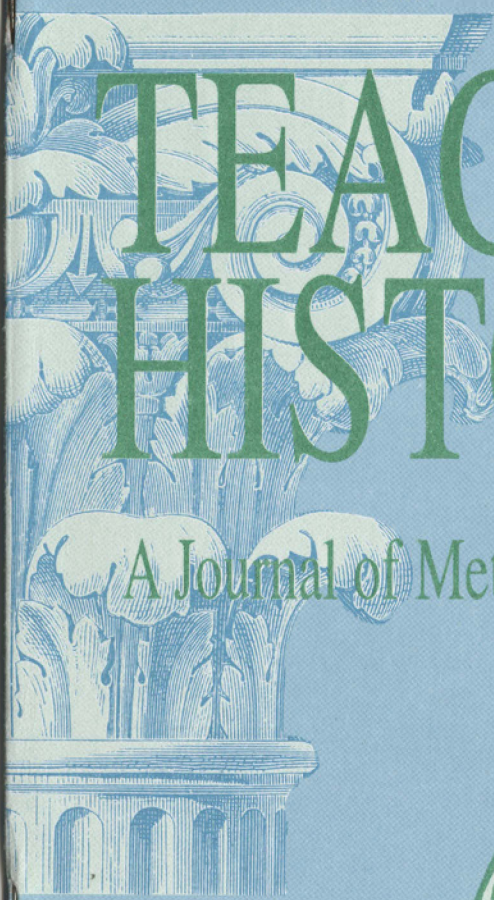
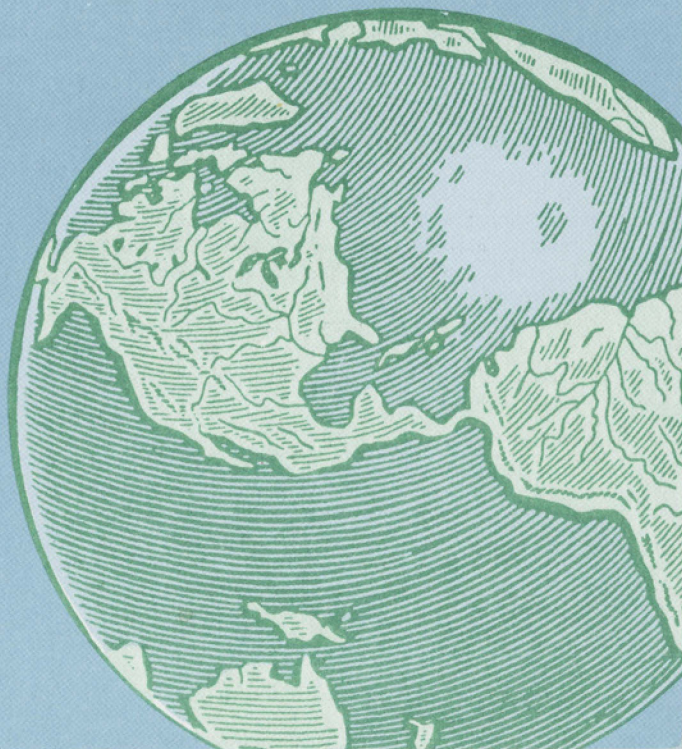


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TEACHING HISTORY

A Journal of Methods

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TEACHING HISTORY
A JOURNAL OF METHODS

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THE USE OF SIMULATION AS A TEACHING STRATEGY FOR CIVIC UNDERSTANDING AND PARTICIPATION

Linda K. Menton
University of Hawai'i, Manoa

Introduction

Simulations are generally considered a highly effective pedagogical tool. They involve students in inquiry-based, problem-solving activities that integrate content and process. Furthermore, simulations are motivational and require argumentation and reflection.¹ The purpose of this paper is to present a model simulation that can be used with college or high school students to prepare them to participate in civic discourse about reparations as an important public policy issue. Although this simulation focuses specifically on Native Hawaiians and the history of their relationship with the state and federal governments, an issue of important contemporary debate in Hawai'i and recently in Congress, it can be adapted to discuss the issue of reparations for other groups who have reason to believe they may be entitled to compensation from the government, whether at the federal, state, or local levels. This report, therefore, includes information on the concept of reparations and provides historical information explaining why Native Hawaiians might be entitled to them. It then outlines the simulation itself, including questions to be used for debriefing. It concludes with specific suggestions as to how the simulation can be adapted to be used with other groups who might be considered eligible for reparations.

The Concept of Reparations

Although many Native Hawaiians today are seeking the restoration of their land and their self-governing powers in the context of Hawaiian sovereignty and self-

¹ Although simulation is generally believed to be an effective instructional strategy, it should be noted that research has indicated that there is little difference in student performance whether simulations/games or conventional instruction is used. See Josephine M. Randel, Barbara Morris, C. Douglas Wetzel and Betty V. Whitehill, "The Effectiveness of Games for Educational Purposes: A Review of Recent Research," *Simulation and Gaming, An International Journal of Theory, Design, and Research*, 23 (September 1992), 261-275. See also John Dekkers and Stephen Donatti, "The Integration of Research Studies on the Use of Simulation as an Instructional Strategy," *Journal of Educational Research*, 74 (July-August 1981), 424-427. While some studies indicate students using simulations/games show greater retention of material over time than those using conventional instruction (Randel, et al., 269), other studies contradict this finding (Dekkers and Donatti, 426-27). However, students do report more interest in simulation and game activities than in conventional instruction (Randel, et al., 269), and simulation as an instructional strategy seems to be more effective than the lecture method for attitude formation (Dekker and Donatti, 426). For information regarding designing and determining the effectiveness of simulations, see Linda Morra, "The Discrepancy Evaluation Model: A Strategy for Improving Simulation and Determining Effectiveness," paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (March 1978), 26 pages. See especially 11-14 for concepts that can be used to determine the face validity of a simulation.

determination, this simulation focuses on a more limited issue: reparations for Native Hawaiians. Reparations are usually defined as the settlement of a claim for monetary compensation. Reparations is also the term that historically has referred to the compensation a defeated country must make for damages or injury to the enemy during war. Although it may seem something of a misnomer—restitution might be a more appropriate word—reparations has been the term most often used in regard to the settlement of Native Hawaiian claims and it is the term used in this simulation.² Even though the word reparations usually connotes monetary compensation, in this simulation reparations may include any or all of the following: cash, land, and educational and cultural programs.

Reparations are a highly complex and often very emotionally charged issue. Debating whether or not a specific group of people may be entitled to reparations requires a knowledge of the history of that group and its relationship with the government, most often the federal government. Reparations have legal, constitutional, and moral implications. Depending on the group involved, claims to reparations may be based in treaties, in international law, in the Fifth Amendment protection against being deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, in the "equal protection" clause of the Fourteenth Amendment, or in any combination of the provisions, terms, and/or protections offered in these legal documents.³

Students probably will be familiar with the concept of reparations in relation to Japanese Americans. Starting in 1990, the federal government began to issue reparations checks, in the amount of \$20,000 per person, to approximately 60,000 individuals of Japanese ancestry, who were interned under the authority of Executive Order 9066 during World War II. Less well known are the reparations paid to surviving Aleuts of the Aleutian and Pribilof Islands of Alaska who were also evacuated during the war. The Aleuts were removed to deplorable relocation camps in southeast Alaska where it is estimated at least ten percent of them died. As of May 1993, a total of 524 Aleuts had been paid reparations of \$12,000 each; 22 more cases are pending.⁴

² Melody Kapilialoha MacKenzie, ed., *Native Hawaiian Rights Handbook* (Honolulu: Native Hawaiian Legal Corporation and the Office of Hawaiian Affairs, 1991), 80 and 100. See also Henry Campbell Black, *Black's Law Dictionary* (St. Paul, MN: West Publishing Company, 1983), 674 and 682.

³ For information regarding the rights of Native Hawaiians to reparations, see Mari Matsuda, "Minority Critique of CLS: Looking to the Bottom," *Harvard Civil Rights—Civil Liberties Law Review*, 22 (Spring 1987), 369-373. For a discussion of the land claims of native Americans, including Hawaiians, see Linda S. Parker, *Native American Estate: The Struggle over Indian and Hawaiian Lands* (Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 1989).

⁴ There are numerous sources on the subject of the wartime internment of people of Japanese ancestry. For basic information on this subject, see Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians, *Personal Justice Denied* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1982). Information about Aleuts and Pribilof Islanders can also be found in *Personal Justice Denied*, 18-23 and 317-359. Information about reparations paid to Aleuts received in personal communication from the Department of the Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Tribal Operations Office, Juneau, Alaska, May 3, 1993.

The Historical Context for Hawaiian Reparations

The simulation of a reparations hearing described here was originally written as a culminating activity for a unit in a high school history textbook, *A History of Hawai'i*.⁵ The reparations hearing is the final activity in the first unit of the text. That unit discusses the political, economic, social, and land history of Hawai'i from pre-contact times, that is, before the coming of foreigners in 1778, until 1900. The four chapters in the unit emphasize the impact of Westernization on the indigenous Hawaiian culture during that time period. Successive lessons describe how chiefly rule was supplanted by a constitutional monarchy, how a subsistence economy became a market economy, and how native Hawaiian society changed with the coming of American missionaries and the establishment of Christianity and a Western school system. The last chapter, which focuses on land history, describes how land, once the domain of the gods and owned by no one, became privatized, a commodity to be bought and sold. The watershed event in this unit is the overthrow of the Hawaiian monarchy in 1893 with the support of American troops, and the subsequent annexation of Hawai'i to the United States five years later.

Today, one hundred years after the loss of the Hawaiian Kingdom, Native Hawaiians are seeking justice from the American government for the loss of their lands, their culture, and their sovereign nation.⁶ When Hawai'i was annexed in 1898, the Republic of Hawai'i ceded almost two million acres of what were then called Crown and Government lands to the United States. The federal government used some of these lands for military bases and parks and turned the management of the rest over to the Territory of Hawai'i. In 1959 when Hawai'i became a state, the federal government continued to use some of these lands, now called ceded lands, and turned the remainder over to the State of Hawai'i to be held in trust for all the people of Hawai'i. The Admissions Act, the legislation that made Hawai'i a state, specified that 20 percent of the monies from these ceded lands was to be used for the betterment of the condition of Native Hawaiians, specifically those of at least 50 percent blood quantum. These Native Hawaiians have documented, however, that historically they have received 20 percent of the income from only certain ceded lands, not all of them, such as the highly lucrative property where the Honolulu International Airport is located. Today the state and federal governments still own about 40 percent of Hawai'i's land.⁷

⁵ Linda Menton and Eileen Tamura, *A History of Hawai'i* (Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, Curriculum Research & Development Group, 1989).

⁶ Although the mainland press uses the term "Hawaiian" to refer to anyone who lives in the Islands, this usage is incorrect. Hawaiians are the indigenous people of Hawai'i. Today Native Hawaiians number about 220,000 in Hawai'i's population of approximately one million. For information about Hawai'i's population by ethnic group, see *State of Hawaii Data Book*, (Honolulu: Department of Business, Economic Development and Tourism, 1991), 40-41.

⁷ It should be noted that the State of Hawai'i and the Office of Hawaiian Affairs, which was established in 1978 by constitutional amendment to serve all Hawaiians, recently negotiated an initial settlement of \$136 million dollars for monies owed by the state to those Native Hawaiian people of 50

Although land is a very critical issue for Native Hawaiians in their quest for reparations and more recently for sovereignty, other issues are also frequently discussed in the same context. These include the involvement of the American government in the coup that forced the abdication of Queen Lili'uokalani in 1893, and the concomitant destruction of Hawaiian sovereignty, as well as the deprecation of the Hawaiian language and culture that occurred in the wake of the American takeover. Today Native Hawaiians, who comprise approximately 20 percent of the state's population, have one of the highest cancer rates in the nation. They have the lowest life expectancy and the highest infant mortality rate among ethnic groups in Hawai'i. They are dramatically underrepresented in the university student and faculty populations, overrepresented in the prison and welfare populations, and have the lowest median income of any ethnic group in the state.⁸

By the time they have completed the first four chapters in *A History of Hawai'i*, students are expected to be thoroughly familiar with the historical events and information described above. Although they are not expected to be knowledgeable about the more legalistic aspects of subjects such as Hawaiians' trust relationships with the state and federal governments, they are required to understand such terms as Crown lands, Government lands, and ceded lands. They then take part in a simulated congressional hearing on the subject of reparations for Native Hawaiians.

Besides learning about reparations *per se*, and synthesizing historical information, this simulation requires students to sharpen their basic skills. They must write persuasively, speak convincingly before the class, and listen to and rebut opposing points of view. Just as importantly this simulation can prepare students to take part as responsible adults in civic discourse on this and other issues at public hearings. Congressional study commissions have met in Honolulu and the Neighbor Islands twice in recent memory to hold hearings on the subject of Native Hawaiians claims. The current sovereignty movement will assuredly involve similar public debate. High school students, who will soon become voters, need to learn how to take part in these and similar public meetings as informed and knowledgeable members of a democratic society. As the recent framework for civic education, *Civitas*, points out:

Our representative democracy is based on the long cherished idea that for democracy to work, citizens must engage in debate with one another on policy issues; public officials must come to learn about the views and concerns and hopes that citizens hold on these issues; and citizens in various ways, must act on policy issues. It is central to this democratic tradition that the policy process takes the form of continuous public debate.⁹

percent or more blood quantum for the use of ceded lands.

⁸ For information on Hawaiians' income, life expectancy, and health, see George S. Kanahele, *Current Facts and Figures About Hawaiians* (Honolulu: Project WAIAHA, 1982). See also, Native Hawaiian Research Consortium, Medical Task Force, *E Ola Mau: The Native Hawaiian Health Needs Study* (Honolulu: Alu Like Inc., 1985).

⁹ Charles N. Quigley and Charles F. Bahmueller, eds., *Civitas, A Framework for Civic Education* (Calabasas, CA: Center for Civic Education, 1991), 638.

A Reparations Hearing Before a Congressional Study Commission

Instructions for the Teacher

This activity, including student preparation time, will take five or six class periods of approximately 50 minutes each. This does not include the time necessary to gather and evaluate resources from the library if textbook material is inadequate. The number of students in each group can be expanded or contracted depending on class size. As given here, there are roles for 26 students. Both sides, pro and con, should have the same number of students, and the number of students in each group should be the same for both sides. Students should be given a copy of **Directions for Students**, as given here or as adapted.

The teacher needs to decide how student roles will be determined. Some teachers may have students sign up for roles, others might determine roles randomly by writing each role on a slip of paper and having students draw a slip from a paper bag. Still other teachers may want to balance the pro and con teams by assigning roles and being sure there are strong members on each side. Students can be assigned to a position they do not personally agree with; they need to learn to argue a point of view that differs from their own on a subject. At the end of the hearing all students will be given an opportunity to express their personal opinion on the issue of reparations, pro or con, regardless of the role they played during the simulation.

Before the students begin to work, the teacher needs to decide how students will be graded for this activity and communicate that clearly to the class. Will individual grades be given, group grades, or both? Will students be required to turn in their written work? How will their oral presentations be evaluated? Note that each side, pro and con, has a position for a student coordinator. During both the preparation phase and the simulation itself, the teacher should delegate the coordination of this activity to these students. Doing so frees the teacher to observe and evaluate students, and to serve as more of a consultant rather than as the director of the simulation.

Once students have been assigned their roles, the teacher should go over the questions to be addressed at the hearing (see **Questions** in the section entitled **Directions for Students**). The teacher should then read aloud the sample testimony (see **Sample Testimony** immediately below). Students should not be given copies of the sample testimony, but should listen and take notes as the teacher reads. This will give them some models to base their work on while precluding their simply copying the information in the samples.

Sample Testimony

For the teacher

Sample Testimony: For Reparations*

Hawaiians United

Honorable Members of the Reparations Commission, my name is _____ and I represent a membership of 500 Native Hawaiians who belong to an organization called Hawaiians United. We believe that the United States government owes us, the Hawaiian

people, some recompense or reparations for the wrongs that were done to us when the monarchy was overthrown in 1893.

We believe that the United States, through its representatives in Hawai'i at the time, was responsible for the loss of the Kingdom of Hawai'i. When the monarchy was overthrown we lost our ruler, Queen Lili'uokalani. We lost lands that had belonged to the Crown and to the government. That land was eventually given or ceded to the American government when Hawai'i was annexed to the United States in 1898.

We believe that Hawaiians should be compensated in two ways:

1. Ceded lands that belonged to us should be returned to the Hawaiian people to administer as they see fit through elected representatives.
2. Monies from those lands that are presently being used, such as the land the Honolulu International Airport is built on, should go to aid as many Hawaiians as possible. The income from those ceded lands now in use should be used for the education of Hawaiian children and adults and for developing programs to preserve our language, culture, and history.

Thank you for your attention.

*To the best of the author's knowledge, neither the Hawaiians United nor the Hawai'i Taxpayers' Association is a real organization, nor are the views expressed here meant to reflect the positions or beliefs of any existing organization.

For the teacher

Sample Testimony: For Reparations

Honorable members of the Reparations Commission, my name is _____. I live on the Big Island and I am a Native Hawaiian. I am here today to ask this commission to give serious consideration to reparations for Native Hawaiians. For many years, we, the Hawaiian people, flourished in isolation from the rest of the world. But after the foreigners came, including Americans, we could no longer live in isolation. We watched our land and our resources being destroyed as successive waves of traders and whalers came and took our sandalwood and whales and left behind diseases we had never known before, diseases that decimated our population. We lost our lands. Foreigners, including American citizens and American companies, gained them. Now, we Hawaiians are strangers on our own country.

Today we Hawaiians have serious health problems—we have a shorter life expectancy than any other group in Hawai'i and more Hawaiian babies die in infancy than in any other ethnic group. I suggest that the United States government grant reparations to Hawaiians in the form of cash payments that would be used for medical, cultural, and educational purposes. For every native Hawaiian of 50 percent or more blood quantum, \$10,000 would be allocated; for every Hawaiian of less than 50 percent blood quantum, \$5,000 would be allocated. This money would be invested to earn maximum interest. The money would be administered by elected representatives of the Hawaiian people to benefit all Hawaiians.

Thank you for your attention.

For the teacher

Sample Testimony: Anti-Reparations

The Taxpayers Against Reparations

Honorable Members of the Reparations Committee, my name is _____ and I am the president of the Taxpayers against Reparations. There are about one thousand members in our organization, and our main purpose is to see to it that our taxes are spent wisely and well.

If reparations are given to Native Hawaiians, the tax burden on every American citizen and every citizen in Hawai'i will increase. It does not matter how reparations are granted, it will still cost money, and we will have to pay for it. In fact, Hawaiians themselves, unless they are exempted, will have to pay taxes for their own reparations.

The Taxpayers Against Reparations does not argue that reparations are not needed because no wrong was ever done to the Hawaiian people. Our objection is to using tax money to right that wrong. After all, none of us, or our children, were alive in 1893 when the Hawaiian Kingdom was overthrown. Why then should we be expected to pay for these wrongs a hundred years later?

Thank you for your attention.

For the teacher

Sample Testimony: Anti-Reparations

Honorable members of the Reparations Committee, my name is _____ and I am here to speak against reparations for Native Hawaiians. First of all, I disagree with those who state that the American government was responsible for the overthrow of the monarchy. True, Americans were involved, even American officials, but they were acting on their own, not on orders from Washington. As for the loss of land, we the citizens of Hawai'i have been compensated for this loss already because money from the lands ceded to the American government goes to pay for public buildings and parks. Native Hawaiians of 50 percent or more blood quantum are already entitled to 20 percent of the income generated by lands ceded to the American government so long ago.

I recognize that there are social problems that the Hawaiian people may suffer from more than other people in Hawai'i, but I think the solutions already exist. Every child is already entitled to a free public education. We don't need to set up another education system for Hawaiian children. Our community is full of doctors and hospitals to take care of all of us when we are sick. We do not need to set up special health care for Hawaiians. I suggest that if the Hawaiian community would use the resources that already exist in our community, the problems that have been discussed here could be solved without imposing additional burdens on the American taxpayers.

Thank you for your attention.

Directions for Students**A Reparations Hearing**

Reparations are generally considered as the settlement of a claim for cash payment. Some people think that Native Hawaiians should be compensated for the loss of their lands, their government, and to a great extent, their culture, as a result of the overthrow of the Hawaiian monarchy in 1893. They point out that the American government was involved in deposing the Hawaiian queen, Lili'uokalani, and then officially annexed Hawai'i in 1898. Congressional study commissions have met in Honolulu several times recently to discuss these issues.

The following exercise is a simulation, an attempt to recreate, such a hearing. For this exercise you will be assigned a role and a position, pro or con, on the issue of reparations for the Hawaiian people. You may be assigned a position you do not agree with. Defend the position as best you can. In this simulation almost everyone must speak at least once, so whatever your role, you will have to prepare for it carefully to present the best possible case for your side's position. The following pages outline the duties and responsibilities of groups and individuals debating the following:

Be it resolved that:

A wrong has been committed against the Native Hawaiian people that the federal government is obliged to remedy.

The groups involved in this hearing are

The study commission. The commission is made up of four members of Congress. Two are Republicans, two are Democrats. Two are from the mainland, two are from Hawai'i. Each has one staff member to assist with research and questions.

The pro-reparations group. The pro-reparations group consists of three organizations representing various Hawaiian groups. The organizations speak for their members. Five other individuals will speak for themselves in favor of reparations. One coordinator will be assigned to this group to coordinate the testimony of all these speakers.

The anti-reparations group. The anti-reparations group consists of three organizations who represent taxpayers and other groups opposed to reparations. These organizations speak for their members. Five other individuals will speak for themselves against reparations. One coordinator will be assigned to this group to coordinate the testimony of all these speakers.

Questions

These are the questions that must be addressed in deciding on reparations. All groups must study all the questions to be able to prepare testimony and respond to questions. The commission must study all the questions to be able to ask questions and come to a sound decision on the issues.

1. Are the Native Hawaiian people entitled to the reparations because
 - a. representatives of the American government were responsible for the overthrow of the Hawaiian monarchy in 1893?
 - b. they lost their land? Should those who are at least half Hawaiian be entitled to more than 20 percent of the income from what are today called ceded lands?
 - c. they lost their culture, and more particularly, because thousands of Hawaiians suffered and died from diseases brought by foreigners, including Americans?
2. Who should get reparations and why?
 - a. Should reparations be given to all Hawaiians? Why or why not?
 - b. Should only Hawaiians of 50 percent blood quantum, that is, only those who are at least one-half Hawaiian, be entitled to reparations? Why or why not?
3. What form should reparations take?
 - a. Should reparations be in cash? Why or why not?
 - b. Should reparations be in land? Why or why not?
 - c. Should reparations be in the form of funds for cultural and educational programs? Why or why not?
 - d. Are there other ways of granting reparations? Or should the three suggestions above be combined?
4. Who should pay for reparations, if any, and why?

Assignments and Duties

Student directions

Groups	Number of students	Reading/research information	Duties
The study commission	4	Chapters 1, 2, 3, and 4	The commissioners must elect a chairperson to run the hearing. They must listen to testimony from both sides and ask intelligent questions. Therefore, commissioners must study the issues that those testifying will address. Commissioners should take notes on the readings and develop a list of questions they intend to ask, and they should formulate questions throughout the hearings to clarify the issues. Finally, the commission must make recommendations for or against reparations.
The researchers	4	Chapters 1, 2, 3, and 4	Researchers assist the commissioners in reading all materials and in formulating questions. They should divide the workload among themselves and their respective commissioners and then brief each other. Commissioners should ask their researchers for their opinions and should ask them to locate information that is needed. Researchers should prepare name cards to stand on the commissioners' table to identify the members of the commission.
The pro-reparations group	8	Chapters 1, 2, 3, and 4	The pro-reparations group consists of representatives of three Hawaiian organizations and five persons speaking as individuals. The three people testifying for organizations should choose names for each group. The pro-reparations group members must present testimony favorable to reparations. They must anticipate and intelligently answer the commission's questions. They must anticipate and be prepared to rebut the other side's arguments. During the hearing all group members must take notes to assist their coordinator in preparing a summary and rebuttal statement.

Assignments and Duties—continued

Student directions

Groups	Number of students	Reading/research information	Duties
The anti-reparations group	8	Chapters 1, 2, 3, and 4	The anti-reparations group consists of three persons speaking for three organizations and five persons speaking as individuals. The three persons speaking for groups should each choose an appropriate name for their group. The anti-reparations side must present testimony favorable to its side, that is, against reparations. They must anticipate and intelligently answer the commission's questions. They must be prepared to rebut the testimony of the opposing side. During the hearing all group members must take notes to assist the coordinator in preparing a summary and rebuttal statement.
The coordinators	2	Chapters 1, 2, 3, and 4	It is the coordinator's responsibility to see that his or her group addresses all questions listed. This person should be sure that all questions have been addressed and that there is repetition of testimony only when it is necessary to impress the commission. At the end of the hearings, after all testimony has been heard, the coordinator will present a rebuttal of the other side's points. Therefore, during the hearings he or she must take notes and be prepared to point out any inaccuracies stated by the opposition. The coordinator must also summarize the testimony of his or her group. Each coordinator will be given 3 minutes to speak.

Timetable**Day 1**

Choose or be assigned to roles. The teacher will go over procedures and questions that must be addressed. The teacher will read sample testimonies; students will take notes.

Days 2 & 3

Meet in respective groups and divide responsibilities. Begin to research and write testimony; those testifying should speak for about 2 minutes and expect to be questioned for at least another minute. Commission members prepare questions.

Day 4

Finish writing testimony. Work in pairs within your respective groups and practice giving your testimony. Be sure that neither side hears the other side's testimony at this time. The coordinator reviews all testimony to see that all points have been addressed.

Days 5 & 6

Mock commission hearing using procedure outlined as follows.

Procedure for the Hearing

The commissioners should sit together at a table at the front of the room with their staff members behind them.

The chairperson of the commission is to call for testimony and maintain decorum. After a person has testified, the commissioners should question the person and clarify any points that are not clear.

Those testifying should address the commission and be ready for questions. Testimony should not be read, but the person testifying may glance at notes if necessary. The person testifying should state his or her name and the organization, if any, that he or she is representing. The commissioners should be addressed as the Honorable Mr. or Ms. _____. Each person testifying should talk for about 2 minutes and be prepared for another minute of questions from the commissioners.

The pro and con sides should alternate testifying on each question. All the pro witnesses should testify for Question 1. Then all the con witnesses should testify against Question 1. Questions 2, 3, and 4 should be argued in the same way.

After all the testimony has been heard, there should be a 5-minute break to allow each side to confer and prepare a summary and rebuttal statement. This statement must

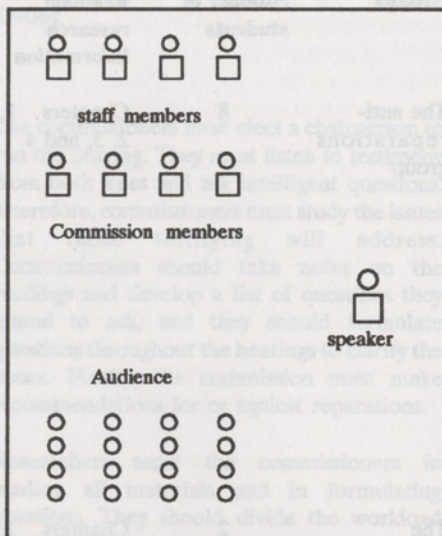


Diagram of hearing

Student directions

be delivered by the coordinator for each side. The statement should take about 3 minutes to deliver.

The commission then confers and votes on the issue of reparations. Commissioners must respond to all four questions and subquestions, explaining why they think as they do. In real hearings, the commission recommends to the entire Congress what it thinks should be done or not be done. In this simulation, the commissioners should give their decision on the issue of reparations to those present and tell what they will recommend to their colleagues in Congress. If Congress were to approve of reparations, funding would come from American taxpayers.

Your Own Opinion

After the simulation is completed, the coordinators will distribute secret ballots to the class which will then vote for (yes) or against (no) reparations. Voters may vote as they personally choose on the secret ballot, even if during the simulation they had to speak for the other point of view.

Coordinators should count the votes and put the results on the board. Then the class will take part in a debriefing session.

Debriefing

Debriefing is an opportunity to discuss and evaluate what happened during the simulation. Here are some discussion questions:

1. Did the commission's vote and the class vote match? If so, why do you think this happened? If not, why not?
2. Do you think the commissioners and the class voted on the merits of this issue or were other factors involved? If other factors were involved, what were some of them? Do these factors affect real-life decisions on issues?
3. How did you react to the statements made, pro and con? Did they help you understand the issues? Do you think listening to people testify at public hearings is a good way for elected officials to learn about issues? Are public hearings a good way to help the general public learn about an issue?
4. What do you think the class as a whole could have done to improve the simulation? If you had to do it again, what would you do differently?
5. Write a brief essay, about one page long, beginning with this statement:

I agree/disagree that a wrong was committed against the Native Hawaiian people which the federal government is obliged to remedy.

Give reasons for your opinion. You will not be graded on whether or not you agree or disagree with the statement but on how well you support your opinion.

Student Response to the Simulation

Student response to this simulation has been positive. The simulation was initially pilot-tested with two heterogeneously-grouped ninth-grade social studies classes at the University

of Hawai'i Laboratory School. An in-house questionnaire was distributed to these 45 students. Students were asked how difficult they found this activity (difficult, just right, or too easy). They were also asked how much they liked the activity (liked, liked a little, disliked). Finally they were asked how much they had learned from the activity (learned, learned a little, learned nothing). Table 1 presents their responses. Almost half of the students rated the activity difficult, while slightly more than half rated it just right; none found it too easy. The majority of the students liked the activity or liked it a little; only two students disliked it. The majority of the students, three out of four, said they had learned from the activity and one out of four said they had learned a little; none said they had learned nothing.

Table 1
Student Responses to Reparations Activity
Percent of Student Responses

N=45

Difficult 49%	Just Right 51%	Too Easy 0%	100%
Liked 67%	Liked a little 29%	Disliked 4%	100%
Learned 76%	Learned a little 24%	Learned nothing 0%	100%

Students were also asked which of the nine activities they liked best or least in the chapter materials on land history they had just completed. Forty seven percent chose the reparations hearing as the activity they liked best. Twenty percent said it was the activity they liked least; the remainder of the students chose other activities as the most or least liked activities. Informal anecdotal information from teachers has consistently indicated positive teacher and student reaction to this simulation.

Adapting the Simulation

This simulation can be easily adapted to address the issue of reparations for other groups besides Native Hawaiians. Such groups could include Native American Indian tribes, Alaskan Natives, including Aleuts relocated during World War II, people of Japanese, Italian, or German ancestry who were also interned during the war, or African Americans whose ancestors were slaves. Before beginning to adapt this simulation, the teacher must be sure that students will have access to information about an affected group and its relationship to government in textbooks and in other materials available through the library or other sources.

Assuming such materials are available, the following sections of the simulation need to be changed:

- A. The **Sample Testimony** must be rewritten to reflect the history of the group of people seeking reparations.
- B. In **Directions for Students**, the following sections must be adapted:
 1. The introduction and the "Be it resolved" sentence.
 2. The specific information in the subsection regarding the "groups" involved in the hearing must be revised to be relevant. At least one member of the study commission should be from the home state or the racial or ethnic group of the people seeking reparations; however, the commission should be balanced with insiders and outsiders.
 3. The "Questions" section will need to address the issues appropriate to the group seeking reparations.
 4. The "Reading and research information" on the "Assignments and Duties" page will need to reflect the sources students are expected to consult. All students should have access to all available sources of information.

Conclusion

All too often history teachers listen to students complain, "This stuff is boring, what does it have to do with me?" Simulations provide teachers and students with a valuable means of making history come alive. Properly designed and used, simulation can be a valuable tool. This simulation was designed to help students learn or reinforce a variety of skills from the simple to the complex. In researching, writing, and then orally presenting their arguments for or against reparations, for example, students sharpened their basic reading, writing and speaking skills. The structure of the simulation itself, with its specific directions as to what questions and issues were to be addressed, gave students a means of synthesizing very complex historical information. This synthesis then provided them with the background needed to understand larger historical issues and trends, to comprehend, for example, that many of Hawai'i's most important contemporary political issues, including reparations and sovereignty for Native Hawaiians, are the direct results of events that happened long ago.

Although the simulation did appear to help students understand the links between the past and the present, this did not mean that they then reacted positively to the idea of reparations for Native Hawaiians. During the pilot testing, and during subsequent use of the simulation with other University of Hawaii Laboratory School classes, students consistently voted "no" on their secret ballots when asked if they believed Native Hawaiians should be paid reparations. Although the purpose of the simulation was emphatically not to convince students that such reparations should be paid, but rather to give them the opportunity to learn about and address a controversial issue in a simulated public forum, this result was unexpected, particularly at the University Laboratory School where Native Hawaiian students are overrepresented in a student population selected to mirror that of the Hawai'i public school population in terms of ethnicity, socio-economic status, and ability levels. It is not clear, even after reading student narratives explaining their views on the subject, exactly why students voted as they did. It is possible that students are reflecting

what is sometimes being said in the larger community on the issue. It may be that once students learned in the simulation that monies for reparations would come from the taxpayers, they chose, like many Americans do in real life, to use the privacy afforded by a secret ballot to vote their pocketbooks. Or it may be that students reacted to social pressure in the classroom unknown to the teacher. Whatever the reasons, these student choices certainly call into question our pedagogical assumptions that knowledge, in this instance knowledge gained through intensive examination of an issue, informs opinions and decision-making. Further study, therefore, is warranted to determine if and why students from a variety of ethnic and socio-economic backgrounds using this simulation, or an adaptation of it, both in Hawai'i and on the Mainland, would choose to make the same decision as the students described here have consistently done.

Note: Teachers who are interested in participating in a comparative study with their students are requested to contact the author at the University of Hawai'i, 1776 University Avenue, Honolulu, Hawai'i 96822. Phone (808) 956-6719, Fax (808) 956-4114.

CAVEAT NEOPHYTUS: SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR NEW TEACHERS

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Ten years ago I was hired to teach part-time at St. Francis College, a small Catholic college in Brooklyn, New York. I was a young graduate student at Columbia at the time and the job was my first. The first semester was a harrowing one; by the time I was through it, I was convinced my teaching career was over. The chairman was of little help; indeed, at the time he seemed to me an aloof and absolute despot. On one occasion, when he appeared quite suddenly to observe, I was frightened into silence. Still he must have seen something worthwhile for he continued to invite me back for several years, and colleagues, looking over his observation reports, tried to console me by pointing out that he never found fault with the content of my lectures. My fears were not allayed, however, and I kept thinking: "If only someone had told me what to expect."

I began that first summer not knowing whether I would ever teach again. But I was determined to write some day about what I had learned and share what I had picked up with some of my fellow graduate students. The result, from a decade ago, is the short essay on pedagogy that follows. I think it says things that a beginning teacher ought to hear.

Anyone who has glanced at position available notices over the past several years is aware of the ever-present qualifier, "Three years teaching experience required," attached to even most junior appointments. Almost everyone wants experience, though few are willing to provide it. The reason for this is simple: Department chairs know that learning to teach can be almost as difficult as acquiring a Ph.D. Yet graduate programs in the humanities usually do not require courses in educational methods and many students complete their degrees without having had an opportunity to acquire teaching experience.

Fortunately, I was hired to teach part-time despite my lack of previous teaching experience. The experience proved time consuming and, on occasion, nerve-wracking, but I learned a great deal. In the process I was forced to revise some initial assumptions about teaching and students. Discussions with teachers and fellow graduate students left me with the impression that many of these assumptions are common to beginning teachers. Yet it seems that some headaches and mistakes might have been avoided had I only been made aware of what to expect.

Some of the more common assumptions are discussed below. While they are all the result of one individual's reflection upon one particular teaching situation, hopefully they are general enough to have value to others starting their teaching careers.

1. IT'S NOT GOING TO BE A BREEZE.

Any experienced instructor—if he is honest—will tell you that a tremendous amount of time and effort goes into writing up lectures for a new course. For those who have yet to write their first set of lectures, the time factor is compounded accordingly. Three hours of teaching does not translate into three hours of preparation. Nor will the standard undergraduate formula of three hours of study for each classroom hour suffice. At the start, one can expect to spend approximately thirty hours a week in preparing a course. It sounds like a lot of time and it is, but if you are conscientious about what you are doing, it cannot be avoided. First, you are reading the textbooks; usually you will read the material twice, once for content and once for note-taking. Then there is the supplementary reading that is needed to add flesh and bone to the marrow of the text. After this comes the task of writing up the lectures. No easy task in itself, it is made somewhat easier if there is an outline of the material in the text. Once this is all done, there remains a further concern: How are you going to interest your students in what you have to say? A sixty-minute monologue repeated class after class can get to be quite boring; or, if you are not the boring type, your silver-toned voice may induce slumber. Diversify your presentation; students possess more than the sense of hearing. Use maps, slides, films, sound recordings, or whatever other material may be available to you. These will not only increase attention spans by adding a certain amount of qualitative liveliness to your class, but get students to use intellectual faculties that might otherwise remain dormant.

As the term progresses and you begin to get a feel for what you are doing (usually around midterm), your preparation time will diminish by about a third. But any change is more apparent than real, for papers and exams are beginning to trickle in and grading them can be just as time consuming as preparing lectures. This task can be cut to the bone by using examinations that can be graded quickly by key or by speed reading students' papers. Students, however, often expect more. They want to know that you care about what they are doing and your remarks are frequently taken as a measure of that concern. Moreover, aside from being a historian, you are also a teacher. That obliges you to take an interest in aspects of your students' work that technically fall outside the scope of a history course. Consequently, you will find yourself called upon to spend valuable time teaching students spelling, the rudiments of grammar and composition, or, on a more advanced level, how to use a library. Granted, it is not what you bargained for, but as Settembrini in Mann's *The Magic Mountain* has said, "We are all humanists with a pedagogic itch."

2. YOU'RE THE TEACHER.

For the new Ph.D. or the graduate student serving as an adjunct or T.A., entering the classroom for the first time can cause a great deal of confusion about who you are. The only difference between the graduate student and the new Ph.D. (in this respect) is that the graduate student's position can be strained by his dual status as teacher-student. Apart from this, other things being equal, the graduate student and new Ph.D. may share a common problem: a role-identity conflict.

It is easy for a new teacher to fall into an "us-them" dichotomy, identifying more with the students than with the faculty or administration. After all, he is probably only a few years older than most of the students and has yet to reach thirty. Along with this is the nearness of his own student days; they may still be on going or, at best, a term or two distant. It would not be too difficult in such circumstances to empathize when the students begin to moan (as all students will) about the overly burdensome requirements or too literal enforcement of the school's cutting policy. That their moans and groans are directed to you should, however, tell you something—that as far as they are concerned, you are the teacher. You are the one in whom the college has invested the authority to set standards and enforce policies and, though the mantle you wear may not be that of Caesar, it should at least be one of Caesar's loyal lieutenants.

By identifying too closely with your students, not only do you contribute to the erosion of your own authority, you penalize them for your uncertainty. Eventually they will enter into your confusion as the pedagogical distance between you and the students begins to shrink. Your ambivalence will only serve to create a set of attitudes that cannot but hurt them: "He is my friend, he won't fail me" or "He only said that because he had to, he does not really mean it" are typical assumptions that can emerge from such a situation. Remember that while you can make teaching a subversive activity, he who sows the wind, to paraphrase Churchill, frequently reaps the whirlwind.

3. BE FIRM, FAIR, BUT MOST OF ALL, CONSISTENT.

This point appears as a corollary to what has just been said about the effect an instructor's uncertainty can have upon students. Ambiguity is the father of confusion and the grandfather of countless headaches. From the start, let your students know what you will require of them, though you must be fair in setting these expectations. Almost all of your students will be taking three or four other courses. Moreover, many of them may be holding down part-time jobs. Your requirements to a certain degree should be tailored to the school-work-personal commitments that your students have developed. Do not "soften" your standards, just be humane and realistic in setting them.

Once you have established requirements, and a syllabus is a good place to outline them, be firm in your insistence that they be respected. Diplomacy notwithstanding, compromises are not always for the better. By giving in to demands that you modify your requirements, you may unwittingly unleash a revolution of rising expectations—expectations of the wrong kind: "He canceled that assignment, let's see if we can't get him to scuttle this one, too." If you feel that the requirements ought to be altered, wait until the next term, if it is at all possible.

4. NICE GUYS WANT TO FINISH FIRST.

A somewhat cynical variation on an old cliché, but cynicism is often the result of idealism tempered by experience. On occasion you may find yourself dealing with students who, in addition to being as bright and personable as their peers, are uncommonly lazy. These are the ones who attempt to be graded according to the criteria of a charm school. Ever so polite and solicitous of your views, these students

are prominent in the give-and-take of classroom discussion, frequently initiate brief talks with you after class, and occasionally call on you for general chit-chat during your office hours. Yet when it comes to fulfilling the requirements of the course, they usually display an infuriating indifference to the required work.

It is not a matter of ability; in potential these students will probably rank in the top ten percent of the class. Rather, it seems that in the past they have found their personality and potential instrumental in excusing their lack of performance and they are simply adhering to a practice that has proven effective. The danger is that you too will buy into their charm and potential and excuse their lack of performance. What is occurring here, of course, is a subtle attempt at manipulation. We all naturally respond to charm and intelligence; that it is directed at us or the result of our stimulation is flattering. Consequently, we have a tendency, at times unfortunate, to make special allowances for those who possess them. To make such an allowance in a grading situation is, however, not only unfair to the majority of students, but is also in the long run a disservice to those "special" students as well. Eventually they will be caught short by such practices, and it is probably for their own good that it happen sooner rather than later. That the practice was not nipped in the bud is unfortunate, but that is no reason to allow it to burst into full bloom; sometimes a grade can be as therapeutic as a slap.

5. *DON'T PRESUME A KNOWLEDGE OF BASICS. HOWEVER, DON'T TEACH THROUGH CONDESCENSION.*

To one degree or another, most professors today rail against the decline in academic standards. They are appalled by how little students nowadays seem to know. One might surmise from this that the prevailing rule of thumb among educators from kindergarten through graduate school is "don't bother, they'll learn it next year." Most of those complaining about this deterioration fail to realize, however, that the complaint is a perennial one and that two generations ago, for example, Jacques Barzun was bewailing the "degree of incompetence now current and tolerated among the intelligent." So it seems that the decline in both instruction and learning has been underway for quite some time. However, entering the classroom for the first time, we are apt to forget this.

Fresh from several years of intensive training, we enter the classroom wanting to flex some finely honed intellectual muscles. That the majority of students are not able to respond is distressing; that some are not even able to feign a response can be disillusioning. Alas, students' repertoires are not what they used to be (if ever they were), but then, neither is life.

The Age of Universal Literacy was slow to come but fast to depart. Nowadays the medium is the message, so if it has not been set to music or put into film it is safe to assume that the subject is not yet part of a living cultural heritage for most students. Still, we are doing what we do because we believe that a knowledge of the past—chiefly acquired through nonauricular, nonvisual forms—can make a vital contribution to the quality of life we create for ourselves. To teach a course that presumes a knowledge of basics, without due regard for the students' prior learning experiences, is little more than academic snobbery, and one might be better off as a

cultural critic. There may be some who will praise your rigor (*mortis*), but it is doubtful that your students will be among them. Most of your students will be eager to learn provided you meet them half-way. Despite their previous experiences, a good many of them approach a new course with a certain sense of innocence and expectation. The tone you set during the first few meetings is crucial, for that is when either encouragement is fanned or experience opens its jaded eye for one last look before drifting off into the big sleep.

Though the cultural heritage is more akin to treasury bills than coin of the realm, it is nevertheless within the reach of everyone. All that we sometimes need to appreciate it is a good tour guide able to let us know what is out there in our own backyard. And perhaps this is the role the teacher should at times see himself in, calling attention to and explaining the unfamiliarity that abounds in the familiar world of our everyday lives. In order to do so, since most of us are not *Platos* capable of eliciting the Pythagorean Theorem from untutored minds, we should perhaps emulate Miss Hardcastle. She stooped to conquer.

6. KNOW WHERE YOUR STUDENTS ARE AT.

While at the beginning of a course you cannot presume that the majority of students are familiar with its content, you should expect them to acquire a certain degree of familiarity as the course progresses. Examinations frequently reveal, however, that even the most nodding acquaintance has yet to be achieved. One of the major reasons for this is that students very often assume that if they listen to your lectures they need not do any reading.

Although this assumption may have been induced by earlier experiences, it should not be reconfirmed by further experience. You should make clear at the start (if, indeed, it is to be the case) that your lectures will complement the text rather than repeat it. If the text provides the background upon which your lectures will expand, it is essential that you know how well your students have understood the material it presents. Examinations provide this information but only after the fact. As well, not a few of your students will have opened their textbooks for the first time only the evening prior to the examination. Being unfamiliar with the background material to your lectures, they probably did not comprehend adequately what you were saying and, lacking a sure footing, were too intimidated to ask questions.

This unfortunate sequence of events—not reading, not understanding, not questioning, not doing well—can be partially remedied by you. Develop the art of the randomly directed question. Do not just ask if there are any questions—invariably there are not! Instead, ask who, what, when, where, why, or how, and then single out someone to answer. Since students do not like to appear as idiots before their peers, they will force themselves to keep abreast of what is going on for fear of being caught out too many times. And, as a side benefit, you may pick up on points that you did not explain as clearly as you thought you had—and all of this prior to the examination.

7. STUDENTS ARE GREAT TEACHERS.

A bad experience may be the silver lining to what starts out as a good day. Adverse experiences force us to question, reflect, and sometimes learn. On occasion, students can be first rate initiators of adverse experiences. Frequently such situations arise out of the realization, "I should not have done that," a realization that may be followed by a "Why?" and "How can I avoid doing that again?"

Such questions beg a certain amount of critical self-awareness and self-scrutiny. In other words, the new teacher should regard his teaching as a learning experience—more like a product in process than an end-product. As such, he should frequently examine his own performance and maintain an openness toward suggestions for its improvement. Student course evaluations, for all their limitations, can be useful here. So too are frank conversations with mature students you can trust to be both honest and fair. Another helpful device is the videotape: have a class or two videotaped and, in addition to reviewing the film yourself, ask a friendly senior colleague for his or her assessment.

Learning to be a good teacher will not be easy; nor will the process be completed at the end of one or two terms. But by looking, listening, and learning, each performance will be better than the last. The important thing to remember as you go along is that if you are conscientious you can begin to trust your instincts. With time your bank of intuitive skills will increase and provide you with a basis for quickly reading classes, students, and situations. While not one hundred per cent accurate, this self-acquired craft knowledge is more often than not on target.

Looking Backwards

In the decade or so since I wrote a first draft of this essay the landscape of higher education has undergone a sea change, especially for those of us teaching at large urban institutions. In many ways the world my graduate training prepared me for in the late 1970s is now but a shadow, and like many thoughtful and sensitive individuals I strive to distill the best of the old and adapt it to the needs of a new era. I have learned a great deal—about history, about teaching, and about myself—in these ten years. What would I offer up now as sage advice to a neophyte?

Point One: Teaching Has Gotten Harder. The good students are there but they are in the minority; so too, hopefully, the poor ones. The great middle, though, really is not what it once was. There is a great inertia pervading the mass of average students that is increasingly difficult to dispel and requires more and more attention and energy. In some respects this is a consequence of a failing secondary educational system; in others, it is the sad and disillusioning effect of a visual culture that cripples imagination, impoverishes language, and subverts self-discipline. Engaging students who are the contented "victims" of this culture and who possess seven to eleven-minute attention spans is not an easy task.

Point Two: Say "NO!!!" I doubt one could find a college in this country where good teaching was not proffered as one of its highest ideals. Yet very few administrators and deans are willing to commit the resources, fiscal and otherwise, needed to support, develop, and reward good teaching. When it gets down to basics,

what they most prefer, and most often reward, is scholarship, even if it is so esoteric—e.g., virginity licenses in Ming China—that it has little bearing on our teaching.

To have the time to do this work one must learn to say "No" to many things. Increasingly there is less and less time available in the academic world to read, think, and write. Class sizes increase, released time evaporates, committees proliferate, special functions recur with annoying frequency. How much of this can one handle and still remain intellectually active?

Still I would not like to leave this subject without pointing out that scholarship and teaching are not mutually exclusive. They often go hand in hand with scholarly activity—and this should not be conceived only as original research on the frontiers of knowledge—frequently animating good teaching.

Point Three: Academic Politics Are Not Always Pretty. I find it astounding that when I first drafted this essay I wrote nothing about collegial relations. It did not take me long, however, to realize that they are central to one's career and life. Yet they can be very difficult to negotiate successfully, especially in today's highly particularized academic "community." So a portrait of Erasmus—courtesy of Penguin Books—hangs on my wall as a reminder of the futility of polemic and the virtue of charity.

Point Four: Keep the Faith. It is hard at times, but whenever I feel most discouraged I think about the clergy still struggling against sin after all these years. My idealism has, it is true, been tempered, but it has not soured. I no longer believe that I can transform all of my students, open all their minds to ideas, art, civic mindedness, or compassion for their fellow man; it is hard enough to get them to learn a few facts and write a meaningful essay. But still I try, knowing now that the spark will catch only a few but hoping that others will inspire those I cannot.

**TEACHING HISTORY IN THE ARMY:
KEY TO OFFICER PROFESSIONALISM**

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The dramatic world events since the late 1980s have altered fundamentally the assumptions that military planners had embraced after World War II. The Persian Gulf War; collapse of the Soviet Union; realignment of basic security arrangements in Europe, the Middle East, Asia, and the Pacific Basin; apprehension about nuclear proliferation; prospects for global economic change; and the resurgence of regional instabilities, ethnic disputes, and nationalism—all these events offer challenges to U.S. interests not faced even during the darkest days of the Cold War. Indeed, the deployment and use of American armed forces over the past decade in such areas as Latin America, the Middle East, Caribbean Basin, Libya, Southwest Asia, Liberia, Somalia, and Bangladesh emphasize that U.S. military leaders must understand more so than at any time in the recent past not only operations and tactics but also strategic implications regarding regions with diverse historical, political, economic, social, and cultural traditions. Despite the claims of some optimists that the prospects for conflict have diminished, the post-Cold War era will be fraught with danger and require recognition of the tensions created by the trends of continuity and change.

One way the Army prepares officers for this uncertainty is by weaving a historical thread through its formal and informal professional education system. This philosophy is not a new one but rather has been revived with increasing sophistication. Between 1865 and 1920 the Army placed important stock in the study of history, focusing on Civil War battles and the Indian Wars, seminal events in which the military played a pivotal role in shaping the development and conscience of the nation. It was in such an environment that the staff ride concept emerged in the late nineteenth century as officers studied the landscape and lessons learned from the growing number of sites being preserved from the nation's military engagements. Furthermore, during this period, the most important scholarship in military history flowed from the pens of commissioned officers such as Alfred Thayer Mahan (*The Influence of Sea Power Upon History*) and Emory Upton (*The Military Policy of the United States*). Thus, for three generations, history, and particularly military history, became the cornerstone of the Army's officer education system from basic branch training for lieutenants through the War College for senior field grade officers.¹

Unfortunately, the teaching of history declined in Army service schools after World War I for two reasons. First, the American Historical Association, which had assumed the leadership of the discipline in the early twentieth century, criticized the

¹ For a recent work on the Army's emphasis on the study of history in the nineteenth century, see Carol Reardon, *Soldiers and Scholars: The U.S. Army and the Uses of Military History, 1865-1920* (Lawrence: University of Kansas Press, 1991).

quality of history taught and written by professional officers. Second, society's revulsion to war in the 1920s and 1930s undermined the study of history in the services.² Despite this trend, however, a few voices, such as that of General Douglas A. MacArthur, argued that history remained relevant to the professional development of the officer corps. His 1935 annual report as Chief of Staff of the Army highlights MacArthur's intense belief in the value of history:

More than most professions the military depends upon intelligent interpretation of the past for signposts charting the future. Devoid of opportunity, in peace, for self-instruction through actual practice of his profession, the soldier makes maximum use of historical record in assuring the readiness of himself and his command to function efficiently in emergency. The facts derived from historical analysis he applies to conditions of the present and proximate future, thus developing a synthesis of appropriate method, organization, and doctrine.³

The outbreak of World War II briefly piqued again the Army's interest in history. Not surprisingly, the focus was on a review and analysis of campaigns. Nonetheless, except in rare cases, the serious study of history still eluded the military service. Colonel William A. Ganoe, the U.S. Army's Chief Historian in the European Theater of Operations, chided the failings of the Army: "History is the last thing we care about during operations and the first thing we want afterwards. Then it is too little, too late, and too untrue."⁴

Colonel Ganoe's criticism went largely unheeded for over two decades, primarily owing to the nation's disappointing episodes in Korea and Vietnam. Indeed, the Army's premier mid-level officer school, the Command and General Staff College at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, taught little or no history, including military history, even at the height of the Vietnam War in the late 1960s.⁵ However, almost simultaneously the academic community experienced a revival of the study of history, including military history, generated by the phenomenal growth in undergraduate enrollment in the decade and the concurrent expansion of graduate programs in specialties that previously had been little explored or ignored.⁶

² *Ibid.*

³ Excerpts from the *Annual Report, Chief of Staff of the Army (General Douglas A. MacArthur) 1935* as reprinted in Memorandum, "Historical Mindedness in Army Officers," March 11, 1985, Department of History, U.S. Military Academy, West Point, NY.

⁴ Billy Arthur, "Clio in Desert Shield and Desert Storm," *Army History*, Spring 1991 (PB-20-91-2, No. 18), 13.

⁵ Ronald H. Spector, "Military History and the Academic World," *Army History*, Summer 1991 (PB-20-91-3, No. 19), 2.

⁶ Peter Paret, "The New Military History," *Parameters*, 21 (Autumn 1991), 10-18. See also Allan R. Millett, "American Military History: Over the Top," in Herbert J. Bass, ed., *The State of American History* (Chicago: Quadrangle, 1970).

These developments influenced a change in the Army in the early 1970s. In 1971 the Department of History at the United States Military Academy at West Point, responding to a request by the Army Chief of Staff, prepared a four-volume study that surveyed the use of general and military history by the service "in the past, present, and future" with a particular emphasis on the "study, publication, and use of history both within and outside the Army service school system." According to the report, history provided a means for officers to "systematically, progressively, and comprehensively study their profession." The study is especially noteworthy because it introduced the concept of "historical mindedness" as an important trait of officership. According to the report, historical mindedness was "a characteristic view of thought that enables one to view an idea in the context of human experience and to judge its applicability under current or anticipated conditions."⁷

By the late 1970s the Army had incorporated the historical mindedness philosophy into its formal educational system. The U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC) at Fort Monroe, Virginia, the headquarters that oversees Army educational and training programs, required all service schools to establish core and elective courses in history and teach problem solving through:

- (1) a search for broad themes that survey developments over a long period of time;
- (2) identification of the relationship between cause and effect;
- (3) an analysis of the past in the context of its own time;
- (4) the consideration of present circumstances in light of the past.

Thus, TRADOC required that all officers, regardless of their rank or particular military specialty, adopt historical mindedness as a way of thinking and developing a disciplined, mental approach to their profession.⁸

The historical mindedness thrust gained significant momentum in the 1980s. The Army's uniformed and civilian leadership became an advocate for history to serve as a laboratory in which to study problems, develop solutions, draw comparisons, and likewise recognize differences in situations that on the surface might appear similar. History was viewed as an important tool of policy, planning, operations, decision-making, management, and administration for commanders at all levels. The officer corps received a mandate from the Secretary of the Army to adopt a serious approach to the study of history as a means to build a framework for military theory and doctrine and gain an appreciation for the American military tradition. For example, the staff ride concept reemerged but in an expanded fashion as a multitude of officers and soldiers trooped across not only Civil War battlefields but also sites accessible in Europe and elsewhere. Furthermore, in the 1980s the Army created the School for Advanced Military Studies (SAMS) at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. Officers are carefully screened for selection to attend this year-long school that employs heavy doses of history to prepare the next generation of military strategists for the Army. It was from

⁷ Memorandum, "Report of the Committee on Historical Mindedness at West Point," January 20, 1989, Department of History, U.S. Military Academy, West Point, NY.

⁸ *Ibid.*

this pool of officers that the famed "Jedi Knights" emerged to assist in the planning of the campaign against Iraq in 1990-1991.

More broadly, the Army leadership's change to become knowledgeable in history aimed at inspiring officers to "think in time" and to be sensitive to the hallmarks of disparate cultures and societies in which they might be called to serve. Further, officers began to teach and mentor subordinates on the utility of history to the profession of arms. While military history understandably was the vanguard, historical mindedness found converts in all areas of the discipline because of the rapidly changing nature of the world, the growing diversity of the strategic threats posed to the United States, and the national debate about the role that America should play in the international arena in the 1990s and beyond.⁹

Nevertheless, as the White Queen said in *Alice in Wonderland*, "It's a poor sort of memory that only works backwards." In this regard, officers were cautioned that the past never fully prescribes a course of action for the present because differences in historical events always exist. Officers must know enough history to avoid the error of selecting attractive but inappropriate historical analogies. Thus, the Army leadership challenged officers to become serious in their reflections on history, both in formal study and private reading, in order to gain an enriched perspective on both contemporary affairs and potential developments related to the defense and security of the nation.

More recently, the U.S. victory in the Persian Gulf War emphasized this approach. General H. Norman Schwarzkopf's heralded "Hail Mary" move west of the heavily defended Kuwaiti border completely surprised the Iraqi army. This tactic somewhat replicated the brilliant maneuver of "Stonewall" Jackson in 1863 at the Battle of Chancellorsville in which the Confederate forces successfully skirted the Union right flank. To be sure, this was a different army at a different time. However, the knowledge of history planted a seed, one that proved important in securing a quick victory with many fewer casualties than expected.¹⁰

Beyond the general call to heed the lessons of history, in the 1980s the discipline discovered fresh life in the two major sources for commissioning new lieutenants: The United States Military Academy (USMA) at West Point and the Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) at civilian colleges and universities. These institutions adopted more stringent standards for infusing history into their curricula. The results have been spectacular and deserve special attention in this paper.

The West Point experience constantly exposes cadets to history. Each of the 4,000 cadets must study two semesters of either American or world history as a plebe (freshman) and two semesters of military history as an upperclassman. Standout students are selected for advanced sections of the respective courses, providing the opportunity for more challenging and in-depth study.

⁹ Memorandum for the Superintendent, United States Military Academy, "Report of the committee on Historical Mindedness at West Point," December 10, 1989, U.S. Military Academy, West Point, NY.

¹⁰ *Baltimore Sun*, February 13, 1992.

The emphasis on history, however, goes far beyond the classroom. Cadet history courses schedule outstanding guest lecturers, participate in staff rides through West Point's Revolutionary War fortifications and nearby Revolutionary and Civil War battlefields such as Stony Point, Gettysburg, and Antietam, peruse the historical exhibits in the Military Academy's impressive museum, and take field trips to places such as Philadelphia, the Franklin D. Roosevelt home and library in Hyde Park, New York, and the Cloisters and Metropolitan Museums in New York City. In addition, the Department of History sponsors a Great Films Forum and assists with several Academy programs such as the annual Student Council on United States Affairs (SCUSA), Crossroads Africa, Fine Arts Program, and Debate Council and Forum, all of which have as either a stated or implied goal the understanding of the relationship among things past, present, and future.

In 1989 the Academy instituted an academic enrichment program that provided upperclass cadets the opportunity to delve more deeply into their chosen major during one summer. Cadets studying history have opted to attend courses at civilian colleges or universities, to do research at libraries or archives across the country, or to participate in regional trips to such areas as Europe, the Middle East, Africa, Latin America, and the Far East.

The strength of West Point's history program, however, lies in its curriculum and faculty. The Department of History has developed a strong elective course offering to complement its core program. Its popularity has grown since the mid-1980s so that currently more than 100 cadets enroll in history for a major or field of study. The difference between the two programs is that a cadet who declares history as a major must write a senior thesis. The department sponsors four areas for majors or fields of study: military history, American history, European history, and international history. In addition, it serves in an advisory capacity and offers elective courses that support interdisciplinary programs or various fields in other departments, such as languages, geography, foreign area studies, law, political science, and international affairs. The philosophy underpinning each academic program in history is that cadets must have both depth and breadth in their studies. For example, if a cadet chooses to major in American history, he or she must ensure that at least one elective course is taken from the offerings in European, military, and international history. This emphasis on breadth will pay important dividends for young officers who may be required to respond to unexpected, worldwide contingencies such as Operation Just Cause in Panama in 1989 and Desert Shield/Desert Storm in Southwest Asia in 1990-1991.

The Department of History faculty emphasizes TEACHING as its number one priority. West Point is an undergraduate institution that has as its mission to educate, train, and inspire cadets to a lifetime of service to the nation. The selection and development of qualified faculty is essential to accomplish these goals. Currently, fifty active duty officers are assigned to the Department. Two full professors in the grade of colonel serve as Head and Deputy Head. Seven associate professors in the grades of colonel and lieutenant colonel chair or assist the chair in each one of the four areas in which majors or fields of study are offered. The professors and associate professors, chosen through a rigorous selection process that reviews academic and military qualifications, serve in an active duty status in the Army and are tenured upon selection for the positions. They remain at West Point until retirement to teach,

contribute to the discipline through research and writing, provide continuity in the curriculum, supervise the junior faculty, and serve in Academy governance positions.

The remaining forty officers, usually in the grade of major or captain, serve as instructors or assistant professors. This group is selected on the basis of a strong undergraduate academic background and an outstanding record of military service, highlighted by successful company command as a captain. These officers are enrolled in the nation's finest graduate programs for two years to complete a Master's degree in history. A large percentage of the officers pursue work beyond the M.A. level in the two-year period and attain A.B.D. status. Following graduate school, the officers report to West Point to serve on the faculty for three years.

Another important aspect of the history department's approach is the visiting professor program. Each year a distinguished professor from a civilian institution takes a teaching sabbatical at West Point to provide fresh perspective for not only the students but the faculty as well. These scholars provide an important role model and give developmental guidance to junior faculty members who are novices in the field. As a result, a number of officers have become active in professional organizations, presented papers at conferences, and published works related to their graduate study.

Several other elements of the academic program also boost the teaching success at West Point. First, the classroom size rarely exceeds sixteen students. This policy allows for intense instruction and discussion with the students. Thus, instructors may become a true *magister* or mentor to their cadets. Second, since the faculty's primary mission is to teach, great emphasis is placed on ensuring that individual cadets receive additional instruction if they have problems in the classroom. This personal attention to learning is extremely effective in emphasizing the importance of scholarship in a tough environment in which cadets find academic, physical fitness, and military duties competing for limited time.

The nation's ROTC programs also experienced a revival in the teaching of history in the 1970s. The 1971 West Point Study recommended that each of the institutions that sponsored an Army ROTC program have a minimum of one member on the military faculty with an advanced degree in history. In addition, the report suggested that civilian faculty members teach courses in military history as part of the ROTC curriculum. As an outgrowth of this proposal, in 1980 West Point established a summer fellowship to teach a course in military history to civilian history professors in preparation for their instruction of a similar course at their colleges and universities. The fellowship not only has produced excellent teachers for the ROTC program but has had a positive influence on the understanding of the military in American society and strengthened the relationship between the Army and important academic institutions in the country. Through the summer of 1993 over 500 college professors representing nearly every state in the union had attended the program. The fellowship program has received rave reviews from attendees and each summer has to turn away requests from numerous professors who wish to participate.¹¹

¹¹ Spector, "Military History and the Academic World," *Army History*, 5; Memorandum, "Historical Mindedness Report," January 20, 1989.

In conclusion, recent events have forced U.S. civilian and military leaders to focus on developing a new national security strategy. The lessons of the past make it clear that the military instrument will not be disarmed, despite a new world order and budgetary constraints. Rather, it will be retooled to protect the security and interests of the country and respond to global emergencies. It is safe to assume that future military leaders must comprehend the nature of the world in which U.S. forces might be deployed. The study of history—during pre-commissioning, at military service schools, at advanced civil schooling, at senior service colleges, and through independent study and reflection—will continue to be an essential element in the professional development of the next generation of Army officers and serve the nation well while they are on active duty and beyond.

REVIEWS

Stephen Fox, ed. *The Unknown Internment: An Oral History of the Relocation of Italian Americans During World War II*. Boston: Twayne Publishers, 1990. Pp. xxi, 223. Cloth, \$24.95; paper, \$10.95.

Most of us know about the cruel and heartbreaking internment of Japanese-Americans during World War II. Few know that some Italian-Americans were also sorted out for a similar fate. This well-written oral history explores what happened to these Italian-Americans, and it helps fill in our understanding of the xenophobia of the early war years.

General John DeWitt, still remembered by an internee fifty years later as "that son of a bitch," is the nativist of this story. DeWitt, with help from California officials, such as Governor Culbert Olson and Attorney General Earl Warren, wanted to confine non-citizen Italians soon after the declaration of war. By March 1942 the U.S. Army had relocated Italian "alien-enemies" from restricted zones along the California coast. The effects of this relocation on families are recorded in the poignant and often bitter remarks of the victims. Fishermen could not fish; families were broken up; children moved from schools they loved; and all had to live under curfews away from the coast. Naturalized Americans were immune from this treatment, but they were affected because often a family member was still not a citizen. Even Joe Dimaggio, the hero of that summer of 1941, had a father who was not allowed to eat at his son's restaurant on Fisherman's Wharf.

Common sense stopped this from becoming a Japanese experience. A House Committee, Secretary of War Henry Stimson, and other government officials opposed any such action. Besides having a strong belief that a person was innocent until proven guilty, these officials had practical reasons of state not to want an internment. Politically it was unwise; to relocate Italian-Americans would have had massive repercussions among that ethnic vote. Relocation was a denial of the melting pot, an American belief that contradicted the Nazi Aryan propaganda. As Fox points out, DeWitt and company were betraying the American ideal. It was an insult to such respected Italian-American figures as Fiorello LaGuardia and banker A. P. Gianini. In addition, DeWitt's plan crippled the much needed fishing fleet, and relocation would be too costly and disruptive to the American economy. Recall that the Japanese in Hawaii were left alone because they were too intertwined into those islands' economic system. How could we square a policy that allows suspect aliens to be drafted into the same armed forces that they were supposed to be undermining? Something was wrong with a program that relocated a grieving father whose son had perished at Pearl Harbor. By July 1942 the Roosevelt Administration realized its mistake and removed the Italian-Americans from the alien enemies list on Columbus Day of that year. Though soon forgotten by most, bitter memories remained, as discovered by Fox.

You can use this book as a supplement to a study of the Home Front or as an example of an oral history. Unlike two other oral histories in this Twayne series, *Rosie the Riveter Revisited* and *Hill Country Teacher*, which rely on long oral passages, this book uses documents, newspapers, and oral accounts. In this way Fox catches the flavor of the war hysteria on the West Coast. Much might be learned by comparing the Japanese experience to the Italian one.

You can also use this book for a class on nativism or in sociology classes. It would tie in with any xenophobic era. The Adams-era Francophobia, the Know-Nothings, and the Red Scares come to mind. Use of this book might prepare a student to gather information in the local Italian-American community. Nativism comes and goes, so read this history to prepare yourself for the coming reaction against third world immigrants. As Fox suggests, the experience of the Italian-Americans is similar to AIDS victims, whom many want to isolate. Another

comparison can be made to the military policy toward homosexuals. Though its full title suggests an esoteric study, *The Unknown Internment* has broad implications.

Lockport Central High School
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Brian Boland

Judith Porter Adams, ed. *Peacework: Oral Histories of Women Peace Activists*. Boston: Twayne Publishers, 1991. Pp. x, 228. Cloth, \$25.95.

Somewhere between the few powerful, visible leaders and the indifferent or alienated masses are a group of people invested in their society, yet convinced it can be better. Their issues have varied, as have their tactics. Judith Porter Adams has interviewed 23 women who chose peace as their life issue, and membership in the International League for Peace and Freedom and/or the Women's Strike for Peace as their primary focus for activism. It is hard to estimate how much different contemporary society looks today because of their efforts, but it is imperative that we know their stories and their work. Many of these women, born in the early twentieth century and now nearing the ends of their lives, wondered in their interviews how much difference their lives made since their goal of a more peaceful global society seems elusive; nevertheless, they recognize the value inherent in the struggle for a society without war.

As Adams is aware, her sample of women tends to be "white-gloved," Anglo and middle-class, and not conducive to broad generalizations about women in the peace movement. She does include interviews with two Japanese-Americans, Mariagnes Aya Uenishi Medrud and Marii Kyogoku Hasegawa, and two African-Americans, Erna Prather Harris and Enola Maxwell. Each interview is enhanced with a fairly recent photograph of the woman being interviewed; some also include pictures of them as younger women.

Her introduction adequately gives the reader a sense of her interviewing process and her sources. However, the brief conclusion probably does not provide enough information for most high school and beginning college students to understand the context and strategies of the work for peace, without supplemental material. Expanding the bibliography (of 33 references) would offer students a broader base for understanding the issues and events touched by the lives of these women.

Nevertheless, oral history collections such as this have great teaching potential. First, most students find primary source history interesting; it is easy to see these women as real people; grandmothers, aunts, teachers, etc.—ordinary people who felt strongly enough about an issue to become involved. Secondly, many of their stories are inspiring and encouraging, a welcome antidote to the fatalistic pessimism of many contemporary students. Finally, the interviews are generally no more than ten pages long, making them very manageable for even reluctant readers. This format allows for a variety of teaching strategies, including group reports on a select number of women, or dividing the text among the students for individual research and reports. The book is also a useful supplement in a study of mid-twentieth century history as a means of generating alternative thinking about the inevitability and necessity of war. Such a text also could be used to generate class discussions about who and what are included as important in traditional history texts and why.

This book is an important component of the Twayne's Oral History Series that includes collections of interviews with women during World War II, holocaust witnesses, one-room school teachers, and the relocation of Italian-Americans during World War II. The text is a welcome resource for women studies, peace studies, and general twentieth-century history.

Earlham College

Carol Hunter

Edward J. Drea. *MacArthur's Ultra: Codebreaking and the War against Japan, 1942-1945*. Lawrence: University Press of Kansas, 1992. Pp. xv, 296. Cloth, \$29.95.

World War II intelligence operations in the Pacific have been of intense interest to historians since the 1940s and the debate over the Pearl Harbor debacle. But in the 1970s, and especially after the publication of F. W. Winterbottom's bestseller *The Ultra Secret*, interest in intelligence has focused increasingly on the European theater. The time now seems appropriate for a fresh look at intelligence in the Pacific, and Edward J. Drea's *MacArthur's Ultra*, though limited to the Southwest Pacific, is an excellent beginning.

Basing his work on both Allied and Japanese sources, Drea's goal is to analyze the significance of Army code breaking in the Pacific Theater as it affected MacArthur's land, sea, and air operations. Drea poses three questions: What did the Allied commanders know about Japanese intentions and capabilities? When did they know it? And what did they do as a consequence? Drea admits that his conclusions are to some extent speculation, but they are nonetheless both logical and fascinating.

The work focuses on intelligence operations at MacArthur's headquarters in Australia. It is a story that begins in confusion, secretiveness that did not allow one group to know what another was doing, and intense personal conflict among the leading personnel involved; indeed, Drea's analysis of the personalities of Generals MacArthur, Willoughby, Sutherland, and Kenney, as well as a host of others, is one of the work's strongest features. MacArthur's Ultra evolved gradually as a unique system whose successes came in fits and starts, sometimes by the lucky chance of captured Japanese code documents, but more often through difficult and precise work. Success was minimal until 1943, when a series of breakthroughs allowed the reading of all but one of the Japanese Army codes. The result was the most spectacular of Ultra's accomplishments, its contribution to victory in MacArthur's Hollandia campaign of early 1944, though the success was partially the result of the fact that for one of its few times, Ultra told MacArthur exactly what he wanted to hear.

But for the next several months, Ultra was more or less a failure, as its mass of information made for a variety of conflicting interpretations, many of them wrong. Drea suggests that "Ultra had tumbled to an almost hit-or-miss proposition as the invasion of the Philippines approached." Ultra did contribute significantly to the Leyte victory, but missed badly in the Luzon campaign that followed.

Drea concludes that Ultra was a prime factor in the success of Allied air operations and in the sea war against Japanese transport, but was less effective in land operations, partly because MacArthur, unlike commanders in Europe, usually ignored it when its information conflicted with his military plans. Drea's most startling conclusion is in his chapter "Uncovering Japanese Plans for Homeland Defense." As the Allies laid plans for the invasion of Kyushu, Ultra revealed (accurately) that the Japanese military had by late July 1945 garrisoned the island with 650,000 men (against 600,000 invaders) and were preparing to bring about a bloodbath that would force the Allies to seek a negotiated peace. Drea believes that this information may well have tipped the scales in favor of dropping the atomic bomb. It is one of his speculations, but it has a ring of truth.

It is my experience that students, both college and secondary, are fascinated by the intelligence operations of World War II and tend to believe that the war was won not by the grunts on the battlefields, but by the mathematicians in the backrooms. This is a mistake that Drea is careful not to foster, and anyone who looks into *MacArthur's Ultra* will quickly be disabused of that idea.

Gerald D. Nash. *The Crucial Era: The Great Depression and World War II, 1929-1945*. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1992. Second edition. Pp. x, 213. Paper, \$18.70.

In the second edition of this useful and highly interpretive survey, Gerald D. Nash, professor of history at the University of New Mexico, describes the years from 1929 to 1945 as "some of the most fateful and decisive in the history of the United States." While combating a Great Depression in the thirties and waging a World War in the forties, Nash contends that the United States underwent an "organizational revolution" that restructured its economy and society, setting itself on a course, radically different from the past, which has persisted to the present day. More specifically, he maintains that Americans

fashioned a government that functioned as manager of the economy; they invented the American social welfare state; they brought government into the arena of human and civil rights, feminist causes, and the battle against racism; they expanded government's role in the management of natural resources; and they found a place for government as a patron of culture. In the process they did much to expand bureaucracy in American life. And they created patterns in American diplomacy that guided their successors in the next generation.

Nash does not claim more for the period than he is able to support, if not prove, in the body of his text. He sees the changes of the '30s and '40s as precedents, each of which he describes in turn and then masterfully traces through the second half of the century in his final chapter, "Legacy of a Crucial Era." A sharpened analytical focus, two new chapters on women's experiences, and additional attention to the era's impact on the South and West more than justify this new edition.

The strengths of this text are its treatment of the domestic New Deal and its discussion of World War II's impact on the homefront. In clear, concise, and insightful prose, Nash covers topics frequently ignored by earlier historians, while adequately treating everything from the causes of the Depression to the plethora of New Deal agencies. He demonstrates that the impact of the era on the South and West is dramatic and far-reaching, so great indeed that both sections had joined the rest of the country in the twentieth century by 1945. Along with this attention to sectional history, Nash examines the experiences of women, Afro, Native, and Hispanic Americans, and maintains that all these groups made some progress in the period and, just as importantly, laid the groundwork for greater advances in succeeding decades.

While on the whole admirable, this text is not without its shortcomings. Principal among them is its extremely short account—some ten pages in total—of the military campaigns in the war. Nor is Nash's hand as sure or as detailed in describing the diplomacy of the war years. He notes, for example, that some writers have blamed Roosevelt for yielding "too much" of Eastern Europe to Stalin at Yalta, but fails to mention that others have shown that the president did not give away anything that the Red Army had not already occupied. Because this manuscript is unusually clean, some small errors leap out at the reader: Alice Paul is misnamed "Alicia" (p. 81), Admiral Ernest J. King becomes "Harold" (p. 132), and General Jonathan Wainwright is "Nicholas B." (p. 133).

But these are minor quibbles about an excellent short history of the United States in two highly significant decades. Since Nash concentrates heavily on the domestic scene, adopters of this text might want to supplement it with Robert A. Divine, *Roosevelt and World War II*, or select chapters from Stephen E. Ambrose, *Rise to Globalism*, on the diplomacy of the period, and James L. Stokesbury, *A Short History of World War II*, for more detailed coverage of the military campaigns.

Donald R. Wright. *African Americans in the Early Republic, 1789-1831*. Arlington Heights, IL: Harlan Davidson, Inc., 1993. Pp. xii, 252. Paper, \$11.95.

Every new addition to the literature on the African-American experience has something unique—some offer new information based on altogether new primary source materials, others bring fresh insights into what is already known about a particular subject through a re-interpretation of available data, still others attempt to synthesize available pieces of evidence and interpretations and make them more accessible. Donald Wright's new book, *African Americans in the Early Republic, 1789-1831*, belongs to the last category. It is a work of synthesis, well conceived and well executed.

The objectives of the text are limited, and are clearly explained in the introduction. Three main goals are pursued. Firstly, to show that the experiences of African-Americans under slavery and/or freedom in the United States differed in space and in time; secondly, to demonstrate that, contrary to racial stereotypes, "African Americans at any point in the past were neither more nor less than normal human beings;" and thirdly, to emphasize that there was a conflict in American society between slavery and freedom, between the colonists' universal libertarian philosophy embedded in the Declaration of Independence and the continued practice and expansion of African slavery. In the opinion of this reviewer, while these objectives are not new, they cannot be overemphasized.

The text begins with what the author appropriately terms "A Second Forced Migration" and ends with "New Directions." In five evenly-divided chapters, Wright compresses invaluable information, interpretation and re-interpretation about such themes as slave and work systems, family, community and culture, the peoples' perception of their being, and their travails and struggles in slavery and freedom. Wright never loses sight of his goals. He exposes the emptiness of the various reasons whites used to justify slavery, compares northern with southern slavery, juxtaposes plantation with industrial slavery, and employs narratives of former slaves (making extensive use of those of Charles Ball and Frederick Douglass) to reconstruct the daily life of free and/or enslaved African-Americans. Also featured in the text are the "traditional" topics like the origin and basis of white racism, slave rebellions, and activities of white and black abolitionists to 1831. The language is exceptionally controlled, and the entire text reads smoothly.

The text has something for every reader—undergraduate or graduate student, college professor, and the general reader. One feature that students and teachers will find very useful is the way the author poses a question and places opposing viewpoints on that question side by side for critical examination. For instance, on the question "What proportion of slaves moving to the Lower South made the move as a result of planter migration rather than sale to a slave trader?" Wright critically examines the positions of Robert Fogel and Stanley Engerman on the one hand, and Michael Tadman on the other. Similar treatment is given to the question of the stability and maturation of the institution of slavery in the United States on the eve of the Revolution, "slave breeding" in the Upper South, profitability of industrial slavery to slaveholders, slavery and the destruction of the black family, and whether Denmark Vesey's plot was real or was "loose talk."

African Americans in the Early Republic is not based on primary sources, and its contribution is not in bringing new materials to light. Rather, the author relies on and engages in a critique of "authoritative" secondary sources. He leaves the reader in no doubt about his own position. He maintains the middle ground where a synthesis is possible, and comes up with fresh interpretation where existing conclusions prove inadequate. This helps the reader to understand the complexity of the issues involved in African-American history. The graduate student will find this approach useful in developing a style for writing research papers based on secondary source materials.

The book is useful to the teacher of African-American history, too. It contains the kind of information usually required in a 5-hour class, and the bibliographical essay is a mine of information on other sources and their relative strength and weaknesses. I am currently using it with profit for the United States component of my "Africans in the New World" class.

African Americans in the Early Republic only covers a short (early republican) period, but it is a fitting companion to *African Americans in the Colonial Era*, also by Wright, *Black Southerners* by John B. Boles, and *From Slavery to Freedom*, the all-time favorite by John Hope Franklin.

Kennesaw State College

A. G. Adebayo

Michael J. Puglisi. *Puritans Besieged: The Legacies of King Philip's War in the Massachusetts Bay Colony.* Lanham, MD, and London: University Press of America, 1991. Pp. 244. Cloth, \$43.50; paper, \$24.50.

Is this well organized and generally readable volume, Michael Puglisi discusses the significance of King Philip's War of 1675-76 in New England society during the last quarter of the seventeenth century. Under the leadership of Metacom (King Philip), native Americans carried on the single greatest challenge to the New England colonists. After fifteen months of conflict, the war ended with Metacom's death in August 1676. According to Puglisi, the legacies of the war were to live long after Metacom and have grave effects on Puritan society for the remainder of the century.

In the first three chapters, Puglisi briefly traces the conflict itself, the role of conflict with natives in the colonists' belief system, and the effect of the war on the Puritan attitudes towards the natives. He then has rather detailed chapters on the cost of the war to the colonists and governmental measures to meet those costs, the struggle to build or rebuild communities in the frontier areas most affected by the war, and the effects of the war on political stability. In the final portion of the book, Puglisi discusses "the intellectual and attitudinal changes which resulted from the conflict and continuing tensions."

The central chapters of the book—those on the war's cost and the war's effect on community building and politics—are based on careful scrutiny of local records. Careful reading of these chapters can provide good insights into life in the various Massachusetts communities in the 1670s and 1680s. It is in the final portion of the book that Puglisi's presentation and argument are least effective. In keeping with his concept of King Philip's War as a "focal point," he relates numerous subsequent events to the war and suggests—but does not demonstrate—causation. He is careful to say that the war was not the only reason for the turmoil of the final quarter of the century, but he generally fails to make clear connections between the war and the attitudinal changes and continuing tensions that ensued.

Although the book is not a definitive study, it can be used to advantage as supplementary reading in courses in American colonial history. The inclusion of a few good maps and perhaps some pictures would have greatly enhanced this volume, particularly if it is to be used in the classroom. Unless the reader has a good grasp of geography, much of the information in the chapter on community building can be difficult to follow. More careful proofreading and editing would also have enhanced the value of this work for classroom use.

The Society of Colonial Wars recognized Michael Puglisi's achievements by awarding this book its 1993 Honorable Mention prize.

University of Wisconsin-Whitewater

Mary E. Quinlivan

The American History Videodisc. 1992. Order from Instructional Resources Corp., 1819 Bay Ridge Ave., Annapolis, MD 21403. \$595.00, incl. shipping. Discounts available on multiple copies.

Constance B. Schulz. *Master Guide*. 1992. Pp. xi, 329. \$35.00. Discounts available on multiple copies.

Technological supplements for classroom use are becoming increasingly common. *The American History Videodisc (AHV)* is one of the most recent and attractive. It consists of 2490 still images and 68 motion sequences, organized into ten sections chronologically. The stills cover the sweep of United States history from prehistory to 1992. The motion sequences begin in the Progressive and World War I eras and go to the Gulf War.

Schulz, Professor of History at the University of South Carolina, has produced an excellent guide to the program. Here are instructions for using the disc, suggestion on ways to use the images, and barcodes and frame numbers for each still and motion segment. A still is retrieved by entering the frame number on the viewing screen or scanning the barcode with a pen reader. The system is easy to use; it takes only a couple of seconds to pull up a desired still, and moving back or ahead one still at a time is done at the push of a button. If you can operate your television by remote control, you can use this system. Schulz has also written a short narrative of 40-100 words for each of the 2490 images, a huge task. Each narrative identifies the image and usually gives a little background information as well. Instructors can use these narratives in class or give their own explanations. The publisher also provides free optional computer software (for IBM or Macintosh) that can be used to edit and arrange narratives and create pre-timed shows.

A two to four-minute Overview introduces each of the ten sections. These are quite superficial and hurried—for example, how can one adequately introduce or summarize the years 1865-1900 in three minutes? The soporific voice of the narrator is also a detraction. These Overviews can easily be skipped in class with no loss of content.

As for the 2490 stills themselves, there is indeed a cornucopia here. Some are old standards that instructors will be familiar with or that have appeared in textbooks, but certainly many will be new and unfamiliar. As a supplement to a class lecture, as the basis for an entire class presentation, or as a resource for individual or group reports by students, the *AHV* is a rich resource for junior high through college undergraduate classes.

But how well does this collection represent the vastness and richness of U.S. history? Here there are problems. The disc is very heavy on the "standard stuff"—whites, males, war, politics, government. In the section on the Civil War and Reconstruction, for example, 41% of the stills are strictly military and combat scenes; 22% portray the non-combat life of soldiers and civilian life behind the lines. Women in the war get a scant ten images.

For that matter, the entire disc's coverage of women is inadequate; overall, only 6.4% of the stills deal with women in history. Why should Eleanor Roosevelt, considered by many to be the most important woman of the twentieth century, get just three images? Why should Mary Boykin Chesnut and Abigail Adams rate none? Abigail's husband rates five, and the era of his presidency (hardly one of our most distinguished administrations) gets eleven. None of the motion sequences deal with women's issues.

There are 187 stills—7.5%—which deal with Afro-Americans. Booker T. Washington, Marcus Garvey, and W. E. B. DuBois, three of the most important blacks in American history, each have one image, as does Rosa Parks. Four of the 68 video sequences deal with black history. Hispanics rate 70 images—2.8%—and no videos. Coverage of religion is very skewed; of the 90 images, only seven deal with the period since the Civil War. How could Billy Graham be ignored? Why should Ralph Nader, one of the most influential Americans of the modern

era, rate not a single image, while William Penn rates six? The subject of AIDS gets a single image.

Admittedly all of this could be seen as nit-picking and criticizing the producers of the disc for not creating something else, rather like attacking the author of a book for not writing a different one. Certainly a huge amount of work went into producing the *AHV*, and what the disc does it does well—but it could have been much richer. As a supplementary tool in a survey course it has a lot to offer, as long as the instructor or students are not delving very deeply into women's history, minorities, social, economic, or religious subjects.

The 68 motion sequences average two to five minutes each: 42 of them deal with political and military affairs, 13 with science and space, five with social themes, four with Afro-Americans, three with economic matters, and one with sports. Many cover fairly familiar terrain that students and instructors have seen before, such as World War II footage, the JFK assassination, King's "I Have a Dream" speech, and the Beatles. Others, from the 1920s and New Deal era, will be less familiar to students.

Instructors familiar with the *American History Slide Collection*, also a production of Instructional Resources, will recognize much of the same material on the *AHV*. The disc's value is that it has more stills and of course the 68 motion sequences. If instructors are willing to live with the limitations discussed above, the *AHV* is certainly a worthy and useful addition to a history department.

East Georgia College

William F. Mugleston

David Cannadine. *G. M. Trevelyan: A Life in History*. New York and London: W. W. Norton & Co., 1993. Pp. xvi, 288. \$32.95.

David Cannadine's *G. M. Trevelyan: A Life in History* is magisterial. As an essay in English historiography it is superb; as a study of English life and letters in the twentieth century it is masterly; and as a model for writing a scholarly life it is without peer. Written with elegance and wit, and an unmistakable patrician air worthy of its subject, Cannadine's biography has rescued Trevelyan and his work from the limbo of yesterday's scholarship. Neither nostalgic nor pietistic, Cannadine has made the life of this monumental British historian a key to understanding the development of historical writing in England between 1880 and 1960 as well as the profound transformation that took place in English life during those years.

George Macaulay Trevelyan was born into the English governing class at a time when the convergence of intellectual, social, and political connections made possible a career that historians of a later day could look back upon only with envy. A younger son of Sir George Otto Trevelyan, the distinguished later Victorian historian, "GMT" was a nephew of the great Victorian litterateur Thomas Babington Macaulay. Emerging from the potentially crippling shadows of these illustrious forebears, and provided with sufficient private means to forgo employment, Trevelyan devoted his attention, almost from the start, to research and writing. With his powerful friends and relations there was hardly a country house or foreign ministry that he could not enter. Only once, when he and Winston Churchill were interested in the same papers, did he find himself bested.

Trevelyan's books, as Cannadine makes admirably clear, beautifully capture and reflect not only the *geist* of the years in which they were written but also record their author's subtle yet significant transformation from an optimistic late Victorian liberal to a humane but sadly disillusioned mid-twentieth-century conservative. Consequently they can be read as a guide to the shifting intellectual climate of the twentieth century. *England Under the Stuarts*, the three volumes on Garibaldi, and the biography of John Bright, Trevelyan's early works, reflect the almost uncritical optimism of the decade before 1914. In many ways they are a paean to the

liberalism of the Victorian middle class and its belief in the eventual triumph of "sweetness and light."

That optimism was badly battered by the Great War, in which Trevelyan spent three years, and a more chastened view of humanity and its prospects for progress can be found in his early interwar books. Still the prevailing spirit of those books (*Lord Grey of the Reform Bill* is typical) was a cautious optimism not unlike that which characterized the hopes of some of the Great War's younger survivors.

By the late 1920s, however, Trevelyan had begun to despair. Labor unrest in Britain, Mussolini's ascent in Italy, and the transformation of English life all contributed to a darkening of his perspective and a growing sense that the twentieth century represented more a blight than an advance for man. This is the era of his great trilogy, *England Under Queen Anne*, as well as *Grey of Fallodan* and *English History in the Nineteenth Century*. A sense of nostalgia and a distinct preference for the past over the present suffuse these works. Also appearing for the first time, especially as a second war with Germany approached, was a powerful pride in England, her past, and the traditions that had made her great. One might claim that *English Social History*, for example, was propaganda masquerading as scholarship, but Trevelyan believed deeply that the democratic evolution of English society had given it a form of government infinitely superior and more humane than the fascist one it was battling in a death struggle.

By 1939 Trevelyan was already in his sixties. For most of his adult life he had lived as a private scholar. Even his appointment as Regius professor did not interfere with his writing. Nor did it check many of his public commitments, especially his influential work with the National Trust for Historic Preservation. In the decade or so of public life that remained to him after the war, Trevelyan found himself regarded as the Grand Old Man of English Letters by many; yet others, especially younger scholars like J. H. Plumb and Herbert Butterfield, were beginning to consider him as passé as the old century. "I do not understand this age we live in," Trevelyan confessed to his brother, "and what I do understand I don't like."

Liberal internationalist or rural elegist, appeaser or nationalist: Cannadine has captured and delineated all aspects of his subject's life and work. This is an especially noteworthy feat because Trevelyan took pains to deter future biographers by destroying his papers. Even his 1948 *Autobiography* concentrates solely on his intellectual and public rather than personal and private life.

Trevelyan: A Life in History is biography on a grand scale. It is a joy to read, almost impossible to put down once begun, and reflects the disciplined, sophisticated craftsmanship of its author. My only concern is with omissions. I was startled to find, for example, no mention of either A. J. P. Taylor or Arnold Toynbee: Could they have missed crossing paths with Trevelyan? A. L. Rowse is mentioned, but a discussion of his relations with Trevelyan, especially in view of their strong and antipodal views on appeasement, would have been illuminating. Nor is there any mention, except to note his presence at Trevelyan's eightieth birthday honors, of W. H. Hoskins, author of the classic *The Making of the English Landscape*. Given Trevelyan's passionate commitment to rural England and the preservation of its heritage, one would imagine a significant professional relationship with the father of local historical studies in Great Britain. But these are minor points. They take nothing away from an absolutely magnificent book.

Pace University

Michael de C. Rosenfeld

Glenn Blackburn. *The West and the World since 1945*. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1993. Third edition. Pp. xiii, 147. Paper, \$20.70.

The brief history of the world since the end of the Second World War is organized around four topics. "The Cold War and Its Legacy" deals mainly with the Soviet-American rivalry and

its impact on the rest of the world. "The Wealthy Nations" describes the recent evolution, successes, and problems of America, Western Europe, and Japan. "The Developing Nations and the Poor Nations" discusses the decolonization process and the political, economic, and social development of the "third world" countries. "Intellectual and Spiritual Issues in a Technological Age" surveys a range of topics from the problems of science and technology, through the conflict of democracy and totalitarianism, to the strengths and weaknesses of contemporary religious movements. While most of the book is devoted to recent history, the author also broaches the many questions of contemporary politics, economics, and social policy. The coverage of recent events runs through 1991 and the author projects likely future developments at several points. Each chapter concludes with a useful annotated bibliography. This book is not the product of original research, but rather a work of synthesis based on a selection of some of the best studies on each of the four topics emphasized.

Of necessity, given the global scope but brief length of this book, the writing is marked by a high level of compression. In general, the author has selected the most important developments in recent global history. His analysis of most issues, though quite brief, is clear and informative. Occasionally, however, this degree of compression does lead to distortion of complex historical realities. For example, unsophisticated undergraduate readers of this text would be surprised to learn from other sources that the USSR did fight against Japan in World War II (however briefly) and that some of the Soviet Union's East European satellite states did request Marshall Plan aid (even though Moscow subsequently forced them to withdraw their applications). The decay and collapse of the Soviet Union is well described, but the ephemeral Commonwealth of Independent States is treated as a genuine successor to the USSR and the degree of internal violence within several of the post-Soviet republics is seriously understated. Similarly, twentieth-century Chinese history is so briefly summarized that the reader may not understand how the communists came to power in China. Also, in discussing Marxist revolutions and regimes in Latin America, the author neglects to mention the role played by the consistent, powerful opposition of the United States government.

These are no doubt inevitable flaws in such a compact treatment of the post-war world. Yet, this very compactness is a strength, since, with only 138 pages of text, instructors will be able to supplement this book with specialized social science or humanistic studies and novels, without overburdening their students. This text should prove valuable to instructors in courses on modern or contemporary world history as well as in social science or interdisciplinary courses dealing with current global issues. The writing and level of analysis make this work most appropriate for college-bound high school seniors and for university freshmen and sophomores. The author does not assume much knowledge of current affairs or recent history on the part of his readers. He frequently identifies geographic locations and defines political or military terms (e.g., "strategic weapons") so that college freshmen should have no difficulty following his analysis.

University of North Carolina at Asheville

Teddy J. Uldricks

James Knowlton & Truett Cates, translators. *Forever in the Shadow of Hitler? Original Documents of the Historikerstreit, The Controversy Concerning the Singularity of the Holocaust*. Atlantic Highlands, NJ: Humanities Press, 1993. Pp. xii, 282. Paper, \$15.00.

William B. Breuer. *Hoodwinking Hitler: The Normandy Deception*. Westport, CT, and London: Praeger, 1993. Pp. 263. Cloth, \$24.95.

No great nation can long afford to be sundered
by a memory.—George Bush, inaugural
address, 1989.

President Bush made this statement in regard to the Vietnam War, but it might equally serve as an epigraph for the "historikerstreit," the historian's dispute, that erupted in Germany in 1986. The memory in question is the Holocaust, and more generally the Nazi period, and the dispute concerns how both scholars and the general public can come to terms with these aspects of Germany's past.

The historian's dispute is a complex and ill-defined subject, but at the risk of great oversimplification, its outlines are as follows: Conservative scholars such as Ernst Nolte and Michael Sturmer argue that the time has come to put the Holocaust and the entire Nazi period in a new perspective. Nolte suggests that the Holocaust must be compared to other cases of genocide, and in particular it must be linked to Soviet atrocities, which triggered a German reaction. "Auschwitz," Nolte writes, "is not primarily a result of traditional anti-semitism . . . It was the fear-borne reaction to the acts of annihilation that took place during the Russian Revolution." Sturmer is concerned that an obsessive focus on the Nazi past, especially by left-wing scholars, has robbed Germans of their historical consciousness and national identity. The leading voice in the liberal opposition to these new perspectives is the philosopher Jurgen Habermas. Habermas argues that Nolte and Sturmer are in fact seeking to recreate a chauvinistic German nationalism that will undermine the democratic gains of the post-war period.

Forever in the Shadow of Hitler? includes 42 original documents of the Historikerstreit, plus five additional notes. The authors include Nolte, Sturmer, and Habermas, as well as Christian Meier, Klaus Hildebrand, Joachim Fest, Eberhard Jackel, and others. The documents are drawn from newspapers and magazines, as well as texts of speeches given in various contexts.

The historian's dispute raises a number of fundamental questions about history in general and German history in particular. It has forced historians to look anew at the Nazi period, and to consider questions of the origins and the uniqueness of the Holocaust. The intense debate also opens fresh perspectives on post-war Germany, suggesting new ways of thinking about politics and culture and the politics of culture in the Federal Republic. And, not the least important, the Historikerstreit raises crucial (but often ignored) questions about the nature of historical knowledge, the role of comparisons in historical thinking, and the relationships between ideology and scholarship.

The Historikerstreit is therefore an excellent tool for encouraging critical thinking about the nature and meaning of history. But the collection translated by James Knowlton and Truett Cates, while a valuable source of documents, poses several problems as a textbook. There is no introduction, and the only notes are those in the original articles. Furthermore, the contributors are not identified in any way. Thus, students will have no context within which to understand the articles, unless extensive class time is devoted to presenting background material. The articles are arranged in chronological order; while this does allow the reader to see the evolution of the debate, it also makes it more difficult to see connections and overall patterns.

Forever in the Shadow of Hitler? needs to be read in conjunction with an analysis of the Historikerstreit such as Charles S. Maier's excellent *The Unmasterable Past* (Cambridge:

Harvard University Press, 1988). Maier's book provides both context and concepts for understanding the documents in Knowlton and Cates. The two together would be good choices for courses on post-war Germany or on the philosophy and methods of history. While neither is suitable for lower-level or survey courses, they should prove valuable reference works for instructors in modern German history and for serious students seeking insights into the current state of historical thinking in Germany.

William B. Breuer, the author of seventeen books on World War II, is a veteran of the first assault waves to land in Normandy on June 6, 1944. His *Hoodwinking Hitler* is a popular account of the espionage activities surrounding D-Day, and especially the Allied efforts to deceive the Nazi high command about the timing and location of the invasion.

Breuer is an enthusiastic writer with a good ear for colorful anecdotes, and *Hoodwinking Hitler* is highly readable. But this is familiar ground, covered by many other writers, and Breuer has little new to add. There is no effort at analysis and no attempt to place the events described in any larger context. *Hoodwinking Hitler* would make a good gift for the World War II "buff" but has little or no use in the classroom or on course reading lists.

Broome Community College

Lorenz J. Firsching

Pat Hudson. *The Industrial Revolution*. New York: Routledge, Chapman & Hall, 1992. Pp. xi, 240. Paper, \$15.95.

It is commonplace to mark the late eighteenth and first half of the nineteenth century as a momentous epoch in the north Atlantic world. Profound demographic, intellectual, and political changes, accompanied by the onset of the Industrial Revolution, engendered the most fundamental socio-economic changes since the development of agriculture more than ten thousand years earlier. In a variety of ways the old order would persevere for decades, in some instances even two or three generations. But traditional society was henceforth on the defensive, fighting a losing battle to maintain accustomed ideological, political, and economic structures. Of course the impact of the changes on the traditional *tableaux* was complex and varied: For example, elites often invested in new economic enterprises while attempting to maintain their place in the traditional ideological and political foundations of the "old order;" laborers were glad to proclaim their emancipation from the "eternal" deferential society, as they struggled against capitalist enterprise to preserve the "moral economy" of a pre-industrial society.

Pat Hudson's *Industrial Revolution* examines the present-day historiographical controversies associated with these and many other developments during the extraordinary epoch. Limiting his work to Britain, and then almost exclusively to England from the 1760s to the 1830s, Hudson argues that, although far from complete, England experienced a definitive break from traditional society.

Hudson's "Industrial Revolution" is broadly defined, much in the way American scholars often apply the term "modernization" to explain the interrelated economic, social, political, and ideological phenomena of the era. He argues that the industrial revolution can be understood only in the context of an integration of "social and economic conditions" originating in a deep-rooted historical process unique to Western Europe, and particularly England, that "gathered a particular momentum in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries."

Divided into two sections, the book first reviews the historiography of "Perspectives on the Industrial Revolution," "The Economy and the State," and "Agriculture and the Industrial Revolution." Part Two considers "Regions and Industries," "Demography and Labour," "Consumption and Commerce," and "Class and Gender."

Throughout this work, the reader is treated to lucid discussion of differing scholarly interpretations of the above issues, as well as numerous subsidiary themes within each of those

broad categories. Hudson's succinct analyses of conflicting views are informed by his impressive grasp of the wide range of literature that has been pouring forth in the last generation. The footnotes themselves represent a valuable survey of the important material one should read to develop substantial grounding in the topics that Hudson treats. Combined with the text, there is a great deal packed into a relatively short, highly useful, book.

Who will use it? Faculty teaching and writing in the era will find the analyses very helpful in reviewing or in achieving familiarity with numerous historiographical issues. The book is almost certain to become a primer for graduate students preparing a field in early industrialization and its ramifications. Advanced American undergraduates can learn from it, too, although the historiographical arguments will need to be explicated by class discussion. The book will need supplementing, too, because it does not substitute for an historical narrative: The uninitiated—that is, the usual undergraduate—will require a chronological sense of what was going on. The early chapters of Landes's *Unbound Prometheus*—or a similar economic history—would put flesh on the bones of Hudson's economic analyses. Further reading assignments in social, political, and ideological subjects could be introduced from the rich monographic literature available. A broad text, such as J. R. Gillis, *Development of European Society, 1770-1870*, or P. N. Stearns and H. Chapman, *European Society in Upheaval: Social History Since 1750* (3d ed.), would also help students comprehend the era and therefore better understand Hudson's substantial historiographical contribution in this valuable book.

University of Puget Sound

Walter Lowrie

Stephen J. Lee. *The Thirty Years War*. New York: Routledge, Chapman, & Hall, 1991. Pp. 73. Paper, \$8.95.

Read Lee before reading Lee. Stephen J. Lee is Head of History at Bromsgrove School and the author of two books: the two volume *Aspects of European History* (second edition, 1984) and *European Dictatorships, 1918-1945* (1987). If you are planning to purchase *The Thirty Years War*, you should first read his earlier thoughts on the subject in *Aspects of European History, 1494-1789* (pp. 101-23). In three brief chapters, *Aspects* describes the major issues involved, the controversy over the impact on Germany, and the importance of the Treaty of Westphalia. Lee's writing here is clear, concise, and organized. *Aspects* contains an excellent summary of the historical factors, events, and debates surrounding the great seventeenth-century conflict. Alas, all of these positive elements are lost when Lee expands the previous 23 pages into 73.

The main problem is lack of focus. The seven chapters look promising enough: "Outline of the Thirty Years War," "Motives of the Participants," "Personalities in the War," "Religious Issues in the War," "Military Developments in the War," "Impact of the War on Society and the Germany Economy," and "The Peace of Westphalia." But after the contents page the text takes off in many directions. There is no general introduction, as Lee jumps straight into the Bohemian Revolt in 1618. The topical nature of the narrative promotes excessive overlapping and, what is worse, information in one section that would be more helpful in an earlier one. *The Thirty Years War* frequently quotes from *Aspects* either with awkward paraphrasing or verbatim without citation. These difficulties are not pervasive throughout the pamphlet. Rather, they are irritants that pop up often enough. The paraphrasing sometimes recalls student essays that turn quotations into nonquotations by changing every third word with the aid of a thesaurus. And the unidentified direct quotations are easily recognizable from the earlier book. (For two examples see the comments on F. L. Carsten in *The Thirty Years War*, p. 70, and *Aspects*, p. 114, and on the Treaty of Westphalia as a turning point in European history in *The Thirty Years War*, p. 57, and *Aspects*, p. 123.) The brief bibliography contains 28 secondary sources (omitting *Aspects*) and two primary sources (but no literature, not even *The Adventures of Simplicissimus*,

whose author is mentioned in passing on p. 59 without any direct reference to the novel—unlike the direct reference in *Aspects*, p. 115) and is arranged in no clear order. There is no index. The only advantage that this Lee has over the earlier Lee is illustrative: This Lee has five decent maps (main phases, protagonists, religious composition, destruction, and the peace) and four engravings (including a tiny reproduction of Jacques Callot's *Les Miseres de la Guerre*). Beyond these illustrations, there is no contest between which of these Lees provides the finer introduction to the Thirty Years War: the earlier Lee.

The greatest disappointment of *The Thirty Years War* is that it is promoted on the back cover as a study specifically designed to help students understand the war. At least that is the spiel covering the series of "Lancaster Pamphlets" from the University of Lancaster's History Department, of which Lee's recent study is one. One should be cautious when assigning a book that claims boldly that "No previous knowledge of the subject is required on the part of the student." In this case, though the claim is probably the publisher's rather than the author's, this statement is untrue.

Again, read Lee before reading Lee, certainly before assigning *The Thirty Years War* to your classes.

Catawba College

Charles McAllister

Richard M. Golden and Thomas Kuehn, eds. *Western Societies: Primary Sources in Social History*. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1993. Volume I: *From the Ancient Near East to the Seventeenth Century*. Pp. xv, 330. Paper, \$18.70; Volume II: *From the Seventeenth Century to the Present*. Pp. xix, 364. Paper, \$18.70.

Richard M. Golden and Thomas Kuehn, two professors of Western civilization at Clemson University, offer an anthology of relatively short, complete readings, focused on the "have-nots" of society. In this, the anthology succeeds. The readings are keyed to twenty-one different texts.

Insofar as Western civilization is about historical identity, the anthology is problematic. Historical identity is about that which should and should not be preserved. Underlying assumptions merit more attention in the otherwise subtle editorial comments. I found dating when the documents were written irritating, almost as if the Donation of Constantine had never been challenged. I also found the between five and 24 questions at the end of each commentary an irritation. The questions were too numerous to hold in memory during the reading and too specific to let the mind roam over the possible meanings for the facts presented.

Each volume is divided into four subsections. Each subsection contains a well-written editorial comment, as does each individual reading. Translations are relatively smooth. While there is none, there seems to be little need for an index. There are two tables of contents, one chronological, the other topical. "Acknowledgments" enables the diligent reader to identify the source of each document. The editorial comments leave considerable room for further explication.

The underlying feminist issue in Western civilization is the relationship between competitive and nourishing values. The anthology includes much about women. Nothing is included, however, about the conflict of underlying values required for interpreting the documents in the light of present interests. In other words, without pointing out the underrated value for nourishing in Western civilization, the readings are quite suitable for their original purpose of justifying sexism.

Volume II chides Leo XIII for his encyclical on Christian marriage without also recognizing the legitimacy and need for students to have moral values. It is one thing to observe that all too often church officials have tried to use their political power to determine what shall be accepted as true. It is something else to observe that the gift of Western civilization is to

value the insistence that it is the truth which is to determine what is politically correct. In other words, Jesus, crucified for speaking the truth in the face of political opposition, is acceptable in Western civilization, but Pilate, crucifying Jesus in order to force the truth into political conundrums, is unacceptable. Volume II misses that realization.

The approach to racism is more subtle. That Europeans were slaves is mentioned at least 22 times in the 330 pages of Volume I. Volume II does not handle racism as well, though slavery is mentioned there 28 times in 364 pages. Volume II is not as pointed about the fact that slavery is a European phenomenon before it is a Euro-African phenomenon.

Some comments on specific documents help to describe these works. There is a document on the Dutch Trade, without mentioning involvement in the slave trade. No documents after World War II are offered. Both volumes contain interesting black and white illustrations. For example, ten of the prints of Hogarth are presented in Volume II.

Volume II has a decidedly anti-religious bias. A document is offered on the 1645 founding of the Children of the Hospital of the Trinity, with nothing whatsoever on the contemporaneous former slave, Vincent de Paul. A Barcelona tanner's diary of a plague year is presented, with nothing from Vincent de Paul, concerned about the plague every year during the same period. A great deal is made of how the clergy fled the plague, all the while downplaying the more significant fact that some clergy also remained. By remaining, the clergy kept the people faithful to the Church through the secular upheavals that followed.

Volume II leaves the reader with a sense of inconsistency in translation. The problem is with the uses of old English, rather than with other languages, for example the gobbledygook presentation of the Putney Debates.

Coverage of topics and the underlying research is fine. While these readings have firm value for undergraduates, I doubt whether professors would use them to add to their own lectures. These readings illustrate rather than explicate or narrate whatever it may be that is professed by the teacher.

This anthology is suitable for the freshman Western civilization course, but it does require a professor to unscramble the hidden assumptions behind the readings.

Thomas Nelson Community College

Raymond J. Jirran

Kieran Egan. *Imagination in Teaching and Learning: The Middle School Years*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1992. Pp. ii, 178. Cloth, \$27.00; Paper, \$8.95.

The best analogy one could draw in preparing to teach middle school social studies classes is one that is similar to a general getting ready for a battle whose soldiers consist of a vast pool of untried individuals with a myriad of both unlimited academic talents and deficiencies who are away from home for the first time. To get the troops ready for the foray the general must understand, nurture, and draw upon the talents each individual possesses in order to overcome any trepidations they may have and to eventually conquer their foe.

In *Imagination in Teaching and Learning: The Middle School Years*, Kieran Egan suggests that one way to prepare middle school students for broader intellectual and academic pursuits and to help them succeed in school is to use each student's imaginative life to stimulate learning. He does this in a very straightforward and highly readable manner by first discussing what he calls "a very short history of the imagination" in which he depicts memory and myth from biblical times through the modern era.

Next, he relates why imagination is important to education and the characteristics of students' imaginative lives. In these sections the affective and psychological role of the imagination is portrayed. This completes the first half of the book that is used to set the intellectual and philosophic framework for Egan's imaginative framework for the middle school.

The second part of this work is devoted to applying both learning principles and curriculum design toward the use of the imagination. A planning framework as well as information on how his ideas are related to different learning taxonomies are provided.

Perhaps the best section of this book next follows in which the author provides specific examples of using imagination concepts in mathematics, science, social studies, and language arts. Within the dialogue about social studies Egan relates how to both humanize and add romance to the curriculum by bringing it to life through the student becoming an active participant in the learning process.

The concluding portion of the book provides examples of infusing the author's ideas throughout the middle school curriculum. This segment also includes the most controversial segment of the book in which the author calls for the elimination of the social studies and humanities as a part of the middle school curriculum. Space does not permit a complete presentation of his arguments for this radical idea, but it is interesting to note that the author states that his unsympathetic views on this subject may be "eccentric and inadequately formed."

This book could best be used in a class at the undergraduate level that was preparing students to become middle school teachers or in a curriculum design class at the graduate level. In addition, it provides another weapon against the status quo for those of us who are working for curriculum reform and revision as well as social changes within the typical school structure. Its call for major curricular reform for implementing a change in looking at and solving problems will provide for a lively debate within the academic and school communities.

The University of Texas at San Antonio

Richard A. Diem

