is published in an attractive format.

University of Akron H. Roger Grant

Robert D. Marcus and David Burner. *America Since 1945*, Fifth edition. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1991. Pp. viii, 413. Paper, $19.95.

Those who teach survey classes in American history are constantly searching for supplemental readings to compensate for deficient texts and insufficient lecture time. Clearly, there is no singular publication that satisfies everyone's agenda, but the fifth edition of *America Since 1945* by Robert Marcus and David Burner is one to be seriously considered.

Divided into six chronological units, each major period and article are prefaced by introductory comments. One-half of the articles are new selections and reflect the need for the additions of recent topics and the re-thinking of history. Of the 34 selections, ten are primary documents. For the most part, secondary sources are well-chosen and significant. I have predicated my judgment about the articles upon their utility for the undergraduate survey course. I considered perhaps only five of the articles inappropriate.

The first section, concerning 1945-1952, offers the usual interpretations of the beginnings of the Cold War by Averill Harriman and revisionist Barton Bernstein. "Nixon Agonistes" by Gary Wills is interesting if only because it offers a defense of the "Checkers speech" by allowing that it was one of the few possibilities open to save Nixon's career after Eisenhower's abandonment. The rise of "Levittowns" and consequent social implications are well-illustrated by the new addition from Kenneth Jackson's *Crabgrass Frontier: The Suburbanization of the United States.*

The second section, which starts with a revisionist treatment of Eisenhower's presidency by Fred Greenstein, is highlighted by Burner's article from his book *The Torch Is Passed*. Clearly one of the best entries, Burner manages to present John F. Kennedy as the epitome of the "liberal cold warrior" and provides a balanced defense of both players in the Cold War. The "Army-McCarthy Hearings" by Thomas Reeves is seriously flawed by an inadequate introduction. Despite my foreknowledge of the scenario, I had difficulty determining the charges against David Schine and his connection to McCarthy.

Part three, the largest of the sections, dealing with 1962-1968, is the most useful. Providing the missing link in many textbooks, this section illustrates the civil rights movement in academic and personal perspectives, the Great Society, the beginning of the New Left, and excerpts of Betty Friedan's *The Feminine Mystique*. "Heroes of the Civil Rights Movement" by Howell Raines is a collection of oral interviews with those directly involved in the freedom rides, marches, sit-ins, and demonstrations. Equally poignant is "Breaking with the Past" by Anne Moody as she depicts "life in the trenches" as an early worker with the NAACP in Mississippi. Balance in the attitudes toward the battle for civil rights is achieved with the additions of King's "Letter from a Birmingham Jail," and "On Revolution" by Malcolm X. A frequently omitted topic in textbooks, the Great Society is discussed in "The War on Poverty" by Charles Murray and Johnson's speech, "The Great Society."

The Vietnam War is discussed in three articles, only one of which I would recommend for undergraduates. Gibson's "The Tet Offensive and a Double Reality" is too esoteric for most undergraduates, and McPherson's "Hawk vs. Dove" is marred by an obvious bias. Michael Herr's "Report from Vietnam" appears to parallel the day-to-day reality of the war. Jonathan Schell's article on Watergate is remarkable for its perspective but, even to those who experienced it, obscure and difficult to untangle. "Letter to Ms." is a delightful addition and reflects the changing roles in women's lives as few publications have done.

Considering that part six was published in 1991, it is tainted by its omissions. Although containing such highly significant additions as "Joey's Problem," "The End of Nature," and "The Chicano Community," it is seriously flawed by the lack of information on "Glasnost," "perestroika," and Eastern Europe. In fact, these omissions make some of Paul Kennedy's "The United States in Relative Decline" appear outdated. The new primary source, "Supreme Court Cases on Abortion," is appropriate but requires very careful reading.

This work could be easily incorporated into a graduate history course and, with the above exceptions as noted, into a survey course. The primary sources would be useful also as lecture material.

Cooke County College Sandra Weldin