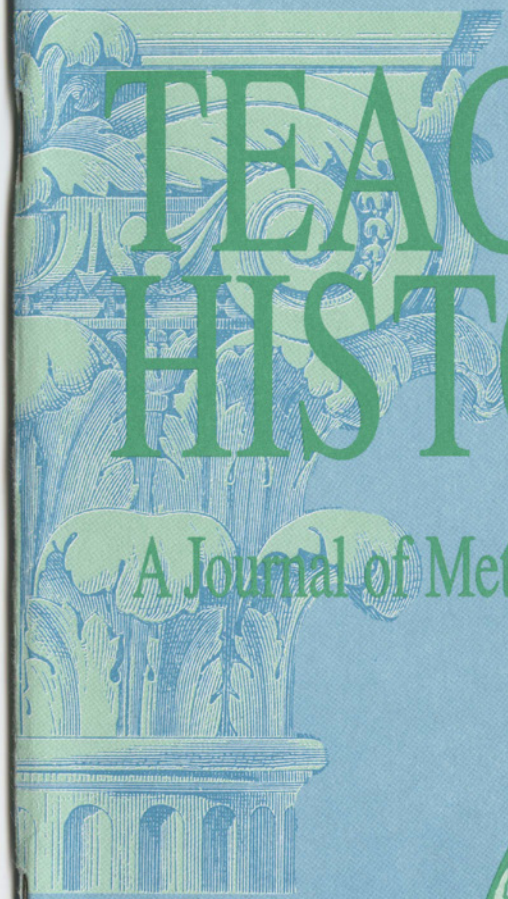
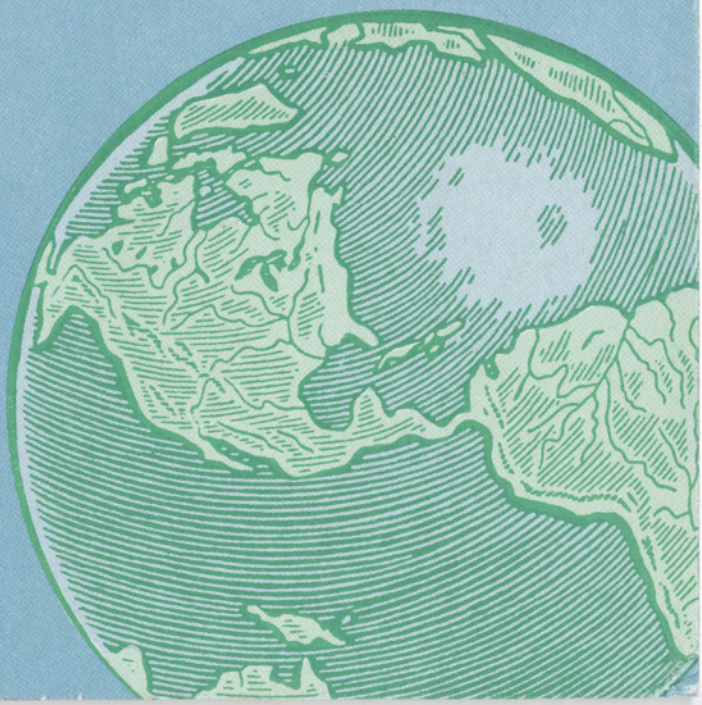
Volume 22 • Number 1 • Spring 1997

TEACHING HISTORY

A Journal of Methods





TEACHING HISTORY
A JOURNAL OF METHODS

Teaching History: A Journal of Methods is published twice yearly in the Spring and Fall. *Teaching History* receives its chief financial support from the Division of Social Sciences and the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences of Emporia State University. It also receives support from the College of the Ozarks. Annual subscriptions in U.S. currency are $7.00 for individuals and $10.00 for libraries and institutions. All business communications, including subscriptions, should be sent to Sam Dicks, Campus Box 4032, ESU, Emporia, KS 66801-5087, fax 316/341-5143, e-mail dickssam@esumail.emporia.edu.

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ISSN 0730-1383

TEACHING HISTORY
A JOURNAL OF METHODS
Volume XXII, Number 1, Spring, 1997

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REVIEWS

NEW WINE IN OLD BOTTLES: REVITALIZING THE TRADITIONAL HISTORY LECTURE

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Active learning....student-centered learning....interactive learning.... collaborative education....student-directed learning....empowerment in the classroom.

The jargon of cognitive psychology and education makes many historians cringe. While there doubtless are good educational techniques and substance lurking behind these terms, an underlying premise is that the traditional lecture[1] does not work, that by its very nature lecturing renders students passive learners, induces apathy, and runs a greater risk of boring them into not learning at all (e.g., much of the content presented via lecture "is not attended to by students and what is attended to may be distorted on its path from the lecturer's notes to the students"[2]). Although it is certainly possible that lecturing can contribute to a student's failure to learn, the contention here is that such results are not inevitable, that lecturing, especially history lecturing, can be made to promote learning in a way comparable to any other technique. I myself learned a great deal—certainly more than just historical facts and dead-weight information—from several outstanding lecturers. And I have gotten enough feedback over more than a quarter century of teaching to believe that I have had at least some success as a lecturer and, as well, a positive influence on many of my students who have become teachers (but not all of whom lecture).

I would contend, for the following reasons, that no single approach to teaching history is absolutely superior to all others: (1) Each of us is better at one technique or another; (2) our students are not always the same nor is the size of each class; and (3) with our goals remaining neither static nor uniform—both within a single course and from course to course—we inevitably determine the approach to use based upon how we see those goals being achieved optimally. Thus any number of methods can be used effectively, and several methods can, and should, be combined—which is part of what will be recommended here, although not that simply. That is, any method of teaching can become routine over time, and research suggests that the attention span of students

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For their advice and suggestions, I am grateful to my colleagues Ward McAfee, Lanny Fields, and Robin Balthrope, to James Lorence (University of Wisconsin-Marathon Center), and to Carol Pixton (Polytechnic School, Pasadena, CA).

[1]Our word "lecture" from the Latin verb *legere*, meaning "gather, choose," developed semantically to mean "read" when, during the Middle Ages, students did not have books readily available to them. John Ayto, *Dictionary of Word Origins* (New York: Arcade Publishing/Little, Brown, 1990).

[2]Christopher Knapper, "Large Classes and Learning," in Maryellen Gleason Weimer, ed., *Teaching Large Classes Well* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1987) 9.

might start to wane after the first ten minutes or so.[3] Therefore, some energy, throughout a class session, ought to be devoted indirectly to reviving that attention, and even the best lecturers should regularly interrupt the spoken narrative with something a little different.

In essence, however, and fundamental to teaching—regardless of the way one teaches or the styles employed—is the ability to **engage** students, to get them involved intellectually. Some teaching techniques and styles might lend themselves more readily to engagement, but virtually all approaches can be made to work, including the traditional history lecture. To be sure, a lecturer must avoid appearing to pontificate, or merely to pass along information and fact, or to repeat what is "in the book." A lecture is not a paper delivered at a professional meeting nor a speech before a partisan audience. To present a straight, factual, chronological history is to trivialize our discipline and to transform the teacher into an abridged version of a talking textbook. Instead, success in lecturing involves interacting with students; the lecturer must make what goes on in the classroom engaging. The purpose of this essay, then, is to suggest a number of ways that can help make such success happen in history classrooms.

Goals and Philosophy

Let's start with a generalization. Regardless of the history we teach, as we approach each course we should have goals. Having goals means we should take time to be introspective, to reflect upon our courses in order to determine what we want our students to come away with at the end of the term; and when we reflect, we should think as well about how lecturing can contribute to those goals. For example, in my various history courses I have established three kinds of broad goals: First, that students come to possess some minimal knowledge base and an understanding of the subject in question. Second, that they become, at the very least, a little bit excited about the passion of history, that they come to acknowledge the importance of history for who they are and who they will become. And third, that they expand their reading, writing, and thinking skills under the heading of what can be called "thinking historically;" that is, I realize that whatever body of knowledge students may have absorbed, over time much of it will be forgotten.

So, what is it that I want them to learn over and above content? If I can help them to think in a historical way, if I can get them to ask certain kinds of questions and to challenge perceived wisdom, if I can encourage them to evaluate and analyze material,

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[3]Wilbert J. McKeachie, *Teaching Tips: A Guidebook for the Beginning College* Teacher, 8th ed. (Lexington, MA: D.C. Heath, 1986), 72; also see Peter Elbow, *Embracing Contraries: Explorations in Learning and Teaching* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986), 182-94. Others suggest that attention starts to wane within 15 and 25 minutes. The number of minutes notwithstanding, the important distinction is that interest can start to slacken long before a class session ends.

if I can stir their blood, if I can push them to become more sophisticated writers, thinkers, and speakers, then they will possess attitudes and skills—even if only in rudimentary form—that they can take to other classes, and into the world beyond school.[4] Therefore, to know where we wish to take our students—to know how to forge a link between our sophisticated comprehension and their growing understanding—is a prerequisite for trying to teach them.

Related to our sophisticated comprehension and students' ability to understand is a Darwinian-like selection we must make with regard to what should be excluded from a lecture. There is always so much we might include, especially when we know a lot about a topic, but studies have shown what François Fénelon quipped three centuries ago: "The more you say, the less people remember."[5] Among the skills excellent teachers seem to possess are the ability to make these selections as per class level, to support these selections with sufficient examples, to make difficult material comprehensible, and to be aware that these skills are intertwined with one another.

Further, it should be remembered that we learn best when we acknowledge a need to know. Whatever method of teaching is employed, the teacher must "bring students to an awareness of their ignorance of a subject...[and since] students also learn best when they think for themselves,"[6] lectures should be more than a conveyor belt for the passage of knowledge from the producer to the consumer. Once we determine what it is we want our students to understand, we have to involve them in discovering this for themselves. Where, then, do we start to make the traditional history lecture work as a technique to engage and involve our students? The following suggestions are divided into two broad categories: first is a menu of vital actions and considerations, second is a collection of useful strategies.

Vital Actions and Considerations

The Human Dimension: Audiences do not connect well with intellectual abstractions; they do identify with people and feelings.[7] Concepts and events are more likely to come to life and to have meaning when they are related to the people involved. To the extent

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[4]For an examination of ten different explanations of what it means to think historically and how that translates into practice, see "Teaching Innovations Forum: Thinking Historically," ed. by Robert Blackey, *Perspectives*, 33:7 (October 1995).

[5]Quoted in *The Dictionary of Humorous Quotations*, ed. by Evan Egar (New York: Dorset, 1989), 73; the studies referred to are in McKeachie, *Teaching Tips,* and William E. Cashin, "Improving Lectures," in Maryellen Weimer and Rose Ann Neff, eds., *Teaching College: College Reading for the New Instructor* (Madison, WI: Magna Publications, 1990), 59-63.

[6]Patrick Malcolmson and Richard Myers, "Pooled Ignorance, Talking Heads, and Socratic Dialectic," *College Teaching*, 42:1 (1994), 2.

[7]William Zinsser, *On Writing Well,* 5th ed. (New York: HarperCollins, 1995), 175.

possible,therefore, humanize the people you talk about. Learn what you can about their human characteristics; it is easy enough to impress students with the sometimes superhuman or out-of-the-ordinary accomplishments of the important individuals who are highlighted in lectures and texts. But without conveying a sense of what these people were like behind the scenes or between the lines, without bringing them to life in a way students can identify with—warts and all—you run the risk of lower levels of understanding.[8]

In a comparable way, presenting yourself in a human—as opposed to robotic—way should be more conducive to learning. By being enthusiastic, dynamic, and passionate you can become a model for promoting motivation, inspiration, and curiosity. Teachers who enjoy what they are doing are more likely to have students who enjoy being in their classes; enjoyment is contagious. "Enthusiasm is the most convincing orator. It is like an infallible law of nature. The simplest person, fired with enthusiasm, is more persuasive than the most eloquent person without it."[9] Explain why you are committed to your field, why a topic is important to you, and why it is essential to study history. As you read and do research in your subject, inevitably you learn something new. Why not demonstrate an eagerness to share it? Relate experiences from your research and travel: not just "war stories" but tales that convey the thrill (as well as the tedium) of research and the discovery that usually comes from perseverance and from travel to places you teach about. To me, each group of students is a new audience to win over, to discover that mine is the most important class they have ever had and that I am their best teacher.

Be yourself and allow who you are to characterize your style and to free you from conventional and predictable boundaries. There is no single way that can work for all of us because none of us are the same. Each person's style is like a fingerprint, unique to that individual. Find yours and make it work. (In my first couple of years teaching, I recall imitating those of my own history teachers who left a lasting impression. In time, I adapted their styles to suit me, and I allowed who I was to evolve into the teacher I have become.) Analyze your own personality and learn to make use of your most

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[8]The following, in addition to standard and popular biographies, are useful for learning about individual historic figures: Anne Commire, ed., *Historic World Leaders*, 5 vols. (Detroit: Gale Research, 1994) [It contains some 620 biographical sketches of prominent figures throughout the history of the world.]; Ken Wolf, *Personalities and Problems*, 2 vols. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1994) [It contains 21 essays that compare contemporaneous figures in world history.]; J. Kelley Sowards, ed., *Makers of World History*, 2nd ed., 2 vols. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1995) [It includes biographical information, coupled with historical interpretation and documentary source material, on 28 historical figures.]; Dorothy M. Johnson and R.T. Turner, *The Bedside Book of Bastards* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1973) [It includes tales about the notorious activities of 36 figures in world history.]; Ronald D. Smith, *Fascinating People and Astounding Events from the History of the Western World* (Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-Clio, 1990); *Dictionary of American Biography* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1973-94).

[9]Richard L. Weaver II and Howard W. Cotrell, "Lecturing: Essential Communication Strategies," in Weimer, ed., *Teaching Large Classes Well*, 63-64.

positive and endearing characteristics, including your vulnerability, in order to help make what you do add to your appeal. Reduce anxiety—which can conceal passion and distort your public personality—by imagining and visualizing how you wish to be perceived, by reminding yourself that you are more knowledgeable than your students, by believing that you can and will improve, and by adequately preparing yourself.[10]

Teach By Example: Teach by example, critically approaching your subject. How does the way you lecture both teach and encourage students to think in the ways prescribed by history? The history we teach should be argued, not simply narrated; whole courses, as well as individual lectures, should focus on problems and puzzles (some of the pieces of which have become distorted over time or are even missing) and not be a mere chronology of events, even when a course is designed to cover a specific period in a country's or a region's history. During a lecture introduce various interpretations and alternative or conflicting explanations (and not just one when several exist—although these should be limited for lower-division students, in order to make the point without overwhelming them). Similarly, it is crucial to emphasize periodically the difference between interpretation and fact in history (e.g., the United States's dropping atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki at the end the World War II is a fact, whereas the reasons for our doing so is subject to interpretation). Knowing that something happened is generally easier to determine than why it happened, which is also different from deciding whether what happened was good or bad, right or wrong. "Students must be made aware that although there is an inescapable subjective dimension to the study of history, not everything is up for grabs or a matter of opinion."[11]

Motivate students by alerting them to problems and by challenging ideas they have previously taken for granted. Draw upon your own research and reading to show how alive and fascinating our discipline is. Demonstrate what is involved when you weigh and consider evidence and when you make connections and see relationships, especially unexpected connections and relationships. Surely we should all seek to demonstrate that there is not a single, unchanging version of history. Lectures should be used to create frameworks and expectations that might assist students as they read materials for your course, and this can be supplemented by providing students with a list of several questions to think about—some questions to help them understand the material and others to encourage them to think critically about it—as they do their assigned reading.

In class, ask rhetorical questions, and be relaxed enough in your presentation to allow for spontaneous discussion. Raise questions that challenge the subject matter,

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[10]Ibid., 57-59.

[11]Gerald N. Izenberg, "Teaching History," in Keith W. Prichard and R. McLaren Sawyer, eds., *Handbook of College Teaching: Theory and Applications* (Westport, CT: Greenwood, 1994), 265; also see Samuel S. Wineburg and Suzanne M. Wilson, "Models of Wisdom in the Teaching of History," *Phi Delta Kappan* (September 1988), 50-58.

especially as it appears in textbooks, in supplementary readings, and among commonly-held beliefs; then model answers to these questions, eventually with students' involvement. Think out loud and walk them through your thought processes. Suggest to students that while they rarely have the opportunity to question the author of their textbooks, they do have regular access to you both in and out of class. (Incidentally, if you ask thought-provoking essay test questions, such modeling in class should eventually help students to respond more effectively on your exams.)[12] Also, allow students to walk you through their thought processes as well; this is educational for you and for them.

The mention of modeling and textbooks calls to mind the once time-honored but now, I expect, little used teaching technique of textual analysis (*explication du texte*). We all may assign readings, but many of us no doubt devote insufficient attention to analyzing them thoroughly. It would be more instructive, however, for us first to model reading and analyzing passages out loud and then to encourage students to do the same—while providing constructive criticism in the process. Even in large classes students can follow their teachers in this act of modeling (of their books, with handouts, or via transparencies), and then be divided into small groups of three to five in order to try their hand and to provide their own feedback. This same approach can be used to teach analysis of graphs, charts, tables, political cartoons, maps, census data, parish rolls, and the like, as the work of Peter J. Frederick and Robert F. Berkhofer, Jr. has demonstrated.[13] Our job, let us remember, is to help students to become more vital human beings, to teach them to learn and to think. And this means we must involve them in "analyzing materials, formulating problems, developing hypotheses, bringing evidence to bear, criticizing and evaluating alternative solutions."[14]

Modeling, not incidentally, is also a way to reveal ourselves as passionate, human creatures, with deeply held beliefs and convictions that cannot necessarily be proven or disproven objectively. In turn, this becomes an opportunity for teachers to show themselves as subjective beings who can tolerate and respect alternative opinions. History is, in fact, not as objective as we might like to believe, and realizing this can perhaps help us to be more honest with ourselves and with our students. More than a

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[12]Robert Blackey, "A Guide to the Skill of Essay Construction in History," *Social Education*, 45:3 (March 1981), 178-82; Robert Blackey, "Bull's-eye: A Teachers' Guide for Developing Student Skills in Responding to Essay Questions," *Social Education*, 52:6 (October 1988), 464-66; John C. Bartul, "Teaching the Value of Inquiry Through the Essay Question," *Perspectives*, 27:8 (November 1989). These articles are reprinted in Robert Blackey, ed., *History Anew: Innovations in the Teaching of History Today* (Long Beach: The University Press, California State University, Long Beach, 1993).

[13]Peter J. Frederick, "The Lively Lecture—8 Variations," *College Teaching*, 34:2 (1986), 47-48. For detailed directions and guidance on how to teach textual analysis, see Robert F. Berkhofer, Jr., "Demystifying Historical Authority: Critical Textual Analysis in the Classroom," Perspectives, 26:2 (February 1988), reprinted in *History Anew*.

[14]McKeachie, *Teaching Tips*, 77.

hundred years ago, Nietzsche reflected on this very subject, declaring that "History unsettles the feelings....If the personality is once emptied of its subjectivity, and comes to what men call an 'objective' condition, nothing can have any more effect on it....*You can explain the past only by what is most powerful in the present*...To take everything objectively, to be angry at nothing, to love nothing, to understand everything—makes one gentle and pliable."[15]

All of the above, then, is to say that being a lecturer does not preclude the use of other teaching techniques and a variety of postures. Discussion can be used with most classes, regardless of size; all students do not have to participate, but the very act of discussion can encourage intellectual engagement if not vocal involvement. Ask questions, and ask for questions and comments. For this to be intellectually sound, however, instructors must explain that they will only accept comments and reactions based on an assessment of facts and on interpretations, not simply on "personal feelings"—although feelings, which cannot be discounted, might instead be used as a basis on which to broaden understanding. As R.G. Collingwood wrote, "To the historian, the activities whose history he is studying are not spectacles to be watched, but experiences to be lived through his own mind; they are objective, or known to him, only because they are also subjective, or activities of his own."[16]

Similarly, an instructor's questions should go beyond the simple recall of facts to include the effects of learning what it means to think historically.[17] Call on students who look puzzled in order to elicit questions from those who might be reluctant to volunteer. Questions form a bridge between the two techniques—of lecture and discussion—and will help you to gauge student comprehension. Good lecturing, especially when joined by discussion, can teach compassion, tolerance, and empathy.[18] Together they can also teach a love of words and for the poetry of language; and they can help you to improve your ability to think on your feet and to learn to be in command of your mind.

Organization and Connections: For any lecture to be successful the teacher must be organized, keeping in mind both the plan for each specific class session and for the entire course, and then thinking about how these are related. Lectures in which insights

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[15]Friedrich Nietzsche, *The Use and Abuse of History* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1957), 32, 33, 40, 53. In these pages, and throughout the book, Nietzsche presents an intriguing discourse on passion and objectivity.

[16]R.G. Collingwood, *The Idea of History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1956), 218.

[17]Even the Socratic method will be useless unless students are prepared with sufficient reading and understanding. "Socratic questions rarely evoke factual information because their intent is not to challenge the student's knowledge-base but to bring information already possessed into the student's conscious awareness and help him or her reason through difficult problems." James C. Overholser, "Socrates in the Classroom," *The Social Studies*, 83:2 (March/April 1992), 78.

[18]An excellent work on this subject is John A. Williams, *Classroom in Conflict: Teaching Controversial Subjects in a Diverse Society* (Albany: State University of New York Press, 1994).

are scattered and not clearly connected make it difficult for students to assimilate the material, much less to understand and retain it. Even a great delivery cannot camouflage lack of preparation, whereas having one's lecture notes or outline organized will fail to help students if there is no pattern when the lecture is delivered. "Ideally students should be able to state the intended organization, and how one fact is broadly related to the rest, at any time during the lecture, firstly because they need to take notes if the amount of information to be retained exceeds the amount they can remember, and secondly because...these links are essential to understanding."[19]

Before a lecture, therefore, think of ways to forge links between new material and what students may already know or have learned, between lecture material and out-of-class assignments, between one day's lecture and both the previous and following ones, between a main point and other subjects or other parts of the same subject or even other disciplines. One way to create such links is through the framing device of starting the lecture with references to the last session followed by a summary of the topic for the day. This places students on familiar ground, and it enables the instructor to indicate how one lecture's material follows from the preceding one.[20] In addition, you should determine beforehand what you hope your students will learn as a result of the lecture.

Not incidentally, the organization of a course also includes developing a detailed syllabus, complete with the subject matter to be covered each week (or each class session), course objectives, expectations (both yours of students and theirs of you), grading procedures, a definition of plagiarism (how to avoid plagiarizing[21] and the penalty for failing to do so), due dates for required readings, exams, and assignments, and with all assignments (including written, oral, and research projects) explained thoroughly, so that students know what to expect each week (or day) and what rules you expect them to follow—rules, say, about attendance, arriving late, talking in class. With regard to required readings, it is wise to introduce them and to explain why they have been chosen, both at the start of the course and, later, when they are about to be read, in order to pique students' interest and to explain their importance for the course. Also, plan in advance so that materials you require, such as audio-visual equipment and reading selections, will be ready.

At the start of each lecture pose questions, dilemmas, or problems, or raise a controversial issue related to the session's assignment or to the material to be covered. Allude to this during the lecture, and again at the end of the lecture. Then solicit students' ideas about the degree to which the questions have been answered, the problem

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[19]Donald A. Bligh, *What's the Use of Lectures?* (Middlesex, England: Penguin, 1972), 76.

[20]Heather Dubrow and James Wilkinson, "The Theory and Practice of Lectures," in Margaret Morganroth Gullette, ed., *The Art and Craft of Teaching* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1984), 26-27; John P. Murray and Judy I. Murray, "How Do I Lecture Thee?" *College Teaching*, 40:3 (1992), 109.

[21]See "Note on Responsible Use of Sources" in *The Pop Culture Tradition: Readings with Analysis for Writing*, edited by E.M. White (New York: W.W. Norton, 1972), 194-96.

solved, the controversy resolved (or at least sufficiently addressed). This technique provides students with a framework for grasping and organizing the lecture. And responses at the end of class provide the instructor with feedback about student learning and thinking. In other words, allow students to see where you are heading, the main points to be covered, and the purpose behind your choices. In this way, if some students miss a point or a transition, they should still be able to follow the lecture.[22]

Variations on these lecture-launching techniques include the introduction of unusual or even alarming facts or statistics, the telling of an intriguing story, or the showing of a dramatic illustration, all connected, of course, to the day's material. These serve the same purpose as an introductory paragraph in an essay, the opening remarks of a speech, or a newspaper headline: They grab the attention of the audience and ease entry into the subject at hand. Remember, however, that attention does not last long. Thus, not only must thought be given to the opening of a lecture, but to retaining attention throughout as well. (The suggestions included in the next section are meant to serve that purpose.)

Consider, as well, the use of handouts, especially in large classes and for lower-division students whose skills development is unsophisticated, because they may be the best way to ensure that everyone in the class receives at least some form of the most essential information. Handouts cannot substitute for elaboration of main points and for the use of examples, but they can provide useful introductory information, they can serve to guide students through the lecture and, perhaps, reduce compulsive note taking. Later, they can help to guide students through their reading and/or reviewing.[23]

During the course of every lecture always make it a habit to explain—and to get students to explain—why something was or is significant: in the short run, in the long run, as it relates to other issues and events. Show cause and effect, the impact of something. Make it clear, as well, that events rarely have just one cause and one effect. And while inevitably we must engage in simplifying a topic for pedagogical purposes, students should always be left with a sense of the complexity of the history making process. Focus on change and the causes of change while also calling attention to continuities amid the changes. Explain how events and actions fit in with long-range trends, and how the role played, at times, by contingency or accidental factors must be considered. Similar connections must be made between those actions and an individual's, a government's, or a group's goals and achievements. All this is important to help develop students' ability to think historically, to make them aware that history "is concerned with the processes of life rather than with the meaning or purpose or goal

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[22]Richard L. Weaver II, "Effective Lecturing Techniques: Alternatives to Classroom Boredom," in Weimer and Neff, eds., *Teaching College*, 65. Weaver outlines a variety of ways to secure students' attention, hold their interest, and develop your own desire and actions to reinforce what you teach.

[23]Karron G. Lewis, "Teaching Large Classes (How to Do It Well and Remain Sane)," in Prichard and Sawyer, eds. *Handbook of College Teaching*, 336-37.

of life,"[24] and to help them make sense of history so they can appreciate the discipline as being far more than a sterile chronicling of unconnected, perhaps mindless events, all of equal importance (or of equal insignificance).

Useful Strategies

Launching the Lecture: Begin courses by pointing to possible gaps in students' knowledge, or by challenging accepted beliefs, or by raising provocative questions, all of which will be filled, discussed, and possibly answered over the next several weeks. Each of these approaches can serve to raise curiosity and to grab attention. They can help students to know where you are headed and what is expected of them. I especially like to start each course—after I have reviewed the syllabus and other introductory items—with assorted material about the subject matter (e.g., aspects and anecdotes about the British for my courses on their history) and the distinctiveness of my approach that lets them know that both learning and sophisticated subjects can be fun and that I do not fit any preconceived stereotype of a history professor. I find this keeps them a little off balance—in a healthy way—and generates anticipation. Alternatively, it is useful to begin survey courses with a discussion of history as a discipline—perhaps building upon provocative quotations on what history is and means[25]—and the reasons for studying the particular period and places to be covered.[26] One could also anticipate and counter the anti-intellectual old saw, "What can you do with history?" with a brief response to the more insightful, "What can you do without it?"[27]

In launching a new topic or unit, one can make use of the interactive lecture, a technique involving brainstorming that has been advocated by Peter Frederick.[28] Students contribute to the creation of a lecture by participating in the process of structuring a topic into a rational pattern. The teacher begins by having students call out what they know about the topic at hand and, then, by writing on the board (or on a

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[24]Herbert Butterfield, *The Whig Interpretation of History* (New York: W.W. Norton, 1965), 67.

[25]In addition to useful reference books such as *Bartlett's Familiar Quotations*, computer CD-ROM disks, such as Microsoft Bookshelf, are convenient and speedy resources for quotations.

[26]Izenberg, "Teaching History,"265.

[27]In building a response to this question I use quotations from Polybius ("History offers the best training for those who are to take part in public affairs."), Cicero ("Not to know what happened before one was born is always to be a child."), Plato ("Those who tell the stories also rule the society."), and George Orwell ("Whoever controls the past controls the future.").

[28]"Student Involvement: Active Learning in Large Classes," in Weimer, *Teaching Large Classes Well*, 47-48; Peter J. Frederick, "Motivating Students by Active Learning in the History Classroom," *Perspectives* 31:7 (October 1993); Frederick, "The Lively Lecture--8 Variations," 45-46. Also see Alan Booth and Paul Hyland, eds., *History in Higher Education: New Directions in Teaching and Learning* (Cambridge, MA: Blackwell, 1995).

transparency) whatever is said. The teacher might arrange these responses in groups or have students comment on the accuracy and relative importance of the items. Either way, many students get to participate and to sense what their classmates already know (or don't know), the teacher gains a sense of the class's level of knowledge and understanding, and a jointly created, even coherent, understanding of the topic is begun. To be sure, the teacher must be a subtle director, making certain the appropriate material is included, but the teacher must also be open enough to deviate from his or her preconceived ideas. One way to keep this method on track is for the instructor to ask the class, now and then, to identify themes and patterns that have emerged from the brainstorming, to make connections between and among what is on the board, and to determine what might be missing. In the end, while considerable time may be consumed in using this approach, it is probably time well spent since students tend to be more preoccupied with thinking than with note taking, and that ought to help them to understand better and to remember more. Of equal consideration, and what may determine the success of the interactive lecture, is the careful planning that will be needed beforehand in order for the teacher to be prepared to redirect the energy level that has been raised.

Attention and Imagination Techniques: Employing humor in the classroom was once thought to be unprofessional: it was unscholarly and undignified; it was frivolous and mere entertainment, the antithesis of education, which was serious business. To be humorous was to court popularity.[29] In our own time, however, humor in teaching not only has received better press, it is seen as well as being compatible with learning, freeing creative thinking, and reducing social distance; it is also believed to increase attentiveness, interest, and the retention of material, and it can foster class discussion.[30] I like to use humor as a tool to motivate students, although utilizing humor does not presuppose that one is or should be a stand-up comedian or a clown. Humor should emerge from the subject matter and the setting, which means that the lecturer maintains control over the kind of humor and its occasion. Humor relieves anxiety, both the students' and the teacher's, it breaks the ice, it helps to build trust, and it joins students and teacher together in a more relaxed atmosphere. I allow my sense of humor to be spontaneous, but I also use humor in the form of cartoons (from magazines and newspapers as well as published political cartoons that can do double duty as

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[29]John Morreall, *Taking Laughter Seriously* (Albany: State University of New York Press, 1983), 88-89.

[30]Debra Korobkin, "Humor in the Classroom: Considerations and Strategies," in Weimer and Neff, eds., *Teaching College*, 81.

documents) and howlers (or bloopers), both of which I have been collecting for years.[31] There is no harm in poking playful fun at your subject and at the blunders of those who study it, as long as it is clear to students that there is no intent to ridicule individuals.

Research suggests that students tend to remember principles and generalizations more than anything else,[32] but my own experience indicates they also remember anecdotes, oddities, and curious information as well. Therefore, I like to sprinkle these throughout a lecture as a way of keeping—or even piquing—students' attention, and of making difficult material more palatable.[33] Students frequently are curious where I find

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[31]For howlers in the form of essays, see Anders Henriksson, compiler, "A History of the Past: 'Life Reeked with Joy,'" *Wilson Quarterly* (Spring 1983) 168-171; "The World According to Student Bloopers," in Richard Lederer, *Anguished English* (Charleston, SC: Wyrick & Co., 1987), 7-15. As a long-time Reader of Advanced Placement examinations, for the Educational Testing Service, I have had access to an overflowing plate of howlers, but I only use them as if on a diet. A number of individual bloopers can be found in Richard Lederer, *More Anguished English* (New York: Delacorte Press, 1993), 15-17. For collections of history cartoons, which ordinarily must be found one at a time, patiently, in magazines and newspapers, see Burr Shafer, *Through History with J. Wesley Smith* (New York: Vanguard, 1950) and *The Wonderful World of J. Wesley Smith* (New York: Vanguard, 1960); also see Larry Gonick, *The Cartoon History of the Universe II, vols. 1-7: From the Big Bang to Alexander, vols. 8-13: From the Springtime of China to the Fall of Rome* (New York: Doubleday, 1990) and Larry Gonick, *The Cartoon History of the United States* (New York: HarperCollins, 1991).

[32]Cashin, "Improving Lectures," p. 61.

[33]For selected sources for such material, see Tom Burnam, *The Dictionary of Misinformation* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1975); Tom Burnam, *More Misinformation* (New York: Lippincott & Crowell, 1980); Richard Shenkman, *Legends, Lies, & Cherished Myths of American History* (New York; Morrow, 1988); Richard Shenkman, *Legends, Lies, & Cherished Myths of World History* (New York: HarperCollins, 1993); M. Hirsh Goldberg, *The Blunder Book: Colossal Errors, Minor Mistakes, and Surprising Slipups That Have Changed the Course of History* (New York: Morrow, 1988); Paul F. Boller, Jr., *Not So! Popular Myths About America's Past From Columbus to Clinton* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1995); Paul F. Boller, Jr. and John George, *They Never Said It: A Book of Fake Quotes, Misquotes, and Misleading Attributions* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1989); Paul Kuttner, *History's Trickiest Questions* (New York: Henry Holt, 1990); Leo Rosten, *Infinite Riches: Gems from a Lifetime of Reading* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1979); Reay Tannahill, *Sex in History* (New York: Stein & Day, 1980); Reay Tannahill, *Food in History* (New York: Crown Publishers, 1988); Maguelonne Toussaint-Samat, History of Food (Cambridge, MA: Blackwell, 1992); Sanche de Gramont, *Epitaph for Kings* (New York: Dell Publishing, 1967); Sanche de Gramont, *The French: Portrait of a People* (New York: G.P. Putnam's Sons, 1969); Elizabeth Burton, *The Pageant of Elizabethan England* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1958); Burton, *The Pageant of Stuart England* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1962); Burton, *The Pageant of Georgian England* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1967); Burton, *The Pageant of Early Victorian England* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1972); Daniel Pool, *What Jane Austen Ate and Charles Dickens Knew* (New York: Simon & Schuster, 1993); Otto L. Bettmann, *The Good Old Days—They Were Terrible* (New York: Random House, 1974); Thomas A. Bailey, *Presidential Saints and Sinners* (New York: Free Press, 1981); Thomas A. Bailey, *Probing America's Past: A Critical Examination of Major Myths and Misconceptions* (Lexington, MA: D.C. Heath, 1973); Ted Morgan, *A Shovel of Stars: The Making of the American West, 1830 to the Present* (New York: Simon & Schuster, 1995); Paul F. Boller, Jr., *Presidential Anecdotes*, new & revised edition (New York: Oxford University Press, 1996); Michael Olmert, *Milton's Teeth and Ovid's Umbrella: Curiouser and Curiouser Adventures in History* (New York: Touchstone/Simon and Schuster, 1996); Kwame Anthony

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such items, since they are largely absent from most textbooks and from other history books students have encountered, which conveniently allows me to tell them that I read widely, which in turn encourages them to do the same.

Make the subject matter relevant to the contemporary world, where appropriate, and make it instructive by including references to news of current events that can be linked to what is being studied. The past is always with us at some time or in some way or other, and we have the potential to demonstrate the value of history to the present more accurately—if not more effectively—than TV news reporters or pundits or politicians. While some purists would argue against this suggestion as marginal (irrelevant?) to the study of history, as pandering to fashion and the short attention span of the public, it would be wise to recall that every age writes its own history—because our interpretations depend to a considerable degree on the times in which we live and the values prevalent at that time. For example, does it not make a difference to our understanding of the importance and course of the Bolshevik Revolution, and to the history of the countries of Eastern Europe as well, that the Soviet Union collapsed in our time?

Drawing analogies can be a constructive technique, but doing so should include a discussion of both their value and the pitfalls. We should especially be aware that "there are many examples of how political decisions and developments have been based on misinterpreting and misreading past events, and how historical myths have influenced statesmen and politicians."[34] Analogies are a matter of interpretation, "proper" interpretation if you will, but since historians and other experts will not always agree on what is the proper interpretation of any series of events, our obligation is to acknowledge the fallibility of this approach while simultaneously using it (cautiously) to promote understanding. Or, as Herbert Butterfield advised, "the chief aim of the historian is the elucidation of the unlikenesses between past and present and his chief

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Appiah & Henry Louis Gates, Jr., *The Dictionary of Global Culture* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1997).

The role played by disease in history is a separate sub-category here for intriguing and by no means insignificant or trivial material. The following are especially useful: Hans Zinsser, (Boston: Little, Brown, 1963); Frederick F. Cartwright, *Disease and History* (New York: New American Library, 1972); Theodor Rosebury, *Microbes and Morals: The Strange Story of Venereal Disease* (New York: Ballantine Books, 1973); William H. McNeill, *Plagues and People* (Garden City, NY: Anchor Press, 1976); Philip Ziegler, *The Black Death* (Wolfeboro Falls, NH: Alan Sutton Publishing, 1991); Ida Macalpine and Richard Hunter, *George III and the Mad Business* (New York: Pantheon, 1969). Arno Kaplan, *Man and Microbes: Disease and Plagues in History and Modern Times* (New York: Touchstone/Simon and Schuster, 1996). For general reference see Roderick E. McGrew, *Encyclopedia of Medical History* (London: Macmillan, 1985); Kenneth F. Kiple, ed., *The Cambridge World History of Human Disease* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993).

[34]George O. Kent, "Clio the Tyrant: Historical Analogies and the Meaning of History," *The Historian*, 32:1 (November 1969), 102. Kent's essay (covering pages 99-106) is especially useful for its sober assessment of analogies as a historian's tool, especially for events of the twentieth century.

function is to act in this way as the mediator between other generations and our own."[35] Thus, to try to find lessons in history may be presumptuous of us, but this does not mean there is nothing to learn from such efforts; or, expressed in another way, history will not enable us to predict the future, but it can help us to anticipate it more intelligently, as long as we remember that our responsibility is not "to dogmas or creeds, but to truth and humanity."[36]

The imaginations of students can be stimulated in a variety of ways. Crisp quotations from documentary sources and literary works[37] as well as from the writings of other scholars can be included periodically to enliven and enrich the spoken narrative. Likewise, there are recordings of written and spoken documents that might be utilized to punctuate lectures with a dollop of aural you-are-there authenticity.[38] The use of pictures, slides, and postcards from travel, museum exhibits, and published catalogues make it easier for students to visualize the places, events, and people being discussed; in addition, I regularly pass around illustrated books, along with photographic material from the likes of *National Geographic*, *History Today*, *Smithsonian*, and *American Heritage*, and from newspapers and travel magazines. Where appropriate, maps—and not just political maps and those that illustrate physical features—should be integrated into lectures, as both primary and secondary sources and as texts drawn to transmit information, ideas, and values.[39] Recorded songs and music—which can be used, in fact, as melodic documents—are available in order to

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[35]Butterfield, *The Whig Interpretation of History*, 10.

[36]Hans Kohn, *Reflections on Modern History* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1963), 9-10.

[37]One of my favorites, which I use to convey a sense of what it smelled like in early modern times, comes from the murder mystery *Perfume*, by Patrick Süsskind (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1986). It begins: "In the period of which we speak, there reigned in the cities a stench barely conceivable to us modern men and women. The streets stank of manure, the courtyards of urine, the stairwells stank of moldering wood and rat droppings, the kitchens of spoiled cabbage and mutton fat" (3).

[38]For example, Edward R. Morrow and Fred W. Friendly's *I Can Hear It Now* (Columbia Masterworks, ML 4095, 4261, 4340) captures the recorded voices of earlier in the twentieth century, and they also recorded interviews with Marian Anderson, Gamal Abdel Nasser, David Ben-Gurion, and Winston Churchill; the Royal Shakespeare Company's *The Hollow Crown: The Fall and Foibles of the Kings and Queens of England* (London Records, A4253) offers dramatic readings of letters, commentaries, and trials in English history; *Great Speeches of the 20th Century* (Rhino Records, R4 70567) is a collection of 68 speeches, mostly from American history, but also relating to events in world history, spanning the years 1906 to 1991.

[39]Of great value for direct classroom use are the following collections prepared by Gerald A. Danzer: *Discovering American History through Maps and Views* (New York: HarperCollins, 1991); *Discovering Western Civilization through Maps and Views* (New York: HarperCollins, 1991); *Discovering World History through Maps and Views* (New York: HarperCollins, 1992). For general guidance and further bibliographic suggestions, see Gerald A. Danzer, "Maps, Methods, Motifs: Cartographic Resources for Teaching History," Perspectives, 33:9 (December 1995). In addition to the sources recommended by Danzer, much can be learned from Anthony Grafton, New Worlds, *Ancient Texts: The Power of Tradition and the Shock of Discovery* (Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 1992).

broaden our understanding of cultures from other times and places in ways that two-dimensional representations and written words cannot; plus they add unexpected excitement.[40] (Many of us even have colleagues who occasionally break into song—or we had teachers who did so—although we need not pretend to have such talent in order to turn up the volume of student interest.)

All this can help teachers and students to feel as if they were there, or at least closer to wherever there was; and all this can be used to create images, moods, and emotions. Just as trial lawyers know that what jurors retain is enhanced and complemented by other sensory input, lecturers should be aware of the comparable impact these can have on students. There are also political cartoons,[41] posters,[42] and reproductions of works of art. For example, the paintings of Peter Bruegel the Elder can form the centerpiece for a lecture on sixteenth-century social life in Europe, while the engravings of William Hogarth can do the same for politics and society in eighteenth-century England.[43]

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[40]For example, see Roderic H. Davison, "Teaching History with Song and Doggerel," *Perspectives*, 28:8 (November 1990), reprinted in *History Anew*; Alex Zukas, "Different Drummers: Using Music to Teach History," *Perspectives* (September 1996); *Folk Song in the Classroom*, a newsletter, published 3 times a year (contact Diana Palmer, Assistant Editor, 433 Leadmine Road, Fiskdale, MA 01518). *The Instructor's Resource Kit to Accompany World Civilizations: The Global Experience*, by Peter N. Stearns, et al. (New York: HarperCollins, 1992), includes a 60-minute audio cassette that contains 25 selections from different times and cultures in world history. And *History of Music: The Collection* is a four-disk CD-ROM (available for both Windows and Macintosh) of music from around the world (Zane Publishing, 1950 Stemmons, Ste. 4044, Dallas, TX 75207-3109).

[41]For example, see Michael Wynn Jones, *The Cartoon History of Britain* (New York: Macmillan, 1971); Stephen Hess and Milton Kaplan, *The Ungentlemanly Art: A History of American Political Cartoons* (New York: Macmillan, 1975); Morton Keller, *The Art and Politics of Thomas Nast* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1968); *Thomas Nast: Cartoons and Illustrations*, with text by Thomas Nast St. Hill (New York: Dover Publications, 1974); Herbert Block, *Herblock On All Fronts: Text and Cartoons (*New York: New American Library, 1980); *A Cartoon History of United States Foreign Policy Since World War I*, by the editors of the Foreign Policy Association (New York: Vintage Books, 1968); *Bill Mauldin's Army: Bill Mauldin's Greatest World War II Cartoons* (Novato, CA: Presidio Press, 1983); Alice Sheppard, *Cartooning for Suffrage* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1994); Stephen Hess and Sandy Northrop, *Drawn and Quartered: The History of American Political Cartoons* (Washington, D.C.: Elliot & Clark, 1996).

[42]For example, see Max Gallo, *The Poster in History* (New York: American Heritage Publishing, 1974); Peter Paret, et al., *Persuasive Images: Posters of War and Revolution from the Hoover Institution Archives* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1992); Maurice Rickards, *Posters of Protest and Revolution* (New York: Walker & Co., 1970).

[43]For example, see Francis Haskell, *History and Its Images: Art and the Interpretation of the Past* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1993); William Ayres, ed. *Picturing History: American Painting, 1770-1930* (New York: Rizzoli International, 1993); Robert I. Rotberg & Theodore K. Rabb, eds. *Art and History: Images and Their Meaning* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1990) ;Shirley Wilton, "Art as Social History in the Western Civilization Survey," *Perspectives*, 25:9 (December 1987), reprinted in *History Anew*. A useful reference work is James Hall, *Dictionary of Subjects and Symbols in Art* (New York: Icon Editions/Harper & Row, 1979). On Bruegel, see Margaret A. Sullivan, *Bruegel's Peasants: Art and*

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Reference can be made to feature films and television programs students have seen in recent years in order to support accurate portrayals and to correct errors; use film settings to build lessons that take advantage of those big-screen visual images. The films thus can become not history per se, but vivid points of reference if you make them work for you.[44] (A colleague has told me, for example, that he has even had success referring to the Arnold Schwarzenegger science-fiction-time-travel adventure, *The Terminator*, when discussing Sidney Hook's *The Hero in History* with regard to the importance of individuals in the making of history. Another uses a short clip from *The Wizard of Oz* when she teaches about Populism in her introductory U.S. history course.)

For the more ambitious—but not much more—try to synchronize and coordinate two of these media supplements. Slides, say, might be matched with music, songs, speeches, literature, or other spoken words. (For example, along with my slide lecture on the Industrial Revolution, in Britain, I play a book-on-tape selection from chapter 15 in Anthony Trollope's 1858 novel *Doctor Thorne* that vividly pulls from the past a glimpse of a village in transition, hurt by the railway that has passed it by.) One can allot five or fifty minutes to the activity; either way, it will help to capture and set an appropriate mood and tone. Sometimes such a presentation can be used to illuminate discussion and assist in textual analysis. At other times a media demonstration might be used to conclude a lecture by allowing the mood thus created to linger.[45] In either case,

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Audience in the Northern Renaissance (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1994) and Michael Gibson, *Bruegel* (New York: Tabard Press, 1989). On Hogarth, see Joseph Burke and Colin Caldwell, *Hogarth: The Complete Engravings* (London: Alpine Fine Arts, n.d.). For use directly in the classroom see *History of the World: World Art Transparencies and User's Guide* (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1992).

[44]For example, see Robert A. Rosenstone, "The Historical Film: Looking at the Past in a Postliterate Age" in Lloyd Kramer, et al., eds., *Learning History in America* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1994); Donald Mattheisen, "Finding the Right Film for the History Classroom," *Perspectives* 27:9 (December 1989), reprinted in *History Anew*; John E. O'Connor, *Teaching History With Film and Television* (Washington, D.C.: American Historical Association, "Discussions on Teaching" pamphlet, 1987); Martha J. Feldman "Totalitarianism without Pain: Teaching Communism and Fascism with Film," *The History Teacher* 29:1 (November, 1995) 51-61; Mark C. Carnes, ed. *Past Imperfect: According to the Movies* (New York: Henry Holt, 1995); Robert A. Rosenstone, *Revisioning History: Film and the Construction of a New Past* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1995); Robert A. Rosenstone, *Visions of the Past: The Challenge of Film to Our Idea of History* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1995); Neil M. Heyman, *Western Civilization: A Critical Guide to Documentary Films* (Westport, CT: Greenwood, 1995); Robert Brent Toplin, *History by Hollywood: The Use and Abuse of the American Past* (Champaign: University of Illinois Press, 1996). In addition, *Perspectives*, the monthly newsletter of the American Historical Association, regularly publishes a "Film and Media" column, and the *American Historical Review* and the *Journal of American History*, annually publish reviews of history-related films.

[45]Frederick, "The Lively Lecture—8 Variations," 49.

students are engaged and the lecture is enhanced—although I would recommend paying attention so as to make sure technology does not become intrusive, an end in itself.[46]

These, then, are just a few ways to encourage students to interact with history, to bring life to a subject so as to give it meaning and value to students, especially among those in survey courses whose main interest may lie elsewhere. These techniques also assist individual students in trying to make sense of, and thus to remember, new information in terms of what they know; that is, "students use their own existing knowledge and prior experience to help them understand the new material; in particular, they generate relationships between and among new ideas and between the new material and information already in memory."[47] What must be remembered, too, is that it is the use of a variety of techniques that works best to capture and hold attention.

Delivering the Lecture: When lecturing, movement should be the shadow of speech, even if it only means your shifting from one side of the desk to the other. If you can be aware of how the television camera never stays fixed on a single image, but instead shoots the same individual or scene from different angles, then you will know why it is important to provide some movement, including hand gestures and shifts in body position. An occasional theatrical gesture or over-emphasis can be good for grabbing flagging attention. In addition to actions, the use of emotion-enhancing words creates reactions, and as long as the content of the lecture is of an appropriate quality such words should achieve the desired effect. These suggestions are especially important if you teach large lecture classes, where several factors will work against you: the distance between teacher and students, especially those in middle and back rows, is not readily conducive to interaction or discussion; the seating arrangement usually transforms the student into the role of a spectator, a passive observer who expects to be entertained and informed, not involved; large-size classrooms create an atmosphere that is impersonal, one in which students are especially reluctant to speak and where the instructor appears remote; and large numbers of students make individual participation difficult.[48]

While in the act of lecturing, pay attention to your audience and try to think yourself into students' minds in order to reach them more effectively. Non-verbal signs might suggest confusion or lack of attention. You should be able to sense when they are with you, or are confused, or angry, or bored. Try to adjust as you proceed. If there is any doubt about your success here, it would not be a sign of weakness to ask students for suggestions; on the contrary, such a request is more likely to be seen as a reflection of commitment and conscientiousness. In addition, build repetition of important points

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[46]Saul Cornell and Diane Dagefoerde, "Multimedia Presentations: Lecturing in the Age of MTV," *Perspectives*, 34:1 (January, 1996), 1, 8-10.

[47]Alison King, "From Sage on the Stage to Guide on the Side," *College Teaching*, 41:1 (1993), 30.

[48]Joel Geske, "Overcoming the Drawbacks of the Large Lecture Class," *College Teaching*, 40:4 (1992), 151.

into the lecture (more than you would in your writing), in order to reduce the possibility of confusion, and pause at appropriate moments so as to provide students with an opportunity to think and catch up.

Also while lecturing, try to use a conversational delivery, and then try to eliminate what could distract your students, such as a pace that is consistently too slow or too rapid, or pauses that are too long, or the frequent use of "a-a-a-a," "you know," "okay," or "I mean," and the like, or ticks such as tugging at eye glasses or jewelry, or jiggling change or keys in a pocket, or regularly clearing your throat. As a speech teacher once told me, a speech defect is anything that calls attention to itself. (Viewing an occasional lecture you have had videotaped will enable you to see yourself as others do and, in time, to work on eliminating those distractions.) The pace at which you lecture should be adjusted according to what students are expected to be doing. For example, your words and ideas might be spoken somewhat rapidly if only listening is required from students. But if they are to take notes and to reflect on various points of the lecture, then a slower pace is necessary. Also, the introduction of new, complex, or unfamiliar material (or vocabulary) suggests that more time is needed by students for absorption and ordering.[49]

Be aware, too, that students look for cues to suggest what it is the teacher has determined is important. Speak loud enough to be heard at the back of the room, and vary the speed with which you talk, slowing and providing emphasis in order to stress a key point, increasing the pace as you move on. But delivery is not just tempo and inflection; it is also alternating between "general information and detail, difficult concepts and easy ones, gravity and humor. You can overdo the use of any: the trick is to keep all in proportion."[50] Delivery is also how you carry yourself, how you stand and move about; therefore, adopt a posture that conveys a sense of the importance of what it is you are doing.

Your attitude toward students, your demeanor, will likely affect their attitude toward you, your course, and eventually their ability to learn. We all have colleagues who are learned, bright, and capable, but who turn students away from—rather than toward—the discipline. By appearing in class on time, by being prepared and attentive, we are quietly telling students they have our respect and that we are there to further their education. When students speak, we respect what they express even when we must correct them; we offer praise when it is warranted and encouragement for an honest effort made. We develop rapport with students. To intimidate students, to try to impress them with our credentials or with an air of superiority, and to appear unapproachable

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[49]Marilla Svinicki, "How to Pace Your Lecture," in Weimer and Neff, eds., *Teaching College*, 71-73.

[50]Dubrow and Wilkinson, "The Theory and Practice of Lectures," 30.

is only to call attention to our own inadequacies and to create obstacles to learning.[51] Seek a comfortable balance between formality and familiarity.

A Potpourri of Strategies: Explode myths in a dramatic way to call attention to the mystery and the propaganda of history, to its being alive and changing, in order to create curiosity and interest.[52] For example, I start my lecture on Martin Luther and the Reformation by asking students to visualize a movie screen, to see on that screen a sixteenth-century town square in the German city of Wittenberg, with its large castle church appearing at the top-center. The day is October 31, 1517, All Hallows' Eve, the day before All Saints' Day; it is a festive time, and town folks are setting up booths and stalls as many others are milling about. Suddenly, I say, we see an intense monk walking across the square toward the church, carrying a rolled parchment, a hammer, and some nails. No one pays him much attention as he passes by until he mounts the steps to the church, whereupon he unravels the parchment, tacks it to the church door, and leaves the way he came. On the parchment is printed Luther's 95 Theses on Indulgences. People gather in front of the door, read the theses, and start talking among themselves, with increased levels of agitation. The scene then changes to a map of Europe, with Wittenberg highlighted in bold Gothic print. We stare at the map for a moment as a crackling sound is heard and a small flame breaks through the parchment at Wittenberg. Soon all of Europe is ablaze with the challenge of Martin Luther, and the Reformation has begun. This was a very dramatic moment, I tell my students, but the problem is that in spite of what they have read and heard, this posting of the 95 Theses never really happened![53] I do not tell them what, in fact, did happen until later, after we have gone into the Reformation's background. Not only does this little dramatization enable me to explode a myth and rouse curiosity, it also allows us to talk about literacy and the use of Latin versus the vernacular, historiography and historical interpretation, how events can be manipulated, and why it makes a difference where a position is argued. A gimmick or theatrics, therefore, need not be anti-intellectual. If truth be told, effective lecturing inevitably must involve some theatrics, whether it be an intimate variety associated with smaller classes or the more pronounced for larger classes.

During the course of a lecture, repeat important points several times, each in a slightly different way, from a different perspective, or with altered language; thus, build repetition into what you do. This gives slower note-takers a chance to catch up, it calls attention to particularly important points, and it enables those points to be digested.

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[51]Murray, "How Do I Lecture Thee?," 112.

[52]For good background reading on debunking myths and on forged and dubious documents, see Allan Nevins, *The Gateway to History* (Garden City, NY: Anchor/Doubleday, 1962), especially chapters V and VI. For specific works that debunk such myths, see the first half dozen sources in note #33.

[53]Erwin Iserloh, *The Theses Were Not Posted: Luther Between Reform and Reformation* (Boston: Beacon Press, 1968).

Understanding will also be increased if key points are illustrated with examples—frequent examples—especially with examples that involve student participation. By way of illustration, a theme that is woven into my week-long lecture on the Italian Renaissance, in a survey course, is that that period was not simply a cultural phenomenon but rather the result of the interrelationship among economic, political, social, and cultural factors. As each of these factors is discussed and supported with examples, I call attention to the theme; after a while I ask students to identify the ways in which all the factors come together. By the end of the unit, the point has not only been made but understood as well.

Develop a sense of the students you teach. Where possible, try to link aspects of the lecture to their collective interests, to utilize examples that are vivid, curious, and intriguing, to build suspense as you advance toward resolving conflicts, and to call attention to resolutions that will create future problems. Such methods need not compromise the integrity of a subject, whereas they can serve to draw students in and secure their attention. Having a sense of one's students also means being aware of what they know and do not know; therefore, as new words, names, or concepts are introduced, be alert to the need to explain or to have students take over this task and thus involve them further.

We are all asked questions periodically to which we do not know the answer. When that happens, turn the question back to the students, to get one or more of them to look it up and report back at the next class session—but make sure you look it up too. Or use the revelation of your temporary ignorance to demonstrate that both you, and the discipline, do not have all the answers, and that professionals and experts do not always agree. Also, be prepared to learn from your students, and acknowledge that phenomenon, and be prepared as well to build on students' ideas; you will likely earn their respect, and everyone profits.

In a related way, if you blunder, stumble, or make an obvious mistake—which we all do from time to time—try to use that to your advantage; turn an apparent weakness into a strength. Acknowledge your own limitations. Do not be afraid to make fun of yourself in order to reveal this human side; your students will likely think more highly of you and be able to identify with you. Just as we cannot know it all, we also cannot be flawless.

On the practical side, provide specific directions to yourself, in your lecture notes, of any actions you would like to take, such as moving forward toward the class or using a prop. Likewise, know the classroom in which you will teach in order to figure out—in advance—how to use it to your best advantage. For example, know where audio-visual materials might, or must, be used; make sure equipment as well as outlets work; test acoustic potential and problems; determine noises that might be made by lights, equipment, student movement, desks, entrances, and exits. In other words, know your setting and prepare accordingly.

There are times when something you say or something written in one of your required readings will be challenged by a student. Not all challenges will be intellectual; some will be emotional. Rather than get defensive and spoil for a fight, learn to reinterpret challenges to what you say in order to give them an intellectual basis.[54] Make it a learning experience.

Just as we instruct students to employ transitions in their writing as they move from point to point, so too as we lecture we should be aware of a comparable need. Comprehension will improve if students can see and understand that where you have come from is connected to where you are going. Since connections that are logical to us may not be so to all students, it is generally wise to articulate these transitions explicitly, especially when they are not merely chronological. That is, it may make sense to move from the revolutions of 1830 to those of 1848, but more care should be taken to explain the links, say, between Romanticism and Liberalism.

Note-taking seems to go hand-in-hand with lecturing, and since note-taking is an aid to memory, plan and organize your lecture in such a way that as you speak you are able to think in terms of the relative ease (or difficulty) that may be involved for students as they take notes. This is where an outline (on the board or with an overhead) and your regularly writing all names and terms on the board will help students to know (and how to spell) what you expect them to remember. Plus the act of writing on the board is a welcome and helpful break in the flow of the lecture, which means it is best to cease speaking as you write.

Summarizing and Reviewing: Learning is also enhanced when a lecture is interrupted by periodic summaries of the material just presented. Students can then catch up and correct misperceptions or errors. Such summaries also serve as transitions from one topic or theme to another, which in turn helps students to see your organization and improve their own.[55] Similarly, conclude a lecture by recapitulating key points, by putting the subject in perspective relative to what the course has covered and what it will cover. Then leave students with a question or two that will help them to think about the material and, possibly, to anticipate the next class session.

Some review before exams is appreciated by students. In addition to highlighting major topics to be covered on the test and to indicating the readings for which students will be responsible and the weighting and type of the questions to be asked, I devote time to practical advice about preparing to take the exam. I distribute a list of directive word meanings (e.g., describe, analyze, compare),[56] and I discuss what it means to

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[54]Williams, *Classroom in Conflict*, 163-69.

[55]McKeachie, Teaching Tips, 81.

[56]Such a list is included in the Course Description booklet for Advanced Placement History (published annually by The College Board), but with the use of simple dictionary definitions and sample questions incorporating the words you use, you can easily make up your own list.

analyze the significance of something—which is appropriate for both essays and identifications—and why listing is different from comparing. I address what it means to analyze a question and the value of brainstorming and clustering related information before beginning to write; I speak to the importance, for responding to an essay question, of organization, of an introduction and a thesis statement, and of a conclusion (which is different from a summary).[57] I offer suggestions for ways to study the material to be covered on the exam, and I make good use of sample essays that I comment on in such a way that students are able to know what to expect from me. When I use multiple-choice questions, I also distribute samples, and I use them in order to discuss the structure of the questions (e.g., whether I offer them 4 or 5 options for each question, the extent to which the stem and these options include such phrasing as *all of the following except, all of the above, A and B only*) and the types relative to difficulty (e.g., recall, analysis, connections). Even the brightest of students can profit from this instruction, and what they learn about test taking can be utilized easily in other courses.

Conclusion

We should be attentive to and critical of the way in which we lecture, just as we should scrutinize any method or technique used to teach. What we should most certainly not do is abandon the lecture method in favor of new, essentially yet-to-be-proven methods (such as straight interactive learning) or technologies (such as those connected with distance learning). Assertions that the new is superior to the traditional are just that, assertions. A lecture that engages students—involves them and informs them—is a truly rewarding experience for all concerned.

Among the clear advantages of the lecture method[58] are that it provides a good opportunity for the knowledgeable teacher to present background material and great sweeps of history to students (especially to large numbers of students), or material they do not ordinarily have access to (e.g., new research or interpretations), or subject matter

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[57]Blackey, "Bull's-eye."

[58]For a balance sheet on the advantages and disadvantages of the lecture method, see William J. Ekeler, "The Lecture Method," in Prichard and Sawyer, eds., *Handbook of College Teaching*, 88-90; Frederick, "The Lively Lecture—8 Variations," 43-50; Cashin, "Improving Lectures," 59-60. The following are some of the disadvantages, and lecturers should at least be aware of what they are and then work to counteract or minimize them: (1) The lecture method tends to be inferior to other methods in developing students' problem-solving and higher order thinking skills (e.g., analysis, synthesis); (2) it focuses more on factual or perceptual learning than on conceptual learning; (3) it fails to account for differences of interest, knowledge, skills, and intellectual ability among students (i.e., one size/approach fits all); (4) immediate feedback as to its effectiveness is difficult to ascertain; (5) all students do not "receive" equally what the lecturer imparts (i.e., students do not learn at the same pace or level of understanding); (6) it is too easy for too many students to remain passive and thus to do little to discover things for themselves; (7) it does not readily promote long-term recall of subject matter; (8) if the teacher is not an effective and skilled speaker, the lecture method will not succeed.

that is more sophisticated and complicated than they may yet be ready to handle on their own or among themselves. The lecture can promote critical thinking by calling attention to easily overlooked relationships, by raising thought-provoking questions, and then by drawing students into the process through some means of their active involvement. It may be the preferred method when the teacher wishes to define terms, to motivate students to do research, to provide students with a logical and structured approach to a subject, to organize a subject in a special way, to maintain maximum control over what happens in class, or to model a particular thinking process. At its best, the lecture can inspire a reverence for learning, and it can convey an interest in and enthusiasm for a subject. When it does most of these things well, the lecture can, according to Emerson, "set the hearts of youth aflame."[59]

Critics of the lecture method have argued that a major flaw is the lack of immediate feedback[60] (with examinations as a form of feedback usually not serving as a learning experience for students). The same flaw, however, is also a characteristic of books and articles, but this does not seem to keep us from publishing or from assigning such works by others.

Besides, we can learn from and build upon the feedback that comes from student evaluations; and just as we, as writers, profit from the suggestions of good editors, lecturers would be wise to have experienced colleagues observe them in action and offer constructive criticism. In addition, by having a class videotaped, lecturers can be their own observers, to see and feel what works. It is also recommended that instructors seek permission to visit the classes of colleagues known to be effective lecturers; alternatively, there are videotapes available of skilled lecturers that can be viewed, and studied, to good effect.[61]

Finally, there is indirect feedback in the form of audience reactions (e.g., facial expressions)—if we pay attention to those reactions. Moreover, as we have seen, direct feedback can be built in if the traditional lecture is expanded beyond traditional boundaries. In fact, it may be that the greatest opportunity for the lecturer is interacting with an audience. Good lecturing, like painting and music composition, is part art, part skill, and a lot of planning; we can learn a certain amount by reading, but ultimately we must practice, practice, practice.

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[59]Quoted in Frederick, "The Lively Lecture—8 Variations," 44.

[60]Bligh, *What's the Use of Lectures?*, 11.

[61]Lectures on videotape, including by historians, are available from the Derek Bok Center for Teaching and Learning (Harvard University, One Oxford Street, Room 318, Cambridge, MA 02138); Stanford Video and Electronic Media Group (Stanford Alumni Association, Bowman Alumni House, Stanford, CA 94305-4005); The Teaching Company (7405 Alban Station Court, Suite A107, Springfield, VA 22150-2318).

WE ARE NOT ALONE: A CLASSROOM FULL OF TEACHERS

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Renowned mountain climber Willi Unsoeld once told a group of climbers to "take care of each other. Share your energies with the group. No one must feel alone, cut off, for that is when you do not make it."[1] Cooperation is a vital component of human life, a vital component of success. However, until recently America's schools and colleges have functioned under the idea that cooperation in education was somehow wrong and counterproductive. Most schools and colleges continue to emphasize the traditional teaching method of lecture—a one-way monologue where the professor gives facts and knowledge and where students passively listen, take notes, and absorb knowledge. Sharan and Sharan have noted that traditional education makes students consumers and teachers feeders—whereby one individual, the instructor, decides what is on the menu, the size of the portions, and how fast the consumer, that is the student, must ingest.[2] And, to continue with this analogy, the consuming student is asked to regurgitate what has been consumed.

Many educators now argue that we should not consider students as empty vessels awaiting precious professorial pourings. Students should not be considered Lockean blank slates upon which only educators can write. This would mean that the only person in a classroom with knowledge to share is the professor, and that we as professors are alone in the classroom. In fact, there are 20, 30, 40 or more other teachers in the classroom. We are not alone. The room is full of teachers. And, in such a classroom the best way to utilize all of the minds is through the interactive educational process of active and cooperative learning.

Although some educators see active and cooperative learning as separate activities, they are inextricably linked in my classroom and therefore I use the terms somewhat interchangeably. Active learning is easiest to define in the negative, as the opposite of passive learning—that type of spoon-feeding discussed in the opening. Active learning, as defined by Charles Bonwell and James Eison, is any type of learning that "involves students in doing things and thinking about the things they are doing." It means students are doing more than listening; they are engaging in higher-order thinking—analysis, synthesis and evaluation—and in activities—writing, discussing, and reading.[3]

Cooperative learning, like active learning, seeks student involvement in the educational process. Cooperative learning is students "working together to accomplish

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[1]David W. Johnson, Roger T. Johnson and Karl A. Smith, *Cooperative Education: Increasing College Faculty Instructional Productivity* (Washington D.C.: George Washington University, 1991), 22.

[2]Yael Sharan and Shlomo Sharan, *Expanding Cooperative Learning Through Group Investigation* (New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1992), 3-5.

[3]Charles C. Bonwell and James A. Eison, *Active Learning: Creating Excitement in the Classroom* (Washington, D.C.: George Washington University, 1991), 2.

shared goals." It is "the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning." Cooperative learning, then, is simply active learning using a group format to achieve shared educational goals.[4]

Cooperative education enjoyed a renaissance in the 1960s, and has since proliferated. Some today employ it for the same reasons as those who first introduced this methodology into American schools in the late 1800s—as a way to strengthen democratic and community values. Early cooperative learning advocates—Francis Parker, John Dewey, William Kilpatrick, Kurt Lewin, and Morton Deutsch—identified a direct correlation among classroom environment, the educational process (i.e., instructional method), and societal values.[5] Dewey and the others saw the classroom as a microcosm of society; thus a key goal of education is to create a social learning environment that allows one "to develop the moral character needed for living in the ... community."[6] That is, "schooling should embody in its very procedures the process and goals of democratic society."[7]

Other recent converts to cooperative education stress its interpersonal rather than its civic value. They believe such learning fosters improved social relations on campus. Studies have shown that cooperative group learning promotes team-building, a sense of inclusion, common identity, higher self-esteem, self-confidence, positive psychology adjustment, an understanding of another person's perspective, an increased ability to work effectively with others, better peer relationships, and better student-faculty relationships.[8]

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[4]Johnson et al., *Cooperative Learning*, 1-4.

[5]According to Johnson et al., America's cooperative educational roots can be traced to the work of Englishmen Joseph Lancaster and Andrew Bell. In 1806 a school based upon their cooperative educational ideas was founded in New York City. Such ideas were carried on by the Common School Movement of the early 1800s, and revitalized in the late 1800s by Colonel Francis Parker. Parker, as superintendent of Quincy, Massachusetts, schools, made cooperative learning all the rage, as 30,000 visitors a year came to Quincy from 1875 to 1880 to study his techniques. See Johnson et al., *Cooperative Education*, 4-5.

[6]Emmy A. Pepitone, *Children in Cooperation and Competition*, (Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, 1980), 3-23.

[7]Historically cooperative education was promoted as a laboratory for democracy. Yet, cooperative education has another social implication. Cooperative education at its core implies, seeks cooperation instead of competition; it looks to shared group effort to achieve goals. By doing this it promotes, intentionally or unintentionally, a shift from competitive to cooperative social values. Thanks largely to the work done by Kurt Lewin and Morton Deutsch, many educators today find a greater classroom value, and by definition societal value, in cooperative learning. Classroom cooperation, they argue, will spill over into society and help create a greater cooperative social environment. See Sharan and Sharan, *Expanding Cooperative Learning*, 3-5.

[8]Neil Davidson and Toni Worsham, eds., *Enhancing Thinking Through Cooperative Learning* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1992), xiii-xv. See also Shlomo Sharan et al., *Cooperative Learning in the Classroom: Research in Desegregated Schools* (Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, 1984); Johnson et al, *Cooperative Education*, 42-53.

Moreover, in our racially divided and racially conflict-ridden colleges and universities, cooperative group learning can create better relations between races and diverse ethnic groups. One study of fourteen cooperative classroom experiments, where the students were placed in inter-ethnic or inter-racial groups, found that students placed in such mixed cooperative groups developed long-term friendships with members of different races. The group setting forced students to associate across races, and association and working at shared goals helped break down racial barriers.[9]

Still other recent cooperative learning advocates support this methodology because of its proven track record in improving academic performance. Studies have shown that "Cooperative learning promoted higher achievement than did competitive or individualistic learning." It also "resulted in more higher-level reasoning, more frequent generation of new ideas and solutions, and greater transfer of what is learned within one situation to another than did competitive or individualistic learning." In college classes research shows that the second most important factor in learning in large survey courses was other students. Students admit that they learn from others and that they like it. A related academic benefit of cooperative learning is attitude toward subject matter. Studies suggest that students who interacted with other students and with the instructor were more "satisfied" with their learning than students in strict lecture courses,[10] that students who experienced group learning and discussion had a greater predilection toward developing positive feelings toward the subject matter, felt more satisfied with what they learned, and wanted to take other courses in the discipline.[11]

Clearly, cooperative education has recognized civic, social, and academic value—and it works! For three years now, I have experimented with cooperative education in my European, United States, and African-American survey courses. In the European survey, I employ cooperative methods in two ways—both involving groups composed of three to five students. I use cooperative methods to support and enhance my traditional lecture methodology and to increase reading comprehension through shared discussion.

As to the first—using groups to support lectures—I have students immediately get into groups on Monday morning—or the first class that meets that week. They must then, as a group, come up with the seven most significant terms—individuals, events, movements, or ideologies—from lecture or reading. Each individual does this and then,

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[9]Robert Slavin, *Cooperative Learning* (New York: Longman, 1983), Chapter 4. Norman Miller and his colleagues have also done a great deal of work in the area of cooperative education in a multicultural setting. See N. Miller and M. Brewer, eds., *Groups in Contact: The Psychology of Desegregation* (New York: Academic Press, 1984).

[10]See Donald A. Bligh, *What's the Use of Lectures?* (Middlesex, England: Penguin, 1972).

[11]See J.A. Kulik and C.L.L. Kulik, "College Teaching," in P.L. Peterson and H.J. Walberg, eds., *Research on Teaching: Concepts, Findings, and Implications* (Berkeley: McCutcheon, 1979); Johnson et al., *Cooperative Learning*, 42-47.

within their group, they agree on the best seven. Each group puts its seven on the board and out of the 35 or 42 terms, we as a class choose the top seven. At the end of five weeks we have 35 terms, and it is from this list of 35 that I choose 7 to place on the exam.

The value in this is method is multifold. First, it makes the students review their lecture notes, read them over, and re-familiarize themselves with what we discussed. This improves long-term performance. Total grade point average in classes using this system have gone up approximately 0.3 to 0.5 of a letter grade. Second, it improves group skills and facilitates other group exercises. And third, it allows them an opportunity to see what the historical process is all about. I begin each semester with the question "What is History?" Through discussion, we answer this question with the response—history is what historians say it is—which, generally I think is true. Historians decide what is significant. By having students choose key terms, they engage in the historical process themselves. Students are thus introduced to the process of historical interpretation. They learn what historians do. And I think this is fascinating and valuable.

The other group exercise that we do throughout the semester relates to assigned readings. For my European surveys, I use J. Kelley Sowards's *Makers of the Western Tradition*, (and for the U.S. survey Marcus and Burner's *America Firsthand*).[12] I use Sowards because he deals with individuals and because he presents three different articles about each individual, which allows for comparing and contrasting and a sense of historiography. I use individuals in the European Survey for a number of reasons. Ken Wolf notes that using biography "help[s] students see how real people dealt with real problems" and allows students to see that the "problems that many of these [past] individuals faced continue to exist, albeit in different forms today."[13] Reading about individuals also seems to facilitate group discussion.

In the second group exercise, I have students read about the assigned individual before coming to class and then they do a group exercise. The exercise can be varied from week to week or group meeting to group meeting. Let me give just one example, dealing with the readings on Elizabeth I, which illustrates one way of employing group learning in the history survey.

Sowards's readings on Elizabeth include selections from a contemporary, Sir Francis Bacon, from a nineteenth-century historian, James Anthony Froude, and a twentieth-century historian, Garrett Mattingly. The selections discuss numerous issues, from Elizabeth's relations with Philip II, to her role as protector of England, to the Spanish Armada, to her abilities as a monarch, to her personal strengths and

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[12]Kelly Sowards, ed., *Makers of the Western Tradition* (New York: St.Martin's Press, 1993); Robert D. Marcus and David Burner, eds., *America Firsthand* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1995).

[13]Ken Wolf, "Teaching History the Old Fashioned Way—Through Biography," *AHA Perspectives*, May/June 1994, 3-6.

weaknesses, to the Catholic-Protestant question, to why Elizabeth never married. In class, I asked each group (there were 8 groups) to come up with what they believed to be the two most central or significant questions that, when asked and answered, best captured the one major theme addressed in all three articles. After about fifteen minutes I asked each group to write their two questions on the board. Obviously, some groups came up with the same or similar questions, and out of a possibility of sixteen total questions, eight different questions emerged. I asked each group to explain briefly why they thought their particular questions were the most significant or accurate?[14] Then, I asked, of these eight questions which is the <u>one</u> most significant? After about ten minutes of discussion, the class narrowed it down to two questions: one dealing with Elizabeth's role in defeating the Spanish Armada and its impact on England's rise to power; and the other on how Elizabeth handled, and the significance of, the Protestant-Catholic conflict in England and Europe during her reign. After more discussion, all groups decided that the question dealing with the Spanish Armada best captured the essence of Elizabeth's reign. They gave some excellent reasons, including the importance of the defeat of Spain's navy, which helped pave the way for the rise of England's navy and its commercial fleet; England's emergence as a colonial power; how the defeat of the Armada led to greater security, including minimizing the threat from Spain's position in Low Countries. But, then, in the midst of this free-flowing discussion with every group participating, one student brought up the fact that the defeat of the Armada aided in maintaining Protestantism in England. At this juncture, a number of students asked, "Didn't Philip II attack England because of Protestantism, and wasn't it only after Elizabeth executed Mary Queen of Scots, heir to the throne and a Catholic, that Philip moved against Elizabeth and England?" Finally, one student, who seemed hard-to-motivate, proposed that the other question on the religious issue was the best one. Everyone else started agreeing, and then the class adjourned. Clearly, everyone was involved, all felt comfortable enough to speak, and a real intellectual exchange existed. This example was but one of many times that such active learning emerged from group activity.

In the particular survey class from which that example was drawn, nearly every student (27 out of 28), in an anonymous questionnaire, reacted very favorably to group

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[14]Nearly all advocates of cooperative group learning argue that within each group there should be a division of labor whereby each group member has a specific task to perform, including group leader, group recorder/secretary, group checker, etc. In my classes, I do not use this. College students, I believe, unlike high school students, do not necessarily need this division of labor to ensure individual accountability—which is the main function of the division. N. Davidson, in "Small-Group Learning and Teaching in Mathematics: A Selective View of the Research," in *Learning to Cooperate, Cooperating to Learn*, edited by R.E. Slavin, et al, (New York, Plenum, 1985), argues that cooperative group learning in college classrooms need not demand individual accountability to be successful. Yet, I do agree with cooperative education experts that "checking"—making sure that all members in the group can explain the group's collective answer if called upon— is vital to successful group learning.

learning exercises. (I assured them before distributing the questionnaire that I wanted them to be honest in their evaluation of cooperative learning. I believe they were, and their overwhelmingly favorable comments were genuine.) Interestingly, what students found valuable in the group exercises, as expressed in their written comments, substantiated what researchers in cooperative learning had claimed—that active learning promotes thinking and analysis, creates a positive learning environment, and improves social relations. For example, one student stated that "it is better than just listening to lectures every class. It forces us to us our brains." Another echoed this comment in stating that group learning "is better because you are thinking" and "not just taking notes." Overwhelmingly, students commented that group learning allows them to "get different points of view," and it "helps [them] create an opinion about the time/person instead of just knowing facts." Clearly, this is not rote learning; rather it is active analysis.

But perhaps the comments I found most interesting, and which I believe best attest to the value in this methodology, concerned the ways in which small groups aid in learning comprehension and knowledge confirmation by creating a sense of security. How many times have all of us had a student come up to us upset at a poor grade and say "I didn't really understand the material" or "I thought I understood it, but I guess I was confused." And we would respond, as caring professors ought, "Well, why didn't you raise your hand, ask a question, or ask me to go over the material again." And the student either then proceeds to shrug their shoulders, say nothing, or state that they feel uncomfortable doing that. We all know that many students simply cannot ask a question, for in doing so they believe they are exposing themselves in front of the entire class as being slow or stupid. For us to deny this reality or to state that it is silly for students to feel this way does not negate it. Group learning exercises, however, do break down this very real barrier to learning. For example, one student quite plainly wrote that small group learning "allows those of us to speak to a small group who do not necessarily participate in a larger group setting." Reading between lines it is clear that this student, and probably many others, feel more comfortable asking questions and expressing doubts in a small group environment.

That this environment also aids in learning comprehension is clear from numerous written comments I have received over the past few years. One student wrote that small group exercises allow me "to make sure that I fully understand [the readings]." Or, as another put it, small group learning "helps me to see if other people in the class got the same meaning from the writings as me." That is, small groups allow students to ask questions and express doubts in the safe confines of "their own kind" as well as to use other group members as sounding boards to confirm what they believed they understood. Group methodology creates a learning-friendly environment. Such an environment improves comprehension and hence grades. For this reason, it deserves our attention.

In concluding, the one major drawback with group learning deals with time. It is a time-consuming exercise. How can you cover all the material that needs to be covered and still utilize cooperative group learning? Well, in simple English, one cannot. And this strikes at the last point to be made—the issue of content versus process. When educators speak of content they mean "the compendium of information that comprises the learning material for a particular course." This information is, of course, a body of facts, laws, theories, or a description of events. In short, it is the facts presented to students.[15] When speaking about process, educators mean the way students are taught and how they process the information they are given. For content advocates the mission is to deliver the facts. For process people, the mission is to develop thinking abilities for acquiring and processing knowledge.

In teaching any introductory survey this seeming dichotomy is ever-present. I believe, as do probably all advocates of cooperative education, that one should not dwell on content. Deep concern with content necessitates straight lecturing, spoon-feeding, shoving the material into students until they are full of all the facts they are supposed to learn. Not only do we know that this is not the best way to teach or learn, but in fact there is simply too much content—too much history. We know much more history now than we ever did. The new social historians of the 1960s and beyond have opened entirely new areas of exploration. There are simply too many facts that can be taught, too much content, too much material to cover. One way to deal with the overload of content is to concern ourselves more with process.

I am not arguing that content is meaningless or that facts should not be taught. But I am saying that we ought to remember that we are dealing with introductory material. And in an introduction one need not cover everything. We need not concentrate on telling the whole story, but rather present some interesting material, make the student want to ask some questions and learn more about the subject. From my experiences with cooperative education and from what I have read, I believe this approach to the introductory survey, the curtailing of content and incorporating small group learning, will not only lead our students to an understanding of the significance of the Rubicon, but will also make them want to cross it with us.

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[15]J. Cecil Parker and Louis J. Rubin, *Process as Content: Curriculum Design and the Application of Knowledge* (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1966), 1-3.

COMPREHENSIVE ESSAYS FOR WORLD HISTORY FINALS

Martha J. Feldman

When formulating final exam questions for world history classes, a dilemma arises: what to do about comprehensive questions. At final exam time there is usually a large block of material over which students have not yet been tested. There is a temptation to cover only that, especially since essay topics in a more limited period seem more manageable for most students. Comprehensive questions can become overwhelming: "Discuss all the wars since 1500." They can be of questionable relationship: "Compare and contrast modernization in England in the 18th century and China in the 20th century." They can be downright trivial: "Plan a dinner party and explain your guest list of the seven most interesting people we have studied this semester." Occasionally inspiration strikes and a wonderfully phrased question elicits thoughtful and thorough responses summing up and expanding on themes of the course from intelligent, motivated students. Perhaps you have had great success with comprehensive questions. I have usually not been very happy with mine, until recently that is, when I hit upon a comprehensive examination question based on current newspaper articles.

The World Civilizations Since 1500 course that I teach focuses on modernization and Westernization. We look at the development of competitive nationalism, the growth of scientific thinking and reason, the rise of political liberalism and capitalistic industrialism, and responses to and expansion of these phenomena. In the post-World War II world, we discuss the spread of nationalism and the desire for liberal goals of civil rights and democratic government throughout the non-Western world and, most recently, in post-Communist eastern Europe. To continue these themes in a comprehensive essay topic for the final exam, I look in newspapers for articles that pick up my themes of nationalism, liberalism, and economic development, and I frame a question that asks students to trace the history of these themes in relation to specific recent events.

About a month before the examination, I begin to look for articles of only a few paragraphs that specify events that are clearly related to a course theme. What's happening at that time limits my choices, but I try to find examples from Europe, Asia, Africa, and Latin America. I use my local paper, the Memphis *Commercial Appeal*.

Since educational institutions tend to be concerned about legal challenges involving photocopying and copyright infringement, it is best to forestall any difficulty by gaining permission in writing before beginning and keeping this document on file. I contacted the *Commercial Appeal*'s managing editor, who asked for a letter explaining my project and quickly responded to the subsequent document with a letter approving my request. Even without specific permission, photocopying by a teacher for limited

classroom use is generally covered under the "fair use" doctrine; such photocopying is educational, non-profit, and has no effect on the market.[1]

If the combination of searching for articles, organizing the packet, making copies, and–above all–ensuring that your actions fall within acceptable copyright act guidelines appears too time-consuming or otherwise objectionable, there is an alternative. From your knowledge of current issues, crises, and events, construct a question that includes these topics–perhaps with brief quotations and citations from newspapers, magazines, and broadcasts. This might even seem preferable since it produces similar questions and puts a heavier burden on the students. The question packet, on the other hand, has the advantage of forcing interaction with not only the current results of the historical process but also with the format of one of the news media; in terms of encouraging students to think historically, this form is more like everyday activities. But there is a choice.

Two weeks before the final exam date, I make my decision on which ones of my collection make the "final cut." Then I paste the articles to sheets with a Roman numeral, source, and date typed at the top. At the foot of each sheet containing an article, I type "Copyright 199- *The Commercial Appeal*," as required by copyright guidelines.[2] A cover sheet gives the points allotted to this question, instructions, and the specific topic. Instructions state:

1. Prepare ahead, using any resources available to you.
2. Do not make notes on this question packet.
3. Bring this packet with you to use during the examination.
4. Do not write an essay to bring with you. During the examination period, you will compose your essay in an exam booklet.

A subsequent note reminds students that to receive a good grade, an essay should show evidence of outside preparation, whether from textbooks or other research materials, and should include historical background as far back as but no further than 1500.

For the spring 1993 exam, I combined articles on the Serbian attack on the Bosnian town of Srebrenica, black mob violence against whites and white retaliation in South Africa, and Pakistani concern over Hindu riots and bombings of Muslim holy

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[1]Guidelines for the Copyright Act allow teachers to make single copies of newspaper articles for their own use and multiple copies, not to exceed one per student, for classroom use. Further guidelines state that the copying be for only one course in the school where the copies have been made, that no more than nine instances of such copying be done in any one school term, that the article be copied one time only, and that the copies not substitute for a standardized test. The idea for making the copies must be the teacher's, not an administrator's, and the teacher may charge students no more than the cost of the copies. A copyright notice should appear on all copies. Stephen Fishman, *The Copyright Handbook: How to Protect and Use Written Works* (Berkeley: Nolo Press, 1992), 11/4-6, 11/15-16.

[2]Fishman, 11/16.

places in India. Students were asked to trace these developments historically and discuss them in terms of twentieth-century nationalism. In December 1993, the question focused on liberalism and its recent manifestations in the former Soviet Union, Jordan, and South Africa, each of which was attempting to move toward constitutionalism and broader political representation. With each of these exams, there was no one correct answer because the subjects were broad and the history long, but each allowed students to amass a fund of information, organize it reasonably, and draw some conclusions about the force of these eighteenth-century European principles and the hopes and challenges of disparate peoples in the late twentieth century.

Another approach is more general. Once I collected seven articles including the Pope's reversing the Church's seventeenth-century condemnation of Galileo in an attempt to improve relations between the Church and science, an aborted coup in Peru that had attempted to block elections for a constitutional convention, and GATT negotiations to promote free trade. Students could select three of the seven quite disparate articles and discuss each in terms of historical background. They were encouraged to try relate the events to each other and to tie them to the themes of the course. This "potpourri" approach worked well enough, but I prefer the more thematic essay topics.

Students receive individual "packets" of several stapled sheets–including instructions, topic, and articles–two weeks before the exam date. They bring the packets with them to use for reference but are allowed no notes or completed essays. Anyone may assist students outside class, but the information, beyond that in the packet, and essay form, no matter how achieved, must be in the students' heads at exam time. Students return the question packets along with their essays, and I place the copied materials in the building's recycling bin.

Responses vary. The occasional brilliant student performs brilliantly. Most good students have calculated their point totals by exam day and know what they have to do to make an "A." They tend to concentrate their efforts on the other sections of the exam, which can be mastered with less leg work. Poor students do poorly. The most gratifying results come from high "C" and high "B" students who want to achieve a higher grade with a big push at the end and know that this question allows them that opportunity. They are not required to list sources, but these students, in a great burst of motivation and achievement, will often include parenthetical citations to let the instructor know just the library time they have clocked and how much they have knocked themselves out. Knowing that they have the opportunity for notable improvement motivates them also to prepare for the non-comprehensive parts of the exam as well, and the performance of this group is the strongest argument for this type of exam question.

In general, a newspaper-based essay seems to me to have a number of other positive qualities. Since the exam is "take-home" in terms of preparation, students feel that they are being treated more fairly and that the instructor is interested in their success. A newspaper-based comprehensive question connects the present to the past

and encourages students to see this connection. (Sometimes they seem to think the past occurred on a different planet.) It reminds students that what they are doing with this particular question has more general applicability, and that long after they have completed the work for the course, they can make connections between events that they have studied and those that have not yet happened. Of course these expectations are rather grand and possibly unrealistic, but if they only have these effects to a modest degree, the effect on students will have been positive. All in all, the project fulfills the instructor's need to conclude with some sort of comprehensive work to provide "closure" to the course, and it provides the students with an opportunity to do well and develop a useful pattern for thinking about contemporary world affairs.

A SPLENDID LITTLE CENTENNIAL: REMEMBERING THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR

Christopher C. Lovett
Emporia State University

Historians will soon confront another centennial as the United States nears 1998. The Spanish-American War Centennial will not receive the same adulation as the Civil War Centennial or the American Bicentennial. However, the Spanish-American War was a turning point in American history and its anniversary provides high school and college teachers the opportunity to look at numerous topics which moved America closer to being a world power. The history and social science faculty at Emporia State is conducting a "Teachers Weekend Workshop" for secondary teachers on Saturday and Sunday, September 27-28, in Emporia, and a one day session on the following Saturday, October 4, in nearby Iola, the home of General Frederick Funston. The workshop is being designed to prepare them to use the interest invoked by the centennial during 1998 in their teaching.[1]

Rather than focusing solely on military, diplomatic, and political history, we plan to delineate the cultural and social forces of the age which made the conflict unique. We are planning a multidisciplinary program which may also attract teachers in other disciplines, particularly language arts and journalism. We plan to utilize history colleagues and those in English, journalism, and political science, as well as professionals from state and federal agencies, to provide the core of instruction.

Students will probe such issues of the 1890s as the birth of modern journalism, the rise of a loyal, yet determined, antiwar movement, the reform impulse combined with immigration restriction, Jim Crow and racial injustice, imperialism and the acquisition of Hawaii, war and disease, the rise of American women and organized labor, as well as the diplomatic, military, and political history of the war.

Americanists, Europeanists, and historians of the Third World can place the conflict into a global setting by denoting the impact of the *Fin-de-Siecle*, which rejected progress and liberalism, and presented a sense of coming doom for many in industrialized societies. (This course, along with other Gilded Age topics, might be adapted to an "end of a century" class comparing the late 1890s to the late 1990s.)

Once, Kansans recalled with pride the exploits of Frederick Funston and the state's four volunteer regiments, two of which were Black, that served during the war. Funston was so famous that only his untimely death in 1917 kept him from commanding the American troops in World War I. The second weekend at the local historical society in Iola, Kansas, where his home is preserved, will focus on Kansans in the war and on the kinds of resources teachers may find in their local counties.

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[1]Readers may contact the author for a syllabus or further information at Box 4032, ESU, Emporia, KS 66801 or via e-mail: <lovettch@esumail.emporia.edu>.

The use of primary sources in county and state historical societies provide teachers the opportunity to compare, for instance, the media of a hundred years ago with the news outlets of today. Diaries, letters, and journals also offer glimpses into the cultural and social milieu of the Spanish-American War. Advertisements, campaign buttons, and postcards offer teachers the chance to compare the popular culture of the two eras as well.

In an era of increased budget austerity, we hope to keep university and student expenses low. We plan to encourage early enrollment and furnish a recommended reading list, as well as helpful web site information, that allow teachers to be prepared for the program's activities before they arrive. Teachers taking the class for two hours credit will develop teaching units which will be edited and made available to other participants.

By using the immersion technique, students and teachers can be exposed to myriad themes without losing their focus during the workshop. Fifty-minute sessions, with a ten-minute break between, preserves the flow of the course and sustains the interest of the participants. A group lunch or dinner affords the planners the opportunity to bolster their program by inviting a distinguished professor to give an address on a topic relating to the war. A film session in the early evening will encourage teachers to utilize such documentaries as *The Splendid Little War* and *The American Experience: Hawaii's Last Queen* to reinforce the day's scholarly activities.

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REVIEWS

Robert Lerner, Althea K. Hagai, and Stanley Rothman. *Molding the Good Citizen: The Politics of High School History Texts.* Westport, CT: Praeger, 1995. Pp. 200. Cloth, $55.00; ISBN 0-275-94919-2. Paper, $17.95; ISBN 0-275-95100-6.
James W. Loewen. *Lies My Teacher Told Me: Everything Your American History Textbook Got Wrong.* New York: The New Press, 1995. Pp. 372. Cloth, $24.95. ISBN 1-56584-100-X.

The teaching of American history is a strategic battleground in the culture wars that now rage in the United States. Critics, who often are political conservatives, charge that the history curriculum is deeply flawed. They claim that history has degenerated into a therapeutic multiculturalism more concerned with upholding political correctness than with cultivating national pride and a sense of common heritage. The targets of this attack tend to be liberals and leftists who only now are beginning to respond. They accuse the Right of wanting to return to a nationalistic history that ignores blemishes in the American past and that leaves out women and people of color.

Rarely–Russell Jacoby's *Dogmatic Wisdom* comes to mind–has the debate moved beyond these general lines. *Molding the Good Citizen* claims to do so. Written by social scientists, the work purports to be an objective study of the leading U.S. history textbooks utilized in American high schools over the past half-century. The authors explain that they have subjected the texts to "a quantitative content analysis"that relies on a coding scheme. Categories for coding, centered upon historical actors, include the number of column inches devoted to each person; pictures of these characters, references to their ethnicity, educational levels, family background, religion, and wealth; and their "spheres of activity," a grab bag of eclectic areas such as technology, war, colonial America, and race relations. A numerical value is assigned to the textbook's evaluation of each person, ranging on a sliding scale from positive to negative. From all of this Lerner, Nagai, and Rothman conclude that, for some decades now, history in U.S. high schools has been politicized by a cabal of elite educators hostile to meritocracy, capitalism, and indeed to American Civilization in general.

As the last comment suggests, the social science apparatus fails to hide what this work really is, a conservative diatribe aimed at textbooks that stray from celebratory American political history. The authors tip their hand in the Preface, where they acknowledge funding from the Bradley, Olin, and Sarah Scaife Foundations, three of the largest bankrollers of right-wing cultural warriors. Things go downhill after that. Attempting to place the declension of historical education in historical context, Lerner, Nagai, and Rothman take the reader back to the early twentieth century when, they argue, a radical new intellectual class emerged. Spearheading an "adversary culture" and seduced by the ideology of "liberal-Progressivism"–which the authors variously tie to modernism, muckraking journalists, bohemianism, pragmatism, liberalism, socialism, evolution theory, and the educational ideas of John Dewey–the intellectuals allegedly captured control of education, including the history curriculum, before the Second World War. Ever since, they have used history textbooks to indoctrinate America's youth.

To anyone who looks at the nation's distribution of political and economic power, which most emphatically is not "liberal-Progressive," it is apparent that this argument cannot be taken seriously. Lerner, Nagai, and Rothman have written potted history that borders on conspiracy theory if not caricature, and they offer up occasional errors of fact that are outright howlers–my personal favorite is when they link Theodore Roosevelt to democratic socialism, a notion that would have enraged the Rough Rider and horrified genuine democratic socialists. More damning, the authors evade important questions. When was history teaching not politicized in one manner

or another? Does not the kind of history that they prefer represent simply a different political agenda? And even if history textbooks are slanted to the left, how many students genuinely read them? Do the texts engage student interest? How much information do young people retain over the long haul? A decade of teaching American history surveys at the university level leads me to believe that most college students remember almost nothing from their high school textbooks, which they nearly always characterize as boring, and what little they do recall is largely superficial.

Which leads us to James Loewen's *Lies My Teacher Told Me*. Loewen wants to understand why so many high school students hate history, and he contends that textbooks bear much of the blame. He claims convincingly that, for one thing, textbooks whitewash American history. Scrutinizing twelve texts widely in use today, Loewen examines their treatment of a series of historical topics, from Columbus to recent history. He demonstrates, contrary to the assertions found in *Molding the Good Citizen*, that textbooks avoid anything that might be controversial. Granted, unlike textbooks in the days of old, the modern ones point out problems and evils that existed in the past but quickly dismiss them by insisting that national progress has rectified all wrongs.

This is part of a larger problem that Loewen identifies, and it is his most important insight because it gets to the ultimate crisis of history in our schools today. The textbooks flatten history–employing an omniscient tone rendered in passive voice, they are crammed with dry facts and lack context, drama, and personality. Differences in historical interpretation are glossed over if mentioned at all. Simply put, texts do not suggest the genuine excitement that is possible when doing history, so they fail to engage student interest. Whatever interpretive bias they may carry really does not matter very much, since students pay little attention to textbooks anyway.

Who is responsible for this state of affairs? Loewen blames American society as a whole–publishers afraid of controversy, flag-wavers who sit on textbook adoption boards, teachers who lack adequate training and fear the kind of open-ended teaching that would invite debate and inquiry, parents who do not trust that their children can handle historical unpleasantness. Pointedly Loewen questions whether American society is honest enough to deal with its history directly. With delicious irony, he points out that Russia recently has begun to confront its history with candor; surely the United States could do as well.

Loewen thus helps us move the issues of history curriculum beyond simplistic arguments about Harriet Tubman receiving two more sentences than Paul Revere, or whether or not Thomas Jefferson should be identified as a slaveowner. Until we convince high school and college students that history matters, until we help them to connect to history in a way that makes the subject come alive to them, quantitative content analysis is extraneous.

California State University, Chico Jeffery C. Livingston

David Pace & Sharon Pugh. *Studying for History*. New York: HarperCollins, 1996. Pp. ix, 208. Paper, $10.50. ISBN 0-06-500649-6.

David Pace and Sharon Pugh have produced a work for the student taking his or her first college history course. The first three chapters give the student sound advice on getting oriented in this first course, discuss the "new" kinds of history now being taught in colleges and universities (in which the authors assume, not altogether correctly, that the student is unlikely to have

encountered any of these "new" varieties in secondary school), suggest the best ways to manage energy, time, and mind, and stress the necessity of thinking like an historian. The last four chapters deal with the nuts and bolts of course work: reading, listening, and study strategies, preparing for and taking examinations, and writing papers. All this is done in a plain and simple style illustrated with homey examples.

From the student's point of view, the advice seems to break down at only one point. The authors contend that by efficient management, the student will be able to handle each week's work in a reasonable amount of time. But their suggestions as to what he should do each week–read the textbook analytically, making careful notes in the margins of the textbook; write brief summaries of paragraphs; make key concept cards; draw up a variety of exceedingly lengthy charts, the complexity of which daunted even me; study and rewrite lecture notes; outline for class discussions; and participate in a student study group (two hours a week for this last alone)–are as overwhelming as this sentence, and may well leave the student wondering when there will be time for the other three or four classes in a typical student schedule.

The book has other shortcomings. Specifically, the section on analytical reading (87-89) asks the student to analyze a quotation from a current text on Jackson's war on the Second Bank of the United States. The quotation is obviously misquoted and makes no sense; it does not even mention two persons whom the authors in their commentary claim are included in the passage. On a more general level, the authors appear to argue that organization is the key to the study of history. Organization is certainly an important element, but it alone will not guarantee a student's success. Finally and perhaps most importantly, Pace and Pugh, in stressing the need for analytical reading and listening to determine the validity of historical interpretations, imply that such analysis is a matter of objective logic, of methodology; there is no hint that historical interpretations can be (and frequently are) based on subjective value judgments. Such an approach, it seems to me, will leave the student with no real understanding of present-day historical controversy. Worse, it will deny the student the opportunity to test his or her own value system by comparing it with those of the historians encountered.

So is this a work that beginning history students can use profitably? If the student's problem is how to organize his study, the answer is yes. But the book's discussion of the organizational aspects of history is probably too complex for the marginal student, and its failure to consider the philosophical sells the better student short. Indeed, the work may be of most value to the beginning college instructor, who can easily mine and boil it down for all manner of how-to-study advice in the form of class handouts

Emporia State University Loren E. Pennington

Michael Field. *Inside the Arab World.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1994. Pp. 439. Cloth, $27.50. ISBN 0-674-45520-7.

Michael Field, long-time economic correspondent in the Middle East, offers another volume to an interesting body of literature that attempts to explain the failures of the contemporary Arab world. Among the more prominent works in this area are David Pryce-Jones's *The Closed Circle: An Interpretation of the Arabs* (1989), Halim Barakat's *The Arab World: Society, Culture, and State* (1993), Milton Viorst's *Sandcastles: The Arabs in Search of the Modern World* (1994), Paul Salem's *Bitter Legacy: Ideology and Politics in the Arab World* (1994), and Nazith N. Ayubui's

Over-Stating the Arab State: Politics and Society in the Middle East (1995). Field's readable, insightful book, based on his many years in the region and on extensive interviews, is a balanced, useful addition.

The book is divided into two parts. The first deals with the history and reasons for the failure of Arab nations to adjust successfully to the modern world in the last fifty years. The failures include a loss of faith in government; the inability to transform into modern democracies; inefficient, corrupt, and debt-ridden economies; fear of ever-permeating Western influence's debilitating impact on Arab culture; religious schism; and failure to achieve peace. The longer second section treats efforts at reform in different parts of the Arab world, which Field argues are largely driven by Western influence and the realities of a global economy. Many of these reforms promise a measure of success.

After a very fine introductory overview of the Arab world within its Middle East and Islamic context, Field provides three good historical chapters that treat developments in World War I through the present. He then elucidates the corruption of the state and the economic stagnation that prevail and he offers a case study of Algeria as an example of larger problems in the region. The chapter on Saudi Arabia is a particularly interesting study of problems and reform. Although quite different from most Arab countries both in economic and cultural terms, Saudi Arabia's vast resources make it a pivotal Arab state. Once the vision of the future, now the debt-ridden kingdom is going in the opposite direction of most of the poor states that are making some economic progress. Corruption, political stagnation, the challenge of Islamic fundamentalists, and the aspirations of an emerging middle class may be more vivid in Saudi Arabia than in other states. However, unlike Said K. Aburish's pessimistic *The Rise, Corruption, and Coming Fall of the House of Saud* (1995), Field presents a picture of necessary economic and structural changes coming from the current challenges, and he is more generous toward the political leadership of King Fahd and the Al-Saud family corporation. While Field is not unduly sanguine, it is hard to believe that he and Aburish looked at the same country.

This is a very fine book for understanding the changing Arab world. It is useful for garnering lecture material, and in a paperback edition it would make good reading for an advanced undergraduate course on contemporary Arab politics. With its largely secular and economic focus, it should be used in conjunction with another work that gives broader attention to Islamic resurgence, possibly Mir Zohair Husain's *Global Islamic Politics* (1995). As for me, Field will replace Milton Viorst's *Sandcastles* in my course on Islamic and Middle East Politics.

Converse College Joe P. Dunn

Roger Collins. *Early Medieval Spain: Unity in Diversity, 400-1000.* New York: St. Martin's Press, 1995. Second edition. Pp. xxiii, 317. Paper, $16.95. ISBN 0-312-12662-X.

Roger Collins, an English academic, is the best-known medievalist writing in English about the Iberian peninsula, particularly for the early period. His second edition of *Early Medieval Spain* provides a relatively inexpensive background work for a period once all but lost to American students.

His book, written clearly and suitable for advanced high school students as well as university undergraduates, may be particularly useful not only for history students investigating the Middle Ages outside of Britain and France but also as a background for students in their second or third

year of Spanish language studies who wish to study the period when Latin began (but did not quite finish) evolving into Castilian.

The narration begins with the twilight of Roman Spain and the arrival of the Visigoths from northern Europe. These Germanic warriors created a pastoral, feudal, and clan-ridden society–often credited with developing laws collectively known as the *fueros* (from the Latin word forum), a unique blend of local autonomy and aristocratic codes, which regions of northern Spain have fought to maintain in the face of centralism ever since. At the same time, the Christian Church, based in Toledo, managed to become the state religion by the late 600s.

In 712, a second people arrived in Iberia. Islam, the empire of Muhammadism, brought Arabs and many other North African tribesmen to Spain. Christianity retreated to the mountains of the north and northeast, to Asturias, León, Pamplona, Aragón, and (sometimes) Catalonia. The rest of Spain, subject to the Muslims, fell under the Ummayyad caliphate. If independence of state and religion was lost, the Spaniards of the large Ummayyad territory did benefit from receipt of Middle Eastern technology and the preserved science and philosophy of Greece and Rome that also, somewhat ironically, accompanied the Arabs in their relocation to southwestern Europe. This imperial culture of the Ummayyads contrasts vividly with the Christian north; religious purity among the Christians, diversity and sophistication among the Muslims–just the reversal of Europe and the Middle East today.

In the end, ca. 1000 A.D., the spread of Christianity and the rise of fundamentalist tribal interpretations of Muhammadism doomed the Ummayyad capital of Córdoba, and two hundred years later the Christians reoccupied the region. Collins tells this fascinating story with the latest scholarship, but also with a broad pen that evokes the reader's imagination to this oriental Mediterranean world. The book enlarges our sense of Spanish diversity and explains how the often contentious regions of Spain originally diverged.

University of New Mexico Robert Kern

Stephen J. Lee. *Peter the Great.* London & New York: Routledge, 1993. Pp. X, 78. Paper $9.95. ISBN 0-415-09279-5.
William Marshall. *Peter the Great.* London & New York: Longman, 1996. Pp. vi, 149. Paper $12.86. ISBN 0-582-00355-5.

Two very similar books with the exact same title designed to augment the typical textbook survey of one of Russia's most turbulent, complex, and historic periods–that of Peter the Great. Both works are authored or edited by English scholars. S. J. Lee's volume on Peter is part of the "Lancaster Pamphlets" series that includes more than 40 titles on major topics in European history. William Marshall's volume, nearly twice the length of Lee's, is part of the "Seminar Studies in History" series, a series of approximately 75 titles on British and world history and edited by R. Lockyer, Emeritus Reader in History at the University of London. While both books share several basic features and purposes, they also have a few significant differences as well.

First, the similarities. Both volumes are short, condensed outlines of the reign of Peter the Great, with good maps and chronological charts or genealogical tables, and both are readable. Each book is designed to bring into sharper focus all the major events, themes, and historiographical interpretations of Peter's tumultuous reign. In terms of significant differences between the two volumes, the Marshall book contains two helpful glossaries–one is a typical

glossary of relevant historical terms utilized in the text, while the second is an unusual topographical glossary that makes clear the various changes in geographical terminology in the fluid regions of Finland (Karelia), the Baltic region, and present-day Poland, Byelo-Russia, and the western Ukraine.

A second special feature of the Marshall volume is its documentary collection that includes 41 different primary sources dealing with all of the important aspects and issues of Peter's life and reign. More specifically, the documentary section includes sources on Peter's family and personal history (i.e., biographical material), examples of his personal and official correspondence, his military strategies, foreign policy, church-state relations, economic policy, and industrial development. While the documents are comprehensive in their scope and do embrace all the crucial areas of Peter's reign, they do not and cannot stand alone, for each is but a fragment of a large and complex dimension of Peter's reign, whether it be his tragic relationship with his son Alexis, his treatment of the Russian Orthodox Church, or his economic policies. Two or three documents on any one of these topics, while helpful in a classroom setting, are limited in their value; for if the intention is to provide students with the opportunity to arrive at their own overall assessment of Peter, the documents available simply will not permit this. In addition, eight of the 41 are only of paragraph length and further limit their value to a classroom teacher.

A third major difference between the two books is that Lee's volume is significantly shorter than Marshall's and therefore does not possess as much detail and depth as the Marshall text; however, Stephen Lee effectively utilizes organizing questions at the beginning of each major section of his book. Most students, especially those less advanced, should find this very helpful.

Given the fundamental purposes that both volumes share, that is, to delineate more sharply the major dimensions of one of Russia's most revolutionary periods, each should be useful to the high school or undergraduate teacher. If used in conjunction with additional documentary material and secondary works, each is capable of reducing the complexity of one of the most controversial figures in Russian history. I believe, therefore, that each volume would be most suitable for use in introductory courses with students who are making their initial contact with Russia's first revolutionary age.

Fitchburg State College Pasquale E. Micciche

T. H. Breen, ed. *The Power of Words: Documents in American History.* New York: HarperCollins, 1996. Vol. 1 - To 1877. Pp. xviii, 334. ISBN 0-06-501112-0. Vol. 2 - From 1865. Pp. xviii, 350. ISBN 0-06-501113-9. Paper; $20.75 each.

These volumes of readings in United States history to and from 1865 are welcome additions to the genre. T. H. Breen has chosen a large number of short primary sources. There are 117 and 123 documents in the first and second volumes respectively, for an average of 7 or 8 per chapter. Each document has a one-paragraph introduction and each of the 15 chapters in Volume 1 and the 16 chapters in Volume 2 has a longer introduction. The chronological organization is conventional. The last chapter of Volume 1 on Reconstruction becomes the first chapter of Volume 2.

The salient characteristic of these volumes is the large number of short primary selections. Breen includes a wide variety of readings, ranging from famous documents of all kinds to more obscure writings. Included are selections by John Winthrop, Benjamin Franklin, Abraham

Lincoln, Franklin D. Roosevelt, Martin Luther King, Jr., and Ronald Reagan, as well as oral reports and letters from a Monticello slave, a female covered-wagon pioneer, and a 1950s "young mother." The selections are eclectic, covering political, social, economic, and intellectual topics.

The general effect of these volumes is liberal in that conflict rather than consensus is stressed. The conservative sources serve largely as foils. The general introduction seems liberal because it encourages skepticism. Breen asks readers to critically analyze selections and try to discover personal motivation and how far from the objective truth (if there is such a thing) the authors have strayed.

Some teachers will like these volumes because the large number allows the inclusion of some unusual documents. However, others will prefer fewer but longer selections.

A perennial problem with collections, of course, is how to use them in teaching. At a minimum, these volumes could serve as a good source of information for lectures. Going a little further, teachers could ask students to use these volumes to supplement the regular textbook and professorial lectures. But how, and in what way? A solution I have found is to require short weekly "thesis" papers over each chapter in a book of readings. This requirement provides information and helps improve students' reading, writing, and critical thinking skills. In some courses I have dispensed with the textbook altogether, filling in the gaps between selections in lectures. Because of its conventional chronological organization and wide coverage of topics I would use these volumes instead of a regular textbook. Somewhat surprisingly, I have found that students do not complain about so many papers if they are graded and returned quickly, preferably at the next class meeting. The reading and grading of many papers has not proven overly onerous once it becomes an accepted way of life.

In sum, these are quality volumes, attractively edited and illustrated, well worth considering for classroom use.

One small criticism concerns the lack of documentation for the cover illustrations.

Winston-Salem State University Howard A. Barnes

James T. Campbell. *Songs of Zion: The African Methodist Episcopal Church in the United States and South Africa*. New York and Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press, 1995. Pp. xv, 418. Cloth, $55.00; ISBN 0-19-507892-6.

Through a comparative study of the AME Church in the U.S. and in South Africa, James Campbell in *Songs of Zion* examines not only the church's history but also the self-perceptions of church members. His "central premise" is that "African and African American identities are and have always been mutually constituted." Campbell begins with the conflict between Methodist authorities and Philadelphia's Bethel Church, which in 1816 led to incorporation of the AME Church under the leadership of Richard Allen. By 1896 the church counted nearly half a million members, but growth posed its own problems. The church became more structured and hierarchical, as what had begun as a "religious rebellion" evolved into an "established church." By the end of the century, Bishop Henry McNeal Turner of Georgia and other church leaders turned their attention to African evangelization, believing, as did many whites, that this was "the next step in the progressive emancipation of the black race."

Events in South Africa dovetailed nicely with the interest of the AME Church. In 1892, a group of black South African Methodists established the Ethiopian Church, after withdrawing

from a white Methodist group in circumstances reminiscent of the AME Church's origin. In 1896 the Ethiopian Church asked to affiliate with the Americans, hoping for educational opportunities outside of white mission schools and believing that the American AME experience legitimized their own crusade for religious autonomy. During the unsettled period of the South African War and reconstruction, church membership exploded, encompassing gold field workers, sharecroppers, urban dwellers, and even disaffected tribal groups in the reserves. By 1910, the year the Union of South Africa was formed, membership was around 40,000.

Aside from a visit by Bishop Turner in 1898, the early South African AME Church had no direct supervision from the United States. A series of unresolved questions plagued the relationship: How would the South African AME Church be governed? What would be the financial responsibility of the Americans? What relationship would exist between the Church and the new South African government? Eventually, the church gained official recognition from South African authorities, who hoped to channel its activities along "harmless" lines. In exchange, the South African government insisted that the church be headed by an African-American bishop, who essentially was held responsible for church actions. A "diverse, dynamic popular movement" was thus transformed into a "more or less conventional mission church." Campbell concludes, however, that the connection with America continued to have profound significance, for America remained, in the imagination of black South Africans, "the place where black was free."

This institutionalized South African church depended for leadership upon a remarkable group of African students educated in the United States, mainly at Ohio's Wilberforce University. Both these students and their American educators believed that they were "an acculturated elite lighting the path to racial progress." But on returning home, they became disillusioned with their inability to mediate the worsening racial situation. Campbell argues, however, that their "determined efforts to bridge black and white worlds, however flawed and seemingly ineffectual, helped sustain a fragile tradition of nonracialism in South Africa."

Campbell's exhaustively researched study illuminates ways in which the AME connection shaped the attitudes of church members on both continents. The author presumes background knowledge of American and South African history which may make the work too difficult for most undergraduates. Maps, especially of South Africa, would help to trace the church's expansion. The phrase "songs of Zion" is used in Biblical passages representing both joy and sorrow. Campbell shows how this contradiction applied to the AME Church in both America and South Africa in this invaluable comparative history.

Kennesaw State University Ann Ellis Pullen

Ellen F. Fitzpatrick, ed. *Muckraking: Three Landmark Articles.* Boston & New York: Bedford Books of St. Martin's Press, 1994. Pp. xii, 132. Paper, $6.50. ISBN 0-312-08944-9.

I get nervous each semester when the American history survey course reaches the Progressive era. Few topics are more confusing to undergraduates than the variety of reform efforts that historians characterize as Progressivism. Frustrated by the diverse backgrounds, motivations, and agendas of reformers, students in self defense often reduce the Progressive movement to a lifeless list of the "accomplishments" of prominent individuals from Woodrow Wilson to "Golden Rule" Jones. Progressivism becomes a catalog devoid of passion.

Making Ellen F. Fitzpatrick's slim volume on muckraking an assigned course reading would counteract this tendency by bringing the fervor of the Progressives into the classroom. At a low cost–an appropriate feature for a text on muckraking–the college student can examine the heart of the January 1903 edition of *McClure's Magazine* that stimulated an outburst of investigative reporting in American magazine journalism. With a circulation of 400,000, this influential issue contained the work of three of the best known muckrakers. Ida Tarbell documented Standard Oil's ruthless attacks on independent oil producers. Lincoln Steffens exposed political corruption in Minneapolis, the second installment in a six-part series that would later be published under the title *The Shame of the Cities*. Ray Stannard Baker attacked the vicious tactics of the United Mine Workers in the anthracite coal fields of Pennsylvania. Each article was illustrated with photographs, many with inflammatory captions. The first page of the magazine set the tone. Under the title of Steffens's story "The Shame of Minneapolis: The Rescue and Redemption of a City That Was Sold Out," emblazoned in bold typeface, was a facsimile of an account book used by gamblers to keep track of the debts they owed the police and other city officials who protected them. The resourceful Steffens obtained this incriminating evidence surreptitiously from the foreman of a grand jury set up to investigate municipal corruption. In an emotional editorial, Samuel McClure urged his readers to take action to stop the abuses revealed in these hard-hitting articles. If Americans permit powerful special interests to go unchecked, McClure warned, "We have to pay in the end, every one of us. And in the end the sum total of the debt will be our liberty."

On their own without annotation these documents convey the moral outrage felt by the middle class assaulted by the sinister forces represented by the trusts, the bosses, and the unions. However, Fitzpatrick has added two historical chapters that deepen a student's understanding of the role of the media in stimulating a national political crusade. An introductory chapter provides information on the technological developments in printing and photography in the late nineteenth century that made possible the mass circulation of cheap, illustrated weekly publications. Fitzpatrick also profiles the three authors in a way that makes their similarities apparent. All were young; only Tarbell was in her 40s. All were from the West and had fathers who were successful businessmen. All had some college training. Tarbell, for example, was the lone female in her class at Allegheny College. All three came to *McClure's* after extensive European travel. All were outraged by the contrast between their own privileged status and the human misery they saw everywhere in industrial America.

In a brief final chapter the author introduces the student to two continuing historiographical puzzles involving the muckrakers. The first involves the difficulty in evaluating their effectiveness as catalysts of reform. The second is even more mysterious. Why did the popularity of the muckrakers decline almost synonymously with Theodore Roosevelt's speech in 1906 that attached the pejorative "muckraking" label to the literature of exposure? A select bibliography guides the student who wants to pursue these questions further.

Western Connecticut State University Herbert Janick

Reed Ueda. *Postwar Immigrant America: A Social History*. Boston & New York: Bedford Books of St. Martin's Press, 1994. Pp. ix, 182. Paper, $6.50. ISBN 0-312-07526-X.

Postwar Immigrant America, which is part of the Bedford Series in History and Culture, provides the reader with a global understanding of a vital aspect of American history, one that makes the United States unique among nations of the world. More than any other country, the United States has played a distinctive role as destination for the millions of emigrants who, for one reason or another, have sought new lives in a place far from home. From 1820 to 1930, the United States received 61 percent of the world's emigrants, not only more than any other nation, but also more than the total of all other nations.

The book focuses on the most recent immigration wave, which began after 1965 and has continued to the present. The first two chapters provide background and context by discussing pre-World War II immigration and the restrictionist policies that were aimed at southern and eastern Europeans, but even more severely at Asians. The rest of the book then examines changes that developed during and after World War II.

In 1965 Congress passed the Hart-Cellar Act, which reversed the former dominance of European immigrants. While Europeans constituted 90 percent of all newcomers to the United States in 1900, they made up only 11 percent in the 1980s. Instead, Latin Americans and Asians provided the bulk of those arriving since the 1970s. The post-1965 period also saw the influx of the most highly educated immigrants in American history. At the same time, a large proportion of low-skilled workers also arrived, resulting in newcomers of two distinct social classes.

Perhaps the greatest strength of *Postwar Immigrant America* is in the demographic and quantitative data presented in graphs, maps, and tables, enabling the reader to see, at a glance, general patterns and trends. For example, figure 1.5 presents the ratio of immigrants to the larger population, by decade from 1820 to 1990, thereby visually portraying the relative impact of immigrants on society. We see that the impact was highest from 1841 to 1860 and from 1881 to 1910. The reader can compare such information with that presented in figure 3.2, which shows an unprecedented surge in immigration from the late 1980s, which has continued into the 1990s.

The author uses maps to show other interesting data. Figure 3.9, for example, indicates those states receiving the heaviest concentration of immigrants in 1986, and figure 3.10 highlights the eight metropolitan areas–New York, Washington D.C., Miami, Chicago, Houston, San Francisco, Los Angeles, and San Diego–where over half of all immigrants settled in 1989. Numerous tables provide a wealth of information, such as the numbers of immigrants from Asia and Latin America since 1960, policy changes in preference systems under succeeding immigration laws, and the occupational distribution of Mexican immigrants from 1971 to 1990.

By examining immigration to the United States at the macro level, the book provides an overall perspective of U.S. immigration history. At the same time, readers will have to look elsewhere for specifics on demographic data and historical experiences of the various immigrant groups. With this in mind, instructors can use this handy and affordable book as an assigned reading, or extract material from it for lectures and discussions.

University of Hawai'i Manoa Eileen H. Tamura

L. Edward Purcell. *Immigration*. Phoenix, AZ, 1995. Pp. xiv, 199. Cloth, $29.95. ISBN 0-89774-873-5.

After reading this volume it is difficult to disagree with the author's contention that "immigration has been the lifeblood of the American experience," and that "evidence of the importance of immigration is everywhere in modern American society." Four major revisions of U.S. immigration policy since 1986 and political battles over immigration in California in the 1990s attest to the accuracy of these observations. There can be little doubt that immigration is such an integral part of the American experience that it should have a significant place in our classrooms. This book deserves serious consideration in meeting that need. It is intended by the author for use by both high school and college students as well as the general public. Indeed, the book does meet the needs of a wide audience. The author succeeds in just over one hundred pages of text in providing both basic historical information and excellent analysis of the critical phases involved in the immigration of more than 60 million people to America's shores. Along the way he shows that the "social process of immigration has changed little over the nearly four centuries of American life." What has changed has been the politics of immigration.

Immigration has primarily a chronological organization, but with sections of emphasis on specific national or ethnic groups. The strengths of the book are many, but of particular note is the treatment of the impact of the "new immigration" between 1880 and 1920 which "affected the course of American history in fundamental and dramatic ways." As a result, after World War I, "immigration was no longer simply a phenomenon of American life but a problem to be solved." And so it has remained ever since. The author includes a section with specific information on Mexican immigration of the recent past, which is helpful in understanding political and cultural issues related to this topic. Purcell does an exceptional job of providing a thorough discussion and analysis of immigration in a small package. In addition to the one hundred plus pages of narrative, the book contains a chronology of significant events in immigration history (100+ items, by year only), a glossary of 58 important terms, and an extensive (40 pp.) section on further reading. This final section is divided into seventeen topic areas and one of these, "Immigrant Groups," is further divided into subsections on specific ethnic or national groups. The book also contains over a dozen illustrations. *Immigration* provides an excellent source book for teachers and students. It is worth having in each secondary teacher's library and should be considered for student use at both the secondary and beginning college level.

Boise State University Robert C. Sims

Ellen Schrecker. *The Age of McCarthyism: A Brief History with Documents.* Boston & New York: Bedford Books of St. Martin's Press, 1994. Pp. xiv, 274. Cloth, $35.00; ISBN 0-312-10277-1. Paper, $6.50; ISBN 0-312-08349-1.

Many citizens today still define McCarthyism as part of a brief and aberrational phase of the nation's history when an immoral senator shamelessly manipulated early Cold War hysteria to suit his political ambitions. Those same observers proudly contend that, with few exceptions, past generations of Americans have avoided the kind of paranoia and extremism that allowed McCarthyism to flourish. In contrast to this view, Ellen Schrecker convincingly demonstrates that

this intolerance has had deep roots in American society. The Red Scare of 1919 and attempted purges of socialist-inspired labor unions and political organizations during the inter-war years provided the continuity for anti-leftist sentiment throughout the first half of the twentieth century. She further argues that this was part of an older American backlash to protect society from the modern, secular world, and that is why intolerance attracted such broad-based public support.

Despite the author's strong affirmation that McCarthyism was an unconstitutional "witch hunt" and that it blatantly violated people's civil liberties, she also shows how the American Communist party's secrecy and orthodoxy to Moscow's directives fed public fear and hatred. Furthermore, the overwhelming majority of people targeted by McCarthyism were not randomly selected "innocents," but rather Communists or former Communists. Even more ironic is the fact that many people who supported this extremism did so with the most honorable and well-intentioned motives.

Schrecker, associate professor of history at Yeshiva University, presents an expertly written 94-page synthesis of the causes and consequences of McCarthyism. This excellent essay contains the familiar stories of J. Edgar Hoover, the House Un-American Activities Committee, Alger Hiss, the Rosenberg case, Truman loyalty checks, the China issue, the McCarran Act, attacks on unions, purges on college campuses, blacklists, the Hollywood Ten, economic sanctions, and much more. It can be appreciated by any level of audience, from the college freshman to the experienced researcher, and its extensive bibliographic essay offers incisive evaluations of more specific studies.

This volume conforms to the style and intent of other topical volumes in the Bedford Series in History and Culture. Its overview essay is followed by several dozen key documents that are mostly printed in their entirety. Some are famous pieces, such as Senator Joseph McCarthy's speech to the Republican women's club at Wheeling, West Virginia, and President Harry Truman's Executive Order 9835 to establish a loyalty-security program within the executive department of the federal government. Others, such as the Rosenbergs' letters to their young sons, are poignant, and still others, such as Supreme Court Justice William O. Douglas's condemnation of "the Black Silence of Fear," offer a clarion call to rational Americans to wake up to the new wave of extremism. Each section of documents opens with a brief introduction to establish the context and importance of the selected items. Otherwise, the documents are left to stand alone and to provoke thought and comment from readers.

The paperback edition of this book is priced reasonably for classroom use, and it is among college students that this work will find its most appreciative audience. Teachers of American history survey courses, as well as upper level classes on twentieth-century America, social history, and political science, should consider the book for adoption. Even teachers of advanced high school courses will find it appropriate for student use. Among all of these audiences, the excellent essay and well-chosen documents should elicit fiery discussion and powerful emotions from various vantage points. Even for the less ambitious instructor, the introductory essay will serve as a valuable source for authoritative lecture material. The academy can only hope for additional sources of this high quality in future publications of the Bedford Series.

University of Nebraska at Omaha Michael L. Tate

Bruce J. Schulman. *Lyndon B. Johnson and American Liberalism: A Brief Biography with Documents*. Boston & New York: Bedford Books of St. Martin's Press, 1995. Pp. xiv, 269. Cloth, $35.00; ISBN 0-312-10282-8. Pper, $6.50; ISBN 0-312-08351-3.

Bruce Schulman has written a fine little book on Lyndon Johnson, one that instructors and students will enjoy reading. The beginning 162-page interpretive essay demonstrates mastery of the growing Johnson literature and offers concise and readable presentation, lively use of colorful anecdote, and judicious interpretation. Specialists will be impressed with his ability to comment on most of the many controversies about Johnson's life and politics. All instructors will enjoy mining it for lively lecture material and using it as a guide to the literature. Students reading about Johnson for the first time will gain a sense of the man's complications, his ability to attract and repel, his questionable ethics and lofty social goals, and his central place in the rise and, according to Schulman, the fall of twentieth-century liberalism.

The book is a synthesis of published sources and does not attempt to break new interpretive trails. Even so, readers revisiting familiar ground will be stimulated to see it in new ways. Schulman's discussion of liberalism is especially thought provoking. He believes Johnson expanded liberalism, pushing it to a stronger commitment to civil rights, rejecting the old faith that economic growth alone could end poverty, and calling for equality of results, not just equality of opportunity, as the goal of federal policy. Yet, while Johnson wrote these principles into law, Schulman's last chapter is subtitled "the decline and fall of American liberalism."

Schulman's Johnson believed the purpose of politics was to deliver benefits to everyone through an ever-growing government. A pragmatist who could be deceitful and vindictive, Johnson's "basic principle" was "effectiveness," and his total devotion to results emerges as the key to understanding Johnson's personality and politics. He did launch illegal CIA investigations of antiwar critics and authorized FBI campaigns to harass his opponents, but he could always convince himself his interests were the nation's and never understood ingratitude for his achievements. While Johnson did push liberalism in new directions, he was a traditional politician, unable to manage the press or communicate well on television. When he tried to forge a consensus behind his Vietnam policies and offered North Vietnam a development program if it would call off the war, "his political philosophy was tested and found wanting."

Students of the Johnson presidency tend to be overwhelmed by the man's incredible energy, his political tactics, and his "record of achievement unmatched by any other president;" and we still have not adequately analyzed how his programs worked. Schulman makes a brief attempt, but those who want to be informed participants in the current debate about the legacy of the 1960s will have to look further. Indeed, Schulman's conclusion that Johnson's main domestic reforms "are permanent features of the American political landscape" could be premature.

The Bedford Series in History and Culture is intended for the college supplementary reading market, and this book is well suited, although some students might challenge the editors' assertion that it would make a "reasonable one-week assignment." The fifteen documents add value, especially the six major Johnson presidential speeches. Students would also find this a valuable source for a brief report or extended paper.

Eastern Oregon State College Charles Coate

Kathryn S. Olmsted. *Challenging the Secret Government: The Post-Watergate Investigations of the CIA and FBI.* Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1996. Pp. xiii, 255. Cloth, $34.95; paper, $15.95.

Almost immediately after Watergate, the news broke that the CIA and FBI had been guilty of huge abuses of power both in the United States and abroad. The media, Congress, and the White House all promised investigations. However, contrary to popular expectations, the inquiries were stymied. The end result, Olmsted argues, was that neither Congress nor the press pushed for changes, or challenged the executive branch, in the oversight of the intelligence community.

Olmsted looks at how both houses of Congress organized investigative committees, and the executive response. Otis Pike (D-NY) led the House effort and Frank Church (D-ID) the Senate's, and the book details the convoluted efforts of these committees to ferret out information. The executive branch opposed these efforts with propaganda and delayed by resisting the committees' requests for documents. During this delay, Olmsted posits, public opinion swung away from the investigations. By the time the findings were issued, Congress was seen as overly prying, and so no real reform was accomplished. Publication of the Pike Committee's report was even suppressed.

This effort is researched and written well. Among its sources are interviews, committee reports, and papers of Frank Church and Gerald Ford, in addition to the newspapers, magazines, journals, and books one might expect. In addition, the work is well annotated with forty pages of notes. It develops and defends clearly its primary thesis that the press and Congress failed to change the oversight of the CIA and FBI.

It is, however, in Olmsted's larger claims that one begins to have questions. One of these is that the press, after this "year of intelligence" ended, ceased to monitor the intelligence agencies as closely. This, however, ignores the media's intense coverage of the Iran-Contra affair, among others (Olmsted mentions Iran-Contra, but only in terms of Congressional oversight), and she overlooks the media's comprehensively more intrusive and acrimonious approach. This work ends, in terms of press coverage, right after this episode, which leaves one wondering how it affected the larger media picture. Secondly, she ignores the overall issue of how the nation perceived the national security apparatus, arguing merely that the press returned to being deferential. She sidesteps the point, which she herself admitted, that the public's image of the agencies had changed.

This book clearly has potential for use at a number of different levels in history courses. It might be used in a survey, although it does not adequately link these episodes with what came before and has come hence, as is often needed in such a course. Among the courses that would benefit from this book are ones on journalism, journalistic history, governmental history, and the twentieth century. Due to its narrow focus, this work's potential for lecture material is limited. However, its strong bibliography allows it to serve as a good jumping-off point for one who might want to learn more about the period.

Northern Kentucky University Scott A. Merriam

Robert Schmuhl. *Statecraft and Stagecraft: American Political Life in the Age of Personality.* Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press, 1990. Pp. 113. Paper, $11.50.
Robert Schmuhl. *Demanding Democracy*, Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press, 1994. Pp. 149. Cloth, $22.95; paper, $10.95.

Robert Schmuhl is a specialist in American Studies who teaches at Notre Dame. He is fascinated by contemporary American politics, the subject of these two books. Both books are well-written, interesting, and thought-provoking. They are recommended as parallel reading for junior or senior-level courses in Twentieth Century America, America Since 1945, and similar courses, and for interdisciplinary social science courses, e.g., courses on contemporary American society. They are also good reading for history teachers and good sources for lecture material.

These books focus on the role of the media in present-day politics, especially presidential politics. The media's role affects mightily our elections, especially presidential elections, as well as the behavior of presidents. The media's role is also powerful in its interaction with citizens, especially voters. Following is a summary of Schmuhl's views on these matters.

The powerful role of the media in presidential campaigns, especially with our current focus on people rather than party, is illustrated by a wealth of material regarding the campaigns of Presidents Carter, Reagan, Bush, and Clinton, as well as the failed campaign in 1988 of Governor Dukakis. Crucial in all of these campaigns is the concept of image. President Carter's favorable but unclear image in the 1976 campaign never was clarified for the voters and was a negative factor in his attempt at re-election. President Reagan incessantly worked at creating a favorable image in the 1980 campaign and continued to work at it in his first term, and his clear and favorable image helped greatly in his re-election over a potentially formidable opponent. President Bush's inability to understand the image problem, either in 1988 or 1992, was offset by skillful "mud-slinging" in the former campaign and contributed to defeat in the latter. Governor Dukakis also never realized the effect his image was having on the voter, while Governor Clinton understood the image matter well and also knew it wasn't as crucial in the 1992 race as was the economic issue.

After a president is elected, the media are an ever-present matter in the administrations of successful presidents, who must find the proper balance between statecraft and stagecraft. President Carter practiced statecraft with little sense of stagecraft, while President Reagan worked harder on the stagecraft. President Bush practiced statecraft in the foreign policy realm (which he liked), paid little attention to the need for statecraft in the domestic realm (which he didn't like), and practiced stagecraft very little in either. In *Demanding Democracy* (written before the 1994 mid-term election) President Clinton is admonished to balance the two crafts, and his second two years, in this reviewer's opinion, demonstrate the wisdom of Schmuhl's admonition.

How do the voters interact with the media? Here, the two books vary. In *Statecraft and Stagecraft* the voter tends to be viewed in terms of passivity, lack of knowledge, and mutability. In *Demanding Democracy*, Schmuhl's view of the voter stresses the opposite qualities, for the voter had changed. Driven by fear (economic fear and fear of personal safety), frustration at "the system," intrigued by the wily Ross Perot, and angry at the issue-less and "dirty" campaign of 1988, the 1992 citizen was both more interested in the election and more issue-oriented. Thus, both Mr. Perot's and Senator Gore's books made the best-seller list, voters watched the four debates (three presidential and one vice-presidential), and voter turnout was up. Voters filtered media material in a rational way, leading some Americans to call for a new "instant democracy"

through technology, an idea that Schmuhl wisely criticizes in favor of the informed-debate, representative democracy advocated by the Founders.

The above rough summary of the books fails to do justice to Professor Schmuhl's many ideas and readable style. The weaknesses of the books grow from their virtue of a contemporary focus. Thus, the analysis would have been improved by deeper, less contemporary, background in American political science and American history. In American political science the classic analyses by V. O. Key, whose views resemble Schmuhl's in *Demanding Democracy*, would have added depth. In American history, more examples from earlier presidential campaigns and administrations would have done the same, utilizing, say, Presidents Lincoln, the two Roosevelts, and Wilson's wonderful balance of statecraft and stagecraft. There are also some factual caveats. For example, many American elections are decided by pluralities, not just majorities, and it is unclear which seven of the federal constitutional amendments since 1791 Schmuhl refers to "broaden voting rights or give more electoral involvement." Certainly, Amendments 15, 17, 19, 23, 24, and 26 (six amendments) do these things explicitly, Amendments 12, 14, 20, and 27 do so indirectly, and Amendment 14 very much so. However, neither of the lines of criticism in this paragraph detracts from this reviewer's recommendation of these interesting and useful books.

Macon College Benjamin B. Tate

Richard Crockatt. *The Fifty Years War: The United States and the Soviet Union in World Politics, 1941-1991.* London & New York: Routledge, 1995. Pp. xviii, 417. Cloth, $29.95; ISBN 0-415-10471-8.

The appearance of Richard Crockatt's *The Fifty Years War* is an event in historical scholarship, for it is the first attempt to date that I am aware of to chronicle the $10 trillion arms race and all that was attendant with it during the Cold War era (1941-1991). I believe that this scholarly study will go a long way towards dispelling the long-held pervasive myth of the impossibility of writing an accurate history of this incredible era in international politics. Having been born at the outset of the Cold War, I never imagined, nor did anyone else (including Cold War experts such as Zbigniew Brzezinski and others) that it would end without a nuclear confrontation at some point and, even more incredibly, that it would end the way it did. It should be remembered that during the half century of Cold War tensions and confrontations, the NATO alliance never fired a shot in an offensive action, a testimony to the effectiveness of this European mutual-security system that was put in place shortly after the end of World War II to thwart Soviet expansion in Europe and elsewhere. Not even a Metternich could make such a boast!

Crockatt's scholarly study is essentially an attempt to chronicle the history of Cold War relations between the United States and the Soviet Union that were brought on by the traumatic geopolitical upheavals of World War II. By his own admission, it has been a near-impossible task, given the billions of documents extant on both sides of the struggle, coupled with the restrictive "national security considerations" that have severely limited the access that historians have to these documents. Despite the official ending of the Cold War in late 1991, all but a handful of these documents remain classified. It needs no elucidation that access to the Soviet archives is even more limited, despite the good intentions of the current leaders of both countries. A careful perusing of Crockatt's extensive bibliography and notes will indicate the heavy reliance on secondary sources that he readily admits.

Any Cold War historian worth his or her salt will candidly admit that we still know little of *how* and *why* the Cold War started (ideologues and conspiracy theorists being excepted), *how* and *why* it ended, and still less of what happened in between. This perhaps has resulted because of official government secrecy concerning the various and sundry episodes over the past half century. Contrary to public opinion, the Freedom of Information Act of 1966, though designed under the guise of giving the public greater access to official government documents, has only served over the past three decades to make things worse in that it has served to harden the purveyors of "national security considerations" (the CIA, Pentagon, and U.S. State Department bureaucracies) in their positions, for to declassify documents would only show the extent to which the United States government has consistently lied about things that happened here at home and abroad, some of which had nothing to do with the Cold War *per se*. Because declassification has gone on at a glacial pace (the Hiss case is a good example), conspiracy theories have proliferated and a gullible public has given them credence. It is hard for me to see how anyone has benefitted from this. It may take a century or so for historians to achieve a vantage point and to get an accurate perspective on the Cold War.

On balance, Crockatt's study has served "Clio, the Muse" well, for he has pointed the way for future studies in this area of historical scholarship, and his book is a reminder of the difficulties one is up against in writing in this area. As a student of international relations, I am not even certain that we are rid of the Cold War, which Crockatt readily admits did not simply collapse but was perhaps "bypassed." With a future election in the Russian Republic, it may be that Russian voters will choose to lapse back into communism or some ominous alternative and conceivably the Cold War could restart again, although hopefully not the Stalinist version of it.

The Fifty Years War would be a useful addition in an upper-level course on international relations in terms of indicating to students where the Cold War has taken us and what the prospects are for the post-Cold War era. It is worth introducing to students if for no other reason than to expose them to Cold War theories and policies.

Quincy College Lawrence S. Rines

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FOR TEACHERS OF HISTORY

The OAH *Magazine of History* was created especially for teachers of American history. Every issue is centered around a particular topic in history and includes informative articles, lesson plans, current historiography, and reproducible classroom materials to help you give your students a depth of understanding that can't be obtained from today's textbooks.

In addition to the topical articles, each issue includes **Dialogue**, which presents various approaches to history teaching; **Student Speak**, where students discuss their views and experiences; **History Headlines**, a listing of news, programs, and resources; plus reviews, teaching resource guides, and more.

The OAH is also pleased to announce a membership category especially for primary and secondary history teachers. Membership in this category will include subscriptions to the *Magazine* and the OAH *Newsletter*, the Annual Meeting *Program*, and all privileges of OAH membership. Join us as a member or a subscriber today.

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