Teaching History

CONTENTS

USING "INFLUENTIAL PERSONS"
TO TEACH WORLD HISTORY

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The questions start early in the first class of the semester, smacking of curiosity with some hints of "what's in this for me?" "What's the point of learning about the past?" "What connection do dead people have to me?" Questions such as these, whether directly expressed or not, are the most basic ones that students bring to introductory history classes. They deserve answers.[1]

With students, it is appropriate to begin by acknowledging that skepticism about the value of the past is a legitimate position, one that should be taken seriously. This is especially true in classes that for many students seem to be distant from their lives. At my college, World History is such a course. World Civ, as we call it, is required of all Arts and Sciences students. It is fair to say that more students enroll in the class under compulsion than because they think learning about the distant past has some connection to the twenty-first century. There are times when I deplore the present-mindedness of my students and of society generally, but this is not one of those times. I will note instead as I do in class that their skepticism about the past puts them in good company. A long line of Americans, including Thomas Jefferson, Ralph Waldo Emerson, and Henry David Thoreau, have questioned the value of the past for the present. In other words, skepticism about the past has a past.

The skeptics include Huck Finn. In the first chapter of his story Huck describes how "The Widow Douglas, she took me for her son, and allowed she would civilize me … After supper she got out her book and learned me about Moses and the Bulrushers; and I was in a sweat to find out all about him; but by-and-by she let it out that Moses had been dead a considerable long time; so then I didn't care no more about him; because I don't take no stock in dead people."[2]

"I don't take no stock in dead people"—Huck has a pithy eloquence about him. Is it self-evident that any of us should care about the dead? As Jefferson famously

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[1] Knowing that the title of this essay might cause some concern, let me offer a caveat: Although I refer to "Influential Persons," it is neither my philosophical purpose to advocate a "Great Man Theory of History" nor my pedagogical one to urge that we teach classes primarily through the words and deeds of the most prominent people. A "great man" approach to teaching history would distort the past and strip history of much of its content and interest. My purpose is a limited, but important one: To explore ways of answering the most basic questions that students bring to a college history class: What's the point? What's the point of learning about the past? What connection does it have with me and my life?

[2] Mark Twain, *Mississippi Writings: The Adventures of Tom Sawyer; Life on the Mississippi; Adventures of Huckleberry Finn; Pudd'nhead Wilson* (New York: The Library of America, 1982), 625–626. Some years ago, a fellow graduate student, Roderick McDonald, now of Rider University, first called my attention to Huck's lack of interest in dead people.

proclaimed, the earth belongs to the living.[3] The future beckons; every day is a new day. In different ways, researchers of history, teachers of history, and college students in history classes must all wrestle with the "Huck Finn question"—why should the living take interest in the dead?

Using Huck, I raise this question with my World Civ classes right away. If we cannot find an answer, class might as well be dismissed. At my college, we teach World Civ as a two-semester survey, breaking around 1500. Huck's objection can be raised about the entire business, but it is especially potent for the first course. Every person we deal with in the class lived and died centuries ago. These people are not just dead, they are lots of dead.

Having brought Huck's question before a class, how might we go about answering it? One way is to make the issue more concrete, by thinking about the contributions of specific people. To do this, I draw on Michael Hart's *The 100*, first published in 1979 and re-issued in 1996. The book is an attempt to identify the 100 most influential men and women in history.[4] Any guy at a bar can make a list. The virtue of Hart's lies in his thoughtful justification of each selection and his attempt to anticipate objections to his choices. My point, though, is not to defend Hart's choices or his rankings, but to use his list to make the case that the past connects to the present.[5]

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[3]Letter to James Madison, September 6, 1789, in Thomas Jefferson, *Writings* (New York: The Library of America, 1984), 959–964.

[4]Michael H. Hart, *The 100: A Ranking of the Most Influential Persons in History*, second edition (Secaucus, NJ: Citadel Press, 1996). There are other lists, of course. For one example of a list that covers the eleventh through the twentieth centuries, see Agnes Hooper Gottlieb, Henry Gottlieb, Barbara Bowers, Brent Bowers, *1,000 Years, 1,000 People: Ranking the Men and Women Who Shaped the Millennium* (Tokyo, Japan: Kodansha International, 1998), cited at: http://www.wisdomportal.com/Books/1000Years1000People.html. This list includes: 1) Johannes Gutenberg; 2) Christopher Columbus; 3) Martin Luther; 4) Galileo; 5) William Shakespeare; 6) Isaac Newton; 7) Charles Darwin; 8) Thomas Aquinas; 9) Leonardo da Vinci; 10) Ludwig van Beethoven. *Time* magazine, in its December 31, 1999, issue, selected Albert Einstein as its "Person of the [Twentieth] Century." The runners-up were Franklin D. Roosevelt and Mohandas Gandhi. The magazine also selected the most important person in each century of the second millennium AD: William the Conqueror, Saladin, Genghis Khan, Giotto, Gutenberg, Elizabeth I, Isaac Newton, Thomas Jefferson, and Thomas Edison.

[5]Any list invites disagreement. Hart's inclusion of George Washington (#26), the Wright Brothers (#28), Thomas Edison (#35), and Thomas Jefferson (#64) might not surprise U.S. historians, but placing John F. Kennedy on a list (at #81) that does not include Abraham Lincoln, among other indisputably greater figures, is, at first glance, jaw-dropping. Hart's explanation: "A thousand years from now, neither the Peace Corps, nor the Alliance for Progress, nor the Bay of Pigs is likely to be much remembered. Nor will it seem very important what Kennedy's policies were concerning taxes or civil rights legislation. John F. Kennedy has been placed on this list for one reason only: he was the person who was primarily responsible for instituting the Apollo Space Program. Providing that the human race has not blown itself

With these caveats in mind, I invite the class to identify his top ten, starting with number ten. With occasional hints (initials are often sufficient), students usually do a good job of coming up with Hart's "influential" people, who include (going #10 to #1) Einstein, Columbus, Gutenberg, Ts'ai Lun, St. Paul, Confucius, Buddha, Jesus, Newton, and Muhammad.

In one recent class, after we reached #2 I asked the students who they thought Hart's top choice might be. After a few wrong guesses, I gave them a hint, that the person's name is currently the most popular male name in the world. The following discussion ensued:

First Student: Is it Jacob?

FN: No, Remember, we're looking for the most popular name in the whole world.

Second Student: John?

FN: Nope.

Third Student: Michael?

FN: No. Don't forget: We're talking about the most popular name on the entire planet.

Fourth Student: Oh! Oh! Jason?

This is why we teach World History.

The mysterious Jason notwithstanding, students usually have some knowledge of most of the people on the list. They can begin to explain why these individuals have made a difference. Once the list is on the board, it's time to consider it. What, I ask, do you notice about these people? It is not unusual for someone in the class to note, perhaps with a smile, that everyone on the list is dead. Indeed they are. We're dealing with dead people. As someone else is sure to observe, with the exception of Einstein, all have been dead for centuries, or as Huck would put it, "a considerable long time." This is an especially valuable point to establish in a World Civ class that stops at 1500. In Michael Hart's view, eight of the ten most influential people of all time lived in the period covered by the class. In addition, six of the top seven (Muhammad, Jesus, Buddha, Confucius, Paul, and Ts'ai Lun, the Chinese inventor of paper) were born over 1300 years ago. Four of the top six lived 2000 or more years ago.

Students aren't equally familiar with all of the names on the list, but they have no hesitancy in arguing that some they do know (Einstein, Newton, Muhammad, and Jesus, for example) matter tremendously. Invariably, there are students who think one person or another is ranked too low.

The most heated disagreements focus on the top three: Muhammad, Newton, and Jesus (#1, 2, and 3, respectively). Instructors sometimes try to stimulate debate. In my experience, putting those three names on the board just as Hart ranked them is often

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[5](...continued)

to smithereens in the intervening time, our trip to the moon will still be regarded as a truly momentous event, one of the great landmarks in human history." Hart, 400–401.

enough to generate that most wondrous of things, spontaneous discussion. Questions frequently come first from those who cannot believe that Jesus is only #3—too low! If Muhammad is first, perhaps it is because the list maker is a Muslim—what else could explain it? There are various ways to respond to this observation, which is, in fact, an opportunity. One is to stress that historical significance and spiritual significance are two entirely different things. These days it is worth emphasizing that the Jesus and Muhammad and Moses of the history classroom are not precisely the Jesus and Muhammad and Moses of the church, mosque, and temple. Over the years, my students have come from a variety of religious backgrounds. Some are not religious at all. But the majority of them are at least nominal Christians, and for them it might be salutary to find Jesus placed third. It need do no violence to their beliefs to find other names ahead of his. There are two billion Christians in the world, but there are more than four billion people who are something else.

Sometimes the liveliest debate focuses on Newton. Two years ago, a student objected to Newton being ranked second (above Jesus), declaring, "Gravity ain't got *sh*** on rising from the dead." (When it comes to pithy eloquence, Huck Finn had nothing on this student.) Invariably, though, there are students who quickly rise to Newton's defense. Science goes beyond religious affiliation, they will say. Regardless of what we believe or where we live, we all live in a world created by science and technology. If anything, they say, Newton and Einstein are ranked too low.

Hart's list has rarely failed to engage a class. By their often passionate arguments, students demonstrate that, whether they realized it before or not, they do take stock in dead people. Some make the point explicitly. How can a Muslim not take stock in dead people, if that group includes Muhammad? How can a Christian not take stock in St. Paul or Jesus (the latter of whom is, for many, a living presence)? And indeed we do live in the world created by Newton and Einstein and other scientists.[6] As I've noted before, my point in presenting Hart's list to classes is not to impose his rankings on them, but to get students thinking about specific people who have mattered, and who continue to matter. Students might debate the order—who should be up, who should be down—but the more they argue, the more they refute Huck's dismissal of the

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[6]My emphasis in this essay is on the use of Hart's list in the first half of the World Civilization survey, which, because of its distance from the present, often seems less relevant to students than a course on recent events. But the list has value for the second half of the survey as well. Although the top of Hart's rankings is dominated by religious figures, none lived more recently than Martin Luther (#25). To note the increasing importance after 1500 of people whose contributions were in science, technology, and medicine is to make an obvious point. More importantly, perhaps, it presents a way to explore differences between religious and scientific truth. Religious truth gains some of its authority precisely because it is old. The eternal verities cannot have been discovered yesterday, and for that reason Muhammad, Jesus, and Buddha are unlikely to have successors in worldwide spiritual influence. Science, by contrast, proceeds by propounding ever newer and more satisfactory theories. As great a scientist as he was, Newton is not the source of authority for physicists that Jesus is for Christians.

dead. "Subtract the people on this list," I tell the class, "and the world would be an unimaginably different place." Students don't disagree.

Why take stock in dead people? Because as William Faulkner wrote, and as the students are now prepared to believe, "The past is never dead. It's not even past."[7] Is every day actually a new day? If I ask that question at the beginning of class, most students reflexively answer, "yes." In many ways it obviously is. And yet, in a profound sense, yesterday is not over yet. Without the past, we would know nothing, we could not grieve, and our joys would be shallow. Without the past, we might be unburdened, but we would also be unmoored. As Faulkner also observed, "no man is himself, he is the sum of his past. There is no such thing really as was because the past is. It is a part of every man, every woman, and every moment. All of his and her ancestry, background, is all a part of himself and herself at any moment."[8] I used to make such points in a rather abstract way. I find now that students, fresh from their discussion of Hart's rankings, are prepared to grasp the point more readily than before.

When I teach World Civ, I'm not interested in covering every king or conqueror. So I am pleased when, as usually happens, a student notes the absence of purely political or military figures on the list. As Thomas Gray observed, "the paths of glory lead but to the grave." As a cultural and intellectual historian, I tend to emphasize the importance of ideas. Hart helps me do this. The majority of those in his top ten were men of ideas. While people die, their ideas can live on. We take stock in their ideas. The list helps me establish early in a semester that the affairs of kings, emperors, and generals will not be the main business of the course.[9]

More than kings are missing from the top ten. There are no women either. How many women, a student will ask suspiciously, are on the entire list? The answer: just two, two out of 100 (Queen Isabella and Queen Elizabeth I). Naturally, this does not satisfy the student, who thinks there should be many more. Hart, who some earlier thought was Muslim, is now thought to be a sexist—or maybe not. Perhaps the absence of women on his list is more a reflection of the way the world has been than it is of Hart's biases. The fact that men dominate his ranking of influential persons is a way

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[7]William Faulkner, *Requiem for a Nun* (New York: Vintage Books, 1975), 80.

[8]Frederick L. Gwynn and Joseph L. Blotner, eds., *Faulkner in the University: Class Conferences at the University of Virginia, 1957-1958* (Charlottesville: University of Virginia Press, 1959), 84.

[9]Hart writes in his preface, xxi, "We all tend to overestimate the importance of current heads of state. They seem to us like giants; whereas statesmen who lived a few centuries ago and who seemed every bit as important to *their* contemporaries are now nearly forgotten."

of highlighting the power of patriarchal ideas, ideas even more long-lived than those of the most ancient thinkers on the list.[10]

Sometimes we take stock of the dead because their ideas nourish and inspire us. Other times we must know them to escape them. As historian Gerda Lerner has observed, "Human beings have always used history in order to find their direction toward the future: to repeat the past or to depart from it. Lacking knowledge of their own history, women thinkers did not have the self-knowledge from which to project a desired future."[11]

If I am lucky, a thoughtful student will comment that there are some important parts of history that are not represented by Hart's influential persons. The emergence of agriculture is just one example. (It is always gratifying when my students make my points for me.) By this stage, Hart's ranking has done its considerable work. We will have used a list of influential persons to go beyond the list.

A few final observations: College should be a place to debate, to think, to challenge, and to be challenged. But for many students it can also be an intimidating place. They might fear, as some have told me, that they will be shot down if they say something their professor disagrees with. They might worry that their ideas, often tentative and underdeveloped, will not be taken seriously or treated with respect. When we discuss Hart's list, we inevitably talk about religion and science. What could be more combustible than that? Yet what I have found is that such early-in-the-semester discussions as I have described, if handled properly, can go a long way toward allaying students' fears. Despite—or maybe because of—these debates, students seem to become comfortable very quickly: comfortable with each other, comfortable with me, comfortable to think and to try out new ideas.

Debating Hart's ranking also makes an important point about the nature of history. It is more than "just the facts, ma'am." We know that, of course, but many of my freshmen come wanting "The Truth." They need to learn quickly that I will not give it to them. The experience students get on the first day, arguing about influential

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[10]On this point, see Gerda Lerner, *The Creation of Patriarchy* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1987). In his preface, xxxi, Hart explains the dearth of women on his list: "The influence of women on human affairs, as well as the contribution that females have made to human civilization, is obviously far greater than might be indicated by their numbers in this list. But a galaxy of influential figures will naturally be composed of individuals who had both the talent *and* the opportunity to exert a great influence. Throughout history, women have generally been denied such opportunities, and my inclusion of only two females is simply a reflection of that regrettable truth."

[11]Gerda Lerner, *The Creation of Feminist Consciousness: From the Middle Ages to Eighteen-Seventy* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1993), 281.

persons, provides an early demonstration that interpretation is a central part of historical understanding.[12] Historiography can come later, if one wants.

Beginning a course with "influential persons" accomplishes several things. It shows that history is interpretation as well as facts. It stimulates discussion. It demonstrates the historical force of ideas. It shows that history is more than the story of a few great men. It reveals a connection between the past and the present, and that the dead are not yet gone—a point that our students, sometimes to their surprise, discover they knew already.[13]

APPENDIX

Michael Hart's 100

1. Muhammad
2. Isaac Newton
3. Jesus Christ
4. Buddha
5. Confucius
6. St. Paul
7. Ts'ai Lun
8. Johann Gutenberg

9. Christopher Columbus
10. Albert Einstein
11. Louis Pasteur
12. Galileo Galilei
13. Aristotle
14. Euclid
15. Moses
16. Charles Darwin

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[12]If one wants to get into it, one can use lists like Hart's to demonstrate how evaluations of significance change over time. In the years that elapsed between the first edition of *The 100* and the second, a brief period in historical time, Hart reconsidered some of his rankings. "When the first edition of this book was being written," he says in the preface of his second edition (1996), xxii, "it seemed as though the Communist movement as dreadful as it appeared to me was so firmly entrenched in so many countries, and so skilled and ruthless in its hold on power, that it might well endure for many decades, perhaps even for centuries.... If that was so, then the founders of the Communist system (Marx, Lenin, and Stalin) were all extremely influential men. However, the events of the past few years have shown that the Communist system was not nearly as powerful, nor as firmly entrenched, as I had feared."

[13]Late in 2006, *Atlantic Monthly* offered its listing of the "Top 100" Americans as an interesting companion to the Hart list: "The Top 100: The Most Influential Figures in American History," *Atlantic Monthly* (December 2006), on line at http://www.theatlantic.com/doc/200612/influentials. The top ten includes, in order, Abraham Lincoln, George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Franklin D. Roosevelt, Alexander Hamilton, Benjamin Franklin, John Marshall, Martin Luther King, Jr., Thomas Edison, and Woodrow Wilson. I used to do an influential persons exercise at the beginning of my U.S. (pre-1865) survey. In fact, that's where I first used Huck Finn and his "dead people," though just about everything else about the class was different than what I do in World Civ. I invited the students to come up with their own list of ten Americans who had contributed to history (I didn't use the world "influential"), which I must say, usually looked an awful lot like what the *Atlantic* has just produced. One of the points was to observe how extremely narrow (dead white political males excepting King) the selections seemed to be and to suggest that other kinds of people can and do make history. You don't want to repeat yourself too often, so I moved on to other approaches, but maybe with the *Atlantic's* list in hand, I'll do something like this again.

17. Shih Huang Ti
18. August Caesar
19. Nicolaus Copernicus
20. Antoine Laurent Lavoisier
21. Constantine the Great
22. James Watt
23. Michael Faraday
24. James Clerk Maxwell
25. Martin Luther
26. George Washington
27. Karl Marx
28. Orville Wright & Wilbur Wright
29. Genghis Khan
30. Adam Smith
31. Edward de Vere/William
    Shakespeare
32. John Dalton
33. Alexander the Great
34. Napoleon Bonaparte
35. Thomas Edison
36. Antony van Leeuwenhoek
37. William T. G. Morton
38. Guglielmo Marconi
39. Adolf Hitler
40. Plato
41. Oliver Cromwell
42. Alexander Graham Bell
43. Alexander Fleming
44. John Locke
45. Ludwig van Beethoven
46. Werner Heisenberg
47. Louis Daguerre
48. Simón Bolívar
49. René Descartes
50. Michelangelo
51. Pope Urban II
52. Umar ibn al-Khattab
53. Asoka
54. St. Augustine
55. William Harvey
56. Ernest Rutherford
57. John Calvin
58. Gregor Mendel

59. Max Planck
60. Joseph Lister
61. Nikolaus August Otto
62. Francisco Pizarro
63. Hernando Cortés
64. Thomas Jefferson
65. Queen Isabella I
66. Joseph Stalin
67. Julius Caesar
68. William the Conqueror
69. Sigmund Freud
70. Edward Jenner
71. William Conrad Röntgen
72. Johann Sebastian Bach
73. Lao Tzu
74. Voltaire
75. Johannes Kepler
76. Enrico Fermi
77. Leonhard Euler
78. Jean-Jacques Rousseau
79. Niccolò Machiavelli
80. Thomas Malthus
81. John F. Kennedy
82. Gregory Pincus
83. Mani
84. Lenin
85. Sui Wen Ti
86. Vasco da Gama
87. Cyrus the Great
88. Peter the Great
89. Mao Zedong
90. Francis Bacon
91. Henry Ford
92. Mencius
93. Zoroaster
94. Queen Elizabeth I
95. Mikhail Gorbachev
96. Menes
97. Charlemagne
98. Homer
99. Justinian I
100. Mahavira

THE ROLE OF JOURNAL WRITING
IN TEACHING WOMEN'S HISTORY

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Introduction

As part of a new General Education Core Curriculum at Shenandoah University, the history department took advantage of the opportunity to propose innovative, freshman-level seminar classes with low enrollments. Recently our university had also established a Women's Studies Program geared toward undergraduate minors, so I proposed to teach a course on women's history through the General Education core to expose newer students to this subject. After three semesters teaching this course, I discovered that a journal-writing requirement is an ideal pedagogical tool for acclimating new students to college-level work, a vital method for exploring women's history and gender studies, and a promising way to gain direct and evaluative feedback from my classes. By creating and sustaining a critical and reactive journal throughout the semester, students can construct a space where they can learn how to "test the waters" academically: They can create sophisticated and informed arguments and ruminate on the role of gender in their own lives as well as in history. The private space of the journal can be an ideal site in which to begin critical exploration—the type that will serve them well throughout their college years.

The Course

"History 111: Women's History" covered the period from 1600 to the present. I used Sara Evans's *Born for Liberty* (New York: Free Press, 1989) as the primary text, and I supplemented lectures by using Jacqueline Jones's *Labor of Love, Labor of Sorrow: Black Women, Work and the Family from Slavery to the Present* (New York: Vintage Press, 1985).[1] Both books were appropriate for this introductory, freshman-level course. Evans provocatively relies on a "private" and "public" sphere model for studying women's history; she explores how women have largely been confined to the "private" or domestic realm and how, over time, they have struggled to create and define their place in the "public" sphere. Importantly, the dividing line between the two spheres has been and continues to be both rigid and permeable.

I used this model to build a pedagogical tool, one that my students returned to both in class discussions and in their journals. At the beginning of the semester, I drew a simple chart with "Private" on one side and "Public" on the other with a solid line

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[1] I have not assigned the Jones book to students yet, but I will add it as a required text next fall. As a public historian as well, I assigned *Her Past Around Us: Interpreting Sites for Women's History* (Malabar, FL: Krieger, 2003) by Polly Welts Kaufman and Katharine T. Corbett. The essays in this edited volume cover historic sites devoted to women and methodologies for future interpretation on the American landscape. My students responded positively to this book, especially the cutting-edge concepts of looking at cultural landscapes as gendered spaces.

dividing the two. As we read each chapter of the Evans book, we would end the class trying to determine whether the solid line could become dotted, or concluding whether or not women made gains in civic, public life, and when they were forced back into the private sphere.

For their semester-long assignment that culminated in a final project, I decided to have each of my students research a local woman and use their work to design and place historical markers on sites associated with these historical figures. I hope that their work will also contribute to a women's history walking trail in the future. I also required my students to write about these projects in their journals.

Journal Assignments and Expectations

I had the students keep a handwritten journal in any format that they preferred (e.g. binder, wire-bound notebook, and so forth). They handed in their journals every two weeks, and I required that they write two pages (back and front or four sides) per two-week period. A perfect journal grade for the period was five points, for a total of 35 points (out of a possible 100) for the semester. Thus, a consistently comprehensive and insightful journal was a significant part of their grade.

The most important requirement, I told the students, was to *analyze* the readings and class discussions and not write purely reactive entries, although this type of response was certainly appropriate in moderation. As the ability to create a critical analysis is easier said than done, I had students begin at least one sentence per entry with "I argue that ...." This forced the students to begin to at least attempt an original argument. For example, when we discussed Republican Motherhood—a term describing an American Revolutionary-era materialism that assured upper-class white women that they could fulfill their civic responsibilities by becoming self-sacrificing mothers who would educate their children—particularly their sons—one student tried to determine the reason for the invention of the term:

> I argue that the concept of Republican Motherhood was only created to
> distract women and keep them from fighting for their role in the political
> arena. I believe that men realized women could use their new-found
> political knowledge to step into the political arena and were threatened by
> this.

This is a sophisticated response to learning about gender issues in Revolutionary-Era America, the contested division between the private and public spheres in women's history, and theories of patriarchal power, and it revealed a promising critical argument.

Another student used her journal on several occasions to discuss historical themes and then tie them to her present situation as a woman living in a patriarchal society. She wrote of Republican Motherhood:

How many women felt qualified to discuss/argue politics with other men in coffee houses, public meeting houses, considering the lack of education, subservient level in society of the slave/poorer classes of women, and the masculine, Revolutionary notion of the dutiful, yet unseen paragon of Republican Womanhood? Hmpf, men ... we've all been there. But really, as a woman now, I sometimes get the same treatment from relatives, co-workers, even professors—all men—in a much less fervent degree of course ...

This type of response was fairly common among my female students, and I did not discourage them from including these types of emotions in their journals. "Venting" *is* appropriate not just because it might have helped students release frustrations about gender inequality where they might not have another outlet, but it also helped my students make connections with women of the past. I responded to my students' empathy by asking them to suggest something that women in the past could have done in the face of prejudice and exclusion. I then encouraged them to consider what can be done in the present, in their own lives, and in the future. What were the societal limitations then, and what are they now? Who creates them and why? And, how can one respond to them?

When we covered the women's suffrage movement of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, many of my students started to understand more fully the inherent contradictions of women's "places" in society.[2] Discussions of Jane Addams, founder of Chicago's Hull House (established in 1889) and one of the individuals responsible for laying the groundwork for modern-day social work, elicited profound interest and pride. But, at the same time, we discovered that her work—along with that of other settlement house workers and Progressive-era advocates pushing for child labor and working-women reform—fit into a private sphere definition. So although women were making gains in very public spaces (as Addams's story makes clear), they were not really advancing their cause when they took on a "maternal" role in the "public" sphere. One student wrote:

I argue that women were not considered to be smart enough to vote, but were smart enough to be the moral fibers of society. Why would you put someone in charge of society's morality that was not smart? This whole thought is such a contradiction to me.

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[2] I also showed the class the film *Iron-Jawed Angels* (Home Box Office, 2004). Although critics did not receive this movie favorably, my students enjoyed the visual introduction to this period. The film recreates excellently Alice Paul's brutal and shocking treatment at the Occoquan Workhouse of Virginia in 1917.

American society's measure that women's intelligence was based on their roles as mothers rather than as active citizens and that public life was not considered a morally acceptable place for women are difficult concepts to grapple with, but I decided to record them in a journal of my own to help stimulate discussions on this topic and many others during class. Another student wrote:

> … while women like Jane Addams were doing in the public sphere, they were still marginalized and social work was still seen as women's work. Were women like Jane Addams necessarily trying to get into the public sphere, or did it just happen because they were in a public line of work trying to help people?

As my students continued to address these essential and insightful questions, I assured them in my journal comments that they were on the road to creating sound and provocative arguments. Questioning the unequal treatment of women sometimes led to genuine anger in both the journals and the classroom, so I encouraged students to transform their negative responses into persuasive, critical arguments—that anger was okay and that it could lead to strong opinions and nuanced interpretations of women's history.

The requirement that the journals had to contain "I argue that …" phrases served an additional role: It provided practice for creating arguments in the students' other written work. In their first assignment, a three-page paper in which students had to locate a primary source focused on a specific period in women's history and create an original argument based on it, students again had to begin their papers with this phrase. The majority of my students did not create arguments successfully in their first drafts (they all had the opportunity to revise their papers), but I believe that the reiteration of the phrase at least encourages students to think in terms of deriving critical thought from their own minds and not relying on secondary sources. One student wrote a fascinating paper using her knowledge of runaway slave advertisements and colonial women's history to argue that "… although white women in the eighteenth century did not form close bonds with their children, African American [enslaved] women formed bonds that were much similar to that of white women in the nineteenth century and beyond." She provocatively used her sources to support this sophisticated and controversial argument based on ideas she had expressed in her journal entries.

I also wanted my students to become aware of and appreciate the contributions of women to American history and to our local community and to see examples of their accomplishments in the face of marginalization and discrimination. As I read the journals and sensed negative emotions, I wanted to make sure that I concentrated on more *positive* aspects of women's history. I decided to take my students to our local Montessori school for a first-hand visit to an institution influenced by the late nineteenth-century Italian educator, Maria Montessori. My students were able to interact with an elementary class to grasp and appreciate Maria Montessori's

progressive ideal of a sensory-driven, experiential form of learning and her lasting pedagogical influence. One student wrote of the experience:

> It was the most awesome experience to me. I had previously learned about Maria Montessori's techniques, but I had never seen them in action. Maria's techniques have made me totally re-examine my ideas on learning. It is so fascinating to me that she could develop this wonderful system on her own. It makes me feel so empowered as a woman.

All of the students responded favorably to this visit, and they appreciated the opportunity to be off campus, even just for one class period. I enjoyed the fact that my students were not only learning about a prominent woman in history and her legacy, but about our local community as well. The students viewed theory in action and, as the above comment demonstrates, saw role models whom they could emulate.

Evans's "private" and "public" sphere model continued to influence our class sessions and the students' journals well into our study of the twentieth century, and especially in our discussions of women factory workers during World War II. Students viewed an excellent documentary, *The Life and Times of Rosie the Riveter* (Direct Cinema Limited, 1980), showing the war-era promotional films designed to draw women into the world of factory work and telling the real-life stories of ethnically diverse women who worked as "Rosies." Students saw how the private sphere was "used" to draw women into their patriotic duty—to work for the war effort through domesticity. A student observed:

> Instead of cutting the lines of a dress, this woman cuts the pattern of aircraft parts ... this type of propaganda stressed the private sphere's daily duties, cooking, cleaning, etc. I cannot figure out whether the press thought they were "glorifying" women's work and therefore showing its importance or simply using the analogies as a tool, playing off the cultural norms of women. However, even if the press were glorifying the activities, it does not bring more power to women. I argue that by "glorifying" they simply bring to attention the fact that women weren't receiving the respect and attention they deserved for the activities that should already have been deemed as important.

The film to which my student is referring shows a lovely woman in a dress cutting fabric to make another dress and then switches to the same woman in overalls cutting metal to create an airplane, demonstrating how the work in a factory was really not that much of a stretch for women since they already had learned the necessary skills from their domestic duties. My student argued, quite provocatively, that previously undervalued work—domestic work—had became valuable (and easy to learn how to do) because it contributed to winning the war, but the presence of women in factories

did not guarantee them any degree of "power." These films, as my students commented, reinforced a different vision of Republican Motherhood—a civic responsibility centered this time not so much on education of the young, but still in a self-sacrificing, patriotic pose focused on the domestic sphere. This historical episode as well as those that followed in the semester kept motivating my students to wonder in their journals: How much has the history of women progressed even today, and why have they been denied equal degrees of "power" in American society?

Conclusions

The more personal entries from my students ranged from outright anger at the lack of women's history in textbooks and in college courses to questions of their own futures as women and possibly mothers. As we pursued our discussion of women breaking through their prescribed roles in the private sphere into the public sphere throughout American history, some students questioned women's dissatisfaction with the private sphere, and wanted to know whether some women weren't happy to fulfill maternal, domestic roles. I realized that as a professor, I was perhaps looking at women's history too narrowly, that maybe I saw it as a unidirectional struggle for recognition and rights, a one-track journey for inclusion into public life and equality, and not, as it turns out, how all of my students were interpreting it. I was forced to respond to entries such as this one:

I want to be the ideal housewife and be able to do all of the domestic things like cooking, cleaning, and laundry, and do them well. Does that make me outdated? Does that hurt the evolution of the freedoms of women? I also want to have a career and earn my own wages so that I am not completely dependent on my husband.

This response forced me to realize that the journals were also creating private spaces for the students to respond to me directly, usually with constructive criticism. Hence, the journal-writing assignment helped me as a professor to expand my own definitions of feminism and to better embrace the diversity of the dreams and decisions of my historical sisters and my students. I had tried to welcome all opinions in my class and to avoid tendentiousness, but the journals' prompt feedback (as opposed to evaluations completed on the last day of class) helped me become more aware and sensitive of my students' perceptions of the content of my lectures. I also appreciated that the journals gave my students forums to discuss issues such as this one that they perhaps would not have been comfortable discussing in class or in my office.

In the three times I have taught this course, approximately ninety percent of the students have been women, creating an open forum for discussion of gender issues and providing, I believe, an extension of a "comfortable," more private atmosphere that was available in their journals. But our classroom setting also benefitted my male students. I observed and was told by some of the men in the classes that they appreciated and

unexpectedly learned a lot from the course. One male student told me, for example, that since he was en route to becoming a very successful CEO of a company in his future, he now knew that he needed to more fully incorporate women's lives into his ambitions. He said he became more sensitive to issues working women face, including flexible work schedules and child-care needs. He and a few other male students also wrote on their evaluations, in emotional terms, that they understood better and appreciated more fully the experiences of their mothers, both professionally and personally.

The only negative student comments I received revolved around the course's workload; students suggested that having to do research outside of the university's geographical boundaries was difficult. Among the many favorable comments on written evaluations were gratitude for having been exposed to women's history, the need for further gender equality, and the hopes that they, like women (and men) in the past, can become facilitators of social change in their own lives, their communities, and maybe even nationally and globally.

In conclusion, the history of women's journal writing is a vital segment of American history. Diaries and journals are valuable and credible as sources of the experiences of women over time and are essential historiographical records. The private space of the journal was often the only place women could turn as they struggled with rigid gender-role differentiation and exclusion from the public sphere. As such, it allowed for an inward, psychological examination that helped them cope with everyday life. In my classroom, journals can serve the same purposes as well as provide spaces where students can become critical thinkers and writers as they explore the roles of women in the past and their own roles in the present and future.

USING WARGAMES IN THE CLASSROOM
TO TEACH HISTORICAL THOUGHT

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The brigade moved stealthily along the trees preparing to enter the broad span of pastoral fields that separated them from two entire corps of Union infantry. There was not too much to see as the artillery barrage had left the field almost entirely enveloped in a shroud of smoke. Yet, as occasional puffs of wind blew columns of haze so that a brief glimpse of the opposing ridge could be seen, the commanders were having second thoughts. The Confederate commander expressed her opinion: "Perhaps General Longstreet was correct and we would have been better off attacking around their left flank. Move the army towards Little Round Top as we did on the 2nd and let's try our luck there." Thus, the Battle of Gettysburg changed entirely on that fateful day in March 2006.

As you read this brief account, you probably started to develop an image based on the little information I provided. You might have had some inkling even that the battle being described was the Battle of Gettysburg during the American Civil War. Your thoughts, however, probably began to falter as you saw "her opinion" and the reference to a call by James Longstreet to go around the flank of the Union Army. While the battle students "fought" in my classroom had a much different outcome than the historical event of July 1863, the students were engaged actively in understanding history. This activity required students to fully develop an interpretation of what actually happened before they could embrace a separate and alternative history. The end result was an encounter with primary and secondary sources, an understanding of historical process, and an activity in which students freely explored the discipline of historical thought. Yet throughout the activity students thought they were merely exploring a game to celebrate the successful completion of their unit on the American Civil War.

This essay describes an idea for an interesting teaching strategy for history classrooms. I will provide a brief overview of the history of the wargame, specifically its original developments and also its introduction into civilian life. Next, I will add the idea of historical thought, particularly the idea of historical imagination as proposed by British philosopher R.G. Collingwood. The implications of Collingwood's ideas will then be applied to historical gaming. Finally, I will illustrate how this strategy can be implemented in classrooms and how it can be intertwined with historical thinking.

Before starting down this path, however, a few points need to be provided as disclaimers of information. First, I do not intend to make light of the serious subject of war. As John Keegan has affirmed, it is impossible to describe fully what the individual

soldier would experience during war unless you have been there.[1] While many students who might participate in this activity, primarily adolescent boys and young men, think that the war is "cool" or akin to some glorified Hollywood movie, by the end of the activity many of these emotions have been mollified by the understanding that their losses in reality would have been a tragic number of men. In essence, the activity provides students with the opportunity to grasp how horrible war is. The efforts of this strategy have the benefit of putting a face on the battle, much as Keegan's work did.

Second, this strategy could be implemented in classrooms where instructors promote historical thought and method at almost any academic level, from middle school through high school to college level.[2] Finally, this article is the result of an action research study that I conducted in an eighth-grade classroom of two sections at a rural Midwestern school. The two sections each contained twenty students with a homogenous ethnic composition. I believe that this had a minimal impact upon the general nature of this research, knowing that there are problems unique to the use of this strategy with any student population. Overall I wish to present the strategy as one tool a teacher can use in the classroom to explore the teaching of historical method.

The History of the Wargame

Nobility has treated war as a game since the sixth-century CE innovation of "Shaturanga" in India.[3] In Europe, the wargame developed along with the game of chess. The Scandinavians had a game called "King's Table" that recalled the battles

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[1]John Keegan, *The Face of Battle* (New York: Viking Press, 1976). This is an important work that explores what the common soldier would have experienced at three different battles in history: Agincourt, Waterloo, and the Somme.

[2]Some of the current research on the topic of historical thought in lower grade levels comes from Bruce VanSledright of the University of Maryland, Keith Barton of Northern Kentucky University, and Jere Brophy of Michigan State University. Collectively, these authors have had success with different elements of teaching history to young individuals, but all indicate that there will be tradeoffs in teaching historical method to these students. See Bruce VanSledright, *In Search of America's Past: Learning How to Read History in Elementary School* (New York: Teacher's College Press, 2002); Bruce Barton, "'I Just Kinda Know': Elementary Students' Ideas About Historical Evidence," *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 25 (Fall 1997), 407–430; Bruce Barton, "'Bossed Around by the Queen': Elementary Students' Understanding of Individuals and Institutions in History," *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision*, 12 (Summer 1997), 290–314; and Jere Brophy and Bruce VanSledright, *Teaching and Learning History in Elementary Schools* (New York: Teacher's College Press, 1997).

[3]See "The Chess Page," http://www.stmoroky.com/games/chess/chess.htm#shaturanga. Some people contend the early form of "Go" can be traced back to the late twenty-third century BCE.

between the Muscovites and the Swedes.[4] Chess was also used as a game to help reinforce basic thinking and critical thinking in war for the European nobility. Eventually one of the variants of chess, "War Chess," inspired a Prussian war counselor to create a new game in 1811 to help teach his son the finer points of war.[5] This game, "Kriegspiel," broke from the traditional chessboard and accepted European chess rules. "Kriegspiel" was played on a large table covered in sand with representative pieces of terrain laid on top. Wooden blocks represented the different parts of a general's army. Counselor Baron von Reisswitz created a set of complex tables to control movement, the imposition of casualties, and other factors. To allow for the unpredictability of the battlefield, a die was used to account for attrition and other random events.[6] The mechanics of the game relied on a referee to adjudicate the game. The players sent their orders to a referee and after consulting the field and the tables, and making any necessary die rolls, the referee informed each side of information only the participants of the battle would know about on the field. The field would be adjusted for the next set of orders and the game continued. Herr von Reisswitz created not only a practical military learning aid, but also broke new ground in game mechanics as well. Reisswitz hoped the game proved useful to his son whom the game was originally intended to teach about the ways of war.[7]

Reisswitz's son utilized his father's game as a way to help train his fellow officers in war as many of them lacked experience. To add realism to the experience, the table of sand was substituted with an accurate map. Upon seeing the game, the Prussian Chief of Staff, General Karl von Muffling, was amazed at its potential for instruction and exclaimed: "It's not a game at all, it's training for war. I shall recommend it enthusiastically to the whole army."[8] The Prussian Officer Corps held a fascination with wargaming and pondered the pressing military questions of their

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[4]For more on "King's Table," see "King's Table: Game of the Noble Scandinavians," http://www.pbm.com/~lindahl/articles/kings_table.html.

[5]Frank Brewster, II., "Using Tactical Decision Exercises to Study Tactics," *Military Review* (Nov./Dec. 2002), on-line edition, http://www.au.af.mil/au/awc/awcgate/milreview/brewster.pdf.

[6]Ibid.

[7]Ibid. Reisswitz's son eventually became a Prussian artillery officer. Additionally, Matthew Caffrey noted well that many historians do not credit the invention of "Kriegspiel" to Reisswitz since he only intended the game to teach his son. Matthew B. Caffrey, "A History Based Theory of Wargaming," http://www.galaxy.gmu.edu/ACAS/ACAS00-02/CaffreyMatthew/CaffreyMatthew.pdf.

[8]Caffrey.

recent experiences, specifically how Napoleon defeated the Prussian Army even though the Prussians held numerous advantages over their French enemy.[9]

The visionary foresight of General Hellmuth von Moltke changed the purpose of the wargame from a teaching tool to a theoretical laboratory and a curriculum component of the Prussian War College. Moltke analyzed the potential invasion corridors of enemies and the Prussian army's probable path of invasion into other countries. After having initially studied the theories and visited the site in question, the War College students proposed numerous plans of invasion and theories as to how the "next war" would be fought. The Prussian officers then played wargames on maps designed to bring out the best battle plans from the student body of the War College.

The results of the game were checked for validity and then kept as a manual to fight the next war.[10] The Prussian War Game evolved to include components often used in today's games such as break points or to help determine when a unit would quit fighting in a real war situation. By the end of World War II, Germany had accounted for logistics, Fifth Column fighters, and even industrial capabilities of countries. The innovations created by the Germans led to adoption of the wargame by virtually every industrialized nation's armies by the start of the twentieth century.[11]

While most of the armies played wargames to prepare for the next conflict their state would face, some civilians began to play wargames as a pastime, especially in England. The great science fiction writer, H.G. Wells, deserves credit for the rise in the popularity of the wargame with the publication of a book called *Little Wars*.[12] When compared to the professional wargames of the twentieth century, *Little Wars* tended to be a crude version of a game, but the game provided the first innovation in wargames for a commercial market. It was a playable set of rules for people without military experience as it used small metal soldiers, which represented the units on the

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[9]Michael Kernan, "Outsmarting Napoleon," *Smithsonian Magazine* (September 1999), on-line edition, http://smithsonianmag.com/issues/1999/september/mall_sep99.php.

[10]Brewster. After having executed a particular phase of a plan in a wargame, Moltke would review the plan and then decide if it was feasible. If the plans were appropriate, Moltke would then have the primary units involved in the plan execute their assigned maneuvers to ensure what was being asked of the soldiers could actually be done. It arguably led to an ultimate war machine as Prussia met virtually every challenge under Moltke's leadership for over fifty years.

[11]Officers of the United States Army utilized a game called "Strategos." C. Totten, *Strategos: The American Game of War* (New York: Appleton and Company, 1880). This classic of American military thought was available from Kansas State University's Hale Library.

[12]Kernan, "Outsmarting Napoleon."

battlefield.[13] Wells's game originated from games played during his childhood that have been played by children throughout history. Wells and his friends used small toy soldiers and a child's play gun that fired a small projectile to play various games. As he became a bit older, Wells proposed that "if one set up a few obstacles on the floor, volumes of the *British Encyclopedia* and so forth, to make a Country, and moved these soldiers and guns about, one could have a rather good game, a kind of Kriegspiel."[14]

While not the type of wargame the armies of Europe used, *Little Wars* offered a published set of rules to the world. For the first time, civilians could play a structured wargame that addressed movement of the various branches of armies, helped them calculate casualties, and—possibly the most important element of homemade wargames—helped them set up the two forces.[15] This game started a new movement, the playing of wargames for recreation. It had been a diversion for aristocrats of Europe; now ordinary people could recreate wars in their homes sparking a gaming revolution that would grow as an industry throughout the twentieth century, celebrating in particular the wars of Napoleon, the American Civil War, and World War II. Hobbyists became amateur historians and they took their passion seriously.[16] Perhaps, the true value (and attraction) of the wargame can be summed up best in the words of H.G. Wells: "How much better is this amiable miniature than the real thing."[17]

Construction as a Means of Interpretation

Using miniatures in the classroom is designed to develop and spark understanding of the nature of historical thought for novice thinkers, such as intermediate, middle, secondary, and lower-level college students. As a way of promoting understanding, Lynn Speer-Lemisko has theorized using the ideas of R.G. Collingwood in the classroom, particularly the use of the historical imagination as a means of helping students construct historical knowledge. In this method, the teacher would have

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[13]Jim Dunningan, "History of Wargames," http://www.hyw.com/Books/WargamesHandbook/5-histor.htm.

[14]H.G. Wells, *Little Wars: A game for boys from twelve years of age to one hundred and fifty & for that more intelligent sort of girl who likes boys' games and books: with an appendix on Kriegspiel* (London: Arms and Armor Press, 1970). Note: this edition is a facsimile of the original 1913 edition.

[15]Ibid.

[16]For a description of the evolution of wargaming in the latter half of the twentieth century, see P. Young and J.P. Lawford, *Charge! How to Play War Games* (London: Morgan-Grampian, 1967), D.F. Featherstone, *Advanced War Games* (London: Stanley Paul, 1969), and C.F. Wessencraft, *Practical Wargaming* (New York: Hippocrene Books, 1974).

[17]Wilbur Gray, "A Short History of the Wargame," http://nhmgs.org/articles/historyofwargaming.html.

students utilize three main aspects of Collingwood's understanding of the historical imagination: re-enactment, interpolation, and interrogating.[18] In addition to Speer-Lemisko's idea of utilizing the historical imagination, Collingwood suggested several particulars of what historians do and how they construct knowledge: source analysis and the understanding that everyone is an historian.[19] With these assumptions, the strategy of the wargame is useful to help students understand how historians can develop accounts that are accurate about what actually happened.[20]

Re-enactment is how researchers of history think themselves into the historical situation in order to understand and properly imagine past human activity and thought. This process involves immersing the student of history deeply into the sources available. By thinking about historical events from the perspective of the subjects, it might be possible for the historian to come to conclusions similar to those of the historical figure. Collingwood stressed that re-enactment can be achieved as "far as the historian brings to bear on the problem all the powers of his own mind and all his knowledge."[21] The wargame offers students the opportunity to visit an accurate model of how wars were fought in history, thus giving possible insight to emotions, the human activity of war, and might pose higher level questions such as why individuals would risk so much to fight in a particular war.

Interpolation refers to the process of deciphering what the sources provide the historian. This might be a difficult task as the sources might not say specifically what the author of the source meant.[22] In addition to clarifying what sources say, interpolating refers to the filling of gaps. Interpolating also helps promote the historical imagination, as the historian must use imagination to fill the gaps. As Collingwood noted, not only is this desirable by the historians to help construct a more accurate picture, it is required if history is to be recorded or the study completed.[23]

The critical thinking involved in evaluating sources composes the interrogating of sources. According to Collingwood, to accept sources at face value is a grievous error. Not only does the failure of interrogation prevent the appropriate connection

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[18]L. Speer-Lemisko, "The Historical Imagination: Collingwood in the Classroom," *Canadian Social Studies*, 38 (Winter 2004), online edition,
http://www.quasar.ualberta.ca/css/Css_38_2/ARhistorical_imagination_collingwood.htm.

[19]R.G. Collingwood, *The Idea of History*, Jan van der Dussen, ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1946).

[20]Speer-Lemisko.

[21]Collingwood, 215.

[22]Speer-Lemisko.

[23]Collingwood, 241.

between sources, but also it might provide a false sense of the story. A source taken out of context could skew a story in the wrong direction and result in an inaccurate version of the imaged story. Interrogation is a critical component of Collingwood's source analysis and provides further understanding into the world of the historian: The interpretation of sources, then, is the formal element of history, counterbalancing the material element that is the source itself. Without these two elements, there is no history. And whereas the sources themselves have to be found, collected, and assembled by the historian as data that limit the field of his activity, the work of interpreting proceeds according to principles that he creates out of nothing for himself; he does not find them ready-made but has to decide upon them by an act of something like legislation. The "receptivity" of the historian towards his sources is counterbalanced by his "spontaneity" in respect of the principles by which he interprets them.[24] At its heart this formal element of history is accessible to everyone.

Collingwood argued that history is the attempt to understand the present by analyzing the past and predicting how it might be useful in the future. History is similar to problem solving and can be considered one of the most significant modes of thought and in general is common to all. While this example does not necessarily promote the use of the wargame, it is important to keep in mind that any time historical thought is in use, an individual understands further how to solve problems. These problems not only reflect on finding and using information, interpreting sources, and presenting information, but every time a student looks back on how someone has completed something, it requires an individual to look at how a similar problem might have been solved. In the words of Collingwood, "everyone is an historian."[25]

The Wargame and Historical Thought

With the considerations regarding the nature of historical interpretation in mind, a connection between the historical imagination and the wargame can become a natural strategy for use in the classroom. The question becomes what role this strategy should play in instruction. In considering this role, one should understand that this strategy takes a considerable amount of time and resources to implement successfully in class. This limits its wide-scale implementation on a regular basis in most classrooms. The three roles identified as meaningful uses of the strategy are celebratory, exploratory, and historiographical.

The celebratory aspect of the strategy would be useful to provide closure to a unit, allow for enrichment for those interested in the subject matter covered in the unit, and provide a reward system for effort and work during the unit. This aspect provides a worthwhile academic reward as opposed to a celebration not related to subject matter.

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[24]Collingwood, 368–369.

[25]Collingwood, 422.

In a similar vein, the exploratory element of the wargame strategy allows students to make initial forays into a unit or subject matter that would serve as a wonderful motivating set for kinesthetic and active learners, which accurately describes many students. In addition, the exploratory viewpoint would be useful for students who desire to go more in-depth in studying an historical event or time period.[26]   The historiographical aspect of the strategy involves the teaching of historical thought and method. As noted earlier, VanSledright, Brophy, and Barton have all produced valid arguments for elementary-level students and older to be involved in historical thought.

The game provides the student with a viable framework to begin the imagination process. By allowing students to explore uniforms, rules, and scenarios of a particular period, the student can place events in context. An example from the annual American Civil War battle fought in my eighth-grade American history course illustrates this point. The rules award a bonus when the Confederates charge in a battle prior to 1864 and another bonus for the firing of any Union unit. These bonuses are based on historical evidence citing a better Confederate esprit de corps and also better Union technology. By comparing historical sources with these rules, a realistic picture can be developed by students studying history. Additionally, students can analyze different types of sources. Whether it is a report from the *Official Records of the American Civil War* or a biography of a soldier of the war, students now must use the skills of historical imagination to establish a firm foundation for understanding.

Implementing the Wargame in the Classroom

Teachers need to acquire several items to implement the game successfully and should be prepared for some financial commitment and a greater time commitment. It is important for teachers to explore exactly what periods would be worthy of study and how to complete the activity in the classroom. Teachers need the following components as a minimum to get started: large tables or a sheet of plywood, a set of rules to guide gameplay, and either miniatures or paper soldiers to manipulate on the board. Beyond these basic requirements, other items add to the aesthetic effect of the experience.

A playing surface about the size of a piece of plywood allows students to recreate almost any battle from history pending the rules set used. I use a piece of plywood reinforced on two desks. Originally the plywood was covered in a green blanket that subsequently has been replaced with a green thick paper sheet intended for use in railroad dioramas. A simple board painted green could be used as well. The key element is to have a sizable table for students to gather around as well as play the game.

Rules can be acquired from different places. On the Internet, a simple set of rules can be found by searching for "free wargame rules" on a search engine. This will

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[26]Matt Fritz, http://www.juniorgeneral.org. Fritz's website is especially useful for novices in wargaming. In addition to wonderful introductory materials, Fritz has free downloads to help someone get started with basic wargaming.

provide several different choices based on time period and the type of game to be played, whether a recreation of a small scale battle or a grand tactical battle such as a corps-level re-enactment of Gettysburg. If desired, teachers can acquire a commercial set of rules to fight a battle. Several sets of commercial rules also provide further instruction in how to set up terrain, paint miniatures, and improve games, both in terms of realism and aesthetics. While searching on the Internet for sources to consult, a simple request of information from an established gamer should elicit a good amount of assistance and some great advice to help a teacher set up a game in class. Furthermore teachers who have access to a hobby store would be well worth the time to visit for ideas.[27]

Finally, a gamer will need to decide what pieces to use. A teacher just starting out might want to consult the Internet to locate paper soldiers that can be printed out for free, plastic miniatures that can be purchased rather cheaply, or pewter miniatures that are probably the longest lasting and most aesthetically pleasing to use. Paper miniatures are the cheapest and offer the least amount of time preparation. However, the issue of durability might cause teachers to consider having to redo these each year. Plastic miniatures have a small cost, but they also will require some painting and maintenance to last for an extended time. My preference is pewter miniatures. These pieces create the finest look on the table, have a rather durable quality to them, and give a remarkable level of realism for the student looking over the board.[28]

Conclusion

In this article, I have detailed a brief history of the wargame, discussed historical thought processes, described a rationale for how the wargame can be used in relation to historical thinking, and offered a brief explanation of what teachers would need to do to incorporate the wargame into their classrooms. The idea is relatively in its infancy and further research should be done to find ways to promote historical thought in the students. Presently, there is a call among historians to promote the teaching of history in an applied manner rather than through the recitation of facts. This call should not go unheeded as much more can be done to promote history among our students. The net result of this strategy is promotion of student thought and interest in history. If completed successfully, the classroom lives up to the promise of being a laboratory of history.

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[27]For my American Civil War game, I use a commercial set of rules: "Fire and Fury." This is the leading large-scale miniature rules for that period. For other periods, I have found free rules on the Internet and have had a great amount of success using them.

[28]I get Civil War miniatures from Stone Mountain Miniatures in Brighton, CO, http://www.historicalminiatures.com. For other periods, since I do not regularly game those periods on my own, I use either plastic for my annual Middle Ages game or paper for spontaneous gaming at school. One key to choosing successfully is to network with other gamers.

INTEGRATING BASIC RESEARCH
INTO THE U.S. HISTORY SURVEY

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At my institution, like most others, we use the American survey both to refresh our students' knowledge of United States history and to hone their basic research, writing, and analytical skills. Until recently I, like most of my colleagues, used the traditional ten-to-fifteen page research paper to teach and test these skills. The paper worked very well as a way to produce a finished project, but I found it much less useful as a method of teaching students to think about research as a process. To help fill this gap, I developed a series of exercises that have proven effective as stand-alone assignments or when combined with a formal research paper. When I used the research paper alone, fewer than five percent of students indicated that the course helped them develop their research skills. Since I began using exercises such as those described below, roughly thirty percent of students list improved research skills as one of the strengths of the class. From a student's perspective the two main strengths of these assignments are repetition and the focus on research as a process. Students consistently indicate that they learn more from several short assignments than from one major paper. Additionally, students appreciate that these assignments combine group demonstration, individual hands-on experience, and class discussion. From my perspective as a teacher, these assignments are a simple, fast, and effective way to integrate research into the survey in a way that complements content.[1]

When developing these exercises, I deliberately focused on electronic resources since they are the most efficient and popular types of research tools available to our students. They are also the only tool the majority of our students use. Despite the fact that most students rely on electronic resources, few have any formal instruction in their use. As a result, their search techniques tend to be haphazard and their results incomplete. Since the Internet became an effective research tool in the mid-1990s, historians too often have abdicated responsibility for introducing students to basic techniques and sources either by claiming some variation of "students today grew up with this and know it better than I do" or by denying the importance of electronic resources. Neither excuse holds up. While some students might be effective researchers, most are not. Insofar as they are successful, most students succeed primarily because the volume of available data is so great that even a poor search will generally locate an adequate amount of information. Since the late 1990s the amount of new information continues to be converted into more accessible forms. In 2002, for

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[1]For a more complete description of our general education program goals see: http://www.missouristate.edu/ucollege/General%20Education/FacSenGoals.htm. Our student evaluations ask only about strengths of the course without specific mention of research or other skills, so I assume the number of students who gain from these assignments is actually significantly higher.

example, the equivalent of about 5.4 billion gigabytes of new information was stored on disk, film, or paper. If all this information were converted to paper, it would equal roughly 37,000 times the entire book holdings of the Library of Congress. This flood of information has fundamentally changed the way historians conduct research. Secondary searches have become far faster and more comprehensive than was possible a decade ago and in most areas primary materials are far more available, and, with full text searching, historians today can search many collections more easily and thoroughly than the original users. In order to be effective researchers, we need to be familiar with these resources. In order to be effective teachers we need to help students develop a few simple principles and techniques they can use to sort and sift this vast sea of information.[2]

The Assignments

The following exercises are intended for use in a course on the history of the United States since 1877. I created these brief assignments to provide a basic introduction to the most generally useful basic finding aids and sources in U.S. history. Although these assignments can stand alone, they were also designed to meet the requirements of our general education program. As part of their general education, students at Missouri State University receive a brief introduction to the research techniques appropriate to a variety of disciplines. Departments with courses selected for inclusion into our general education program must demonstrate how the course meets the goals of general education and how it fits with similar courses in the program. The changes this required to any individual course were usually minor, but the cumulative impact for the student has been significant.[3]

Research Assignment One

1. Indicate the total number of books and magazines found on both "Making of America" (MOA—a periodicals database) websites when using the following search

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[2]Anick Jesdanun, "Online Research Worries Many Educators," BizReport.com,
http://www.bizreport.com/news/8468/. Also published as "Searching for Truth on the Web," the fourth in a five-part series written for the Associated Press on the impact of the Internet on young Americans and published in a number of newspapers. The series is available online at
http://msnbc.msn.com/id/6645963/. For a brief but interesting look at how one Australian university is adjusting to the online world, see Sue Bushell, "Always Online Generation Presents New Challenges," CIO: Australia's Magazine for Information Executives, http://www.cio.com/qu/index.pho, March 15, 2005. Peter Lyman and Hal R. Varian, "How Much Information, 2003?" (School of Information Management and Systems, University of California, Berkley)
http://www.sims.berkeley.edu/research/projects/how-much-info-2003/; James A. Dewar, "The Information Age and the Printing Press: Looking Backward to See Ahead," Rand Corporation on-line publication http://www.rand.org/publications/P/P8014/.

[3]http://www.missouristate.edu/ucollege/General%20Education/FacSenGoals.htm#A.

terms. You can locate the MOA sites most easily through a Google search. (Note to readers: answers [from early 2005] are in brackets.)

_____ Tomato canneries [0]

_____ Cannery [27]

_____ Canned tomatoes [24]

2. Indicate the number of hits from the American Memory section of the Library of Congress website for the following terms.

_____ Tomato canneries [3]

_____ Cannery [188]

_____ Canned Tomatoes [119]

3. Locate and print the first page of "The Fruit Canning Industry" by Charles Greene.

4. Locate and print a description of the capture of the schooner *Charter Oak* and confiscation of 2,000 pounds of canned tomatoes on November 5, 1864.

I give the first exercise early, before student expectations about the type and amount of work required in the course have hardened. I normally hand out the assignment during the first week of classes and give students a week to complete it. I ask for questions and comments in all intervening class periods. Classrooms at my institution are equipped with Internet access and projection equipment, so I demonstrate the basic searches using terms different from those in the assignment. The exercise is timed, so students turn it in during one of the class periods when we discuss industrialization, the creation of the national market, and the beginning of a mass consumption society. I developed a twenty-minute lecture on canning as a case study of how industrialization changed rural work patterns, national consumption patterns, and integrated the Ozarks more tightly into the national market. I refer to the canning industry and this assignment several times in the weeks that follow.

On the day students turn in the assignment, I typically spend about ten minutes specifically discussing the research process. I ask students to assume they are interested in researching the origins of the tomato canning industry in the Ozarks. When discussing their search results, I stress that the most obvious terms were too narrow. The information found using "cannery" produces mostly technical information about the organization and operation of canning companies and "canned tomatoes" produces a wide range of articles on the spread of canned foods into American life. Taken together these searches give a far more complete view of the canning industry than any could provide separately.

I originally developed this assignment for a course on historical research and writing in which I had the opportunity to work closely with students in every phase of their research. Prior to this, I had assumed that most students thought broadly about search terms and ran multiple searches using a variety of terms. What I found was that,

although the vast majority understood the importance of searching widely, very few actually did so. This assignment gives students a concrete example of how minor variations in search terms can produce striking differences in the amount and type of information they find.

The vast difference between the number of hits from the American Memory page of the Library of Congress website and Making of America provides a good place to start a discussion of the different types of information found. The American Memory search also highlights the need to be a thoughtful researcher. "Nineteenth Century Periodicals, 1850-1877" is one of the major collections included in American Memory. Given the number of hits (51 total) from MOA, a suspicious researcher would wonder why no hits from the "Nineteenth Century Periodicals" collection show up in a global search of American Memory. In class I demonstrate a full text search of the "Nineteenth Century Periodicals" collection, which returns well over one hundred hits, many of which are directly relevant to a study of the evolution of canning technology, changing American foodways, and various health and safety concerns that precipitated government regulation of the food industry and none of which appear in a supposedly global search of American Memory. The lesson for students is clear: Successful searching requires both mastery of basic techniques and a thoughtful analysis of results.[4]

Questions three and four are designed to ensure that students take the time to learn to retrieve information effectively from MOA. Although these sources allow immediate access to the full text, roughly one-third of students have trouble locating the first page of a source from MOA because the sites offer a number of retrieval options. After students turn in the assignments, I demonstrate how to link through to the proper sources. The first page of "The Fruit Canning Industry" by Charles Greene can be found on page 354 of *Overland Monthly and Out West Magazine*. This article shows up in a search of "cannery" in the MOA site at the University of Michigan. Researchers can find the information required in question four in two places. The search using "canned tomatoes" in the MOA site located at Cornell points searchers to page 801 of the *Official records of the Union and Confederate Navies in the War of the Rebellion, Series 1, volume 3*. The same search run through the University of Michigan leads to page 36 of *The Shenandoah; or, the Last Confederate Cruiser* by Cornelius Hunt, her former captain. Together the sources provide different but congruent descriptions of

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[4]Making of America (MOA) is one of the largest and most useful on-line collections of books and periodicals published between roughly 1815 and 1925. MOA contains over 5,000 volumes or 1.5 million searchable pages from both well-known magazines such as *The Atlantic Monthly* and more obscure titles such as *Catholic World* and *Manufacturer and Builder*. New materials are added periodically. MOA is an unusual site in that it is split between University of Michigan www.hti.umich.edu/m/moagrp/ and Cornell University http://moa.cit.cornell.edu/moa/. In theory, both sites are searchable through the Nineteenth Century Periodicals collection of the Library of Congress http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/ndlpcoop/moahtml/ncphome.html. In practice, it is best to go directly to each site.

the schooner *Charter Oak* and confiscation of her stores and cargo, including 2,000 pounds of canned tomatoes.[5]

Research Assignment Two
Please complete the following:

_____ 1. The total number of articles indexed under the term "automobile" between 1899 and 1904 in the Readers Guide Retrospective (electronic finding aid available through the MSU Library).

2. Locate an article about the Fourth Annual [1904] New York Automobile Show. Copy the first page of the article and attach it to this sheet. Be prepared to discuss what this article tells you about the automobile and life in turn-of-the-century urban America.

This assignment is designed to teach students how to use Readers Guide Retrospective. This is an electronic version of the familiar *Readers Guide to Periodical Literature* covering the years 1890 to 1982. The first question requires students to master a basic search; the second requires them to find an article using the microfilm collections of our campus library. Students can locate an article on the 1904 New York auto show two ways using Readers Guide Retrospective. The most effective is a general keyword searching using broad terms such as "automobile" and "New York" with the date limited to 1904. This yields one result. A student might also page through 374 entries generated by question one. Because entries can be arranged chronologically this method is not as tedious as it might seem at first glance. Readers Guide Retrospective is very simple to use, but, because most students only use electronic databases and are unfamiliar with finding aids, I find it important to emphasize Readers Guide Retrospective is not a full-text resource. When I give out the exercise, I carefully explain that Readers Guide Retrospective provides the information necessary to locate a source but not the source itself. About twenty percent of students report difficulty finding the article requested in question two within our library. When I have multiple classes working on this assignment, I assign each a different article; otherwise students might have problems getting access to microfilm.[6]

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[5]Charles S. Greene, "The Fruit Canning Industry," *Overland Monthly and Out West Magazine*, 18 (October 1891), 358–364. United States Naval War Records Office, *Official records of the Union and Confederate Navies in the War of the Rebellion*, Series I - Volume 3: *The Operation of the Cruisers April 1, 1864-December 30, 1865* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1896), 801. Cornelius Hunt, *The Shenandoah; or, the Last Confederate Cruiser* (New York: G.W. Carlton, 1867), 36.

[6]Readers Guide Retrospective: 1890-1982, http://www.hwwilson.com/Databases/rdgretro.htm is an index of over three million articles from over 350 magazines. "Fourth Annual New York Automobile Show,"

This assignment works well when discussing American life at the turn of the twentieth century. The number of articles on the automobile generally surprises students, as do the large number of manufacturers and nations represented at the New York auto show and the range of designs and power plants used in the cars. Unlike the other exercises, which I assign so that they are due when we are discussing the topic, I give this assignment out while discussing progressivism in the late nineteenth and early twentieth-century America. I tell students they can expect to find hundreds of articles about the automobile and I use this as an entry point into a brief discussion of ideas about progress and technology. I return the assignment the day we discuss the impact of the automobile on post-World War I America. This helps drive home the point that Henry Ford did not invent the automobile but he did make it a mass consumer item.

Research Assignment Three
There is a myth that the average American was unaware of the deteriorating global situation during the 1930s. You doubt this and wish to research the matter further. In the library locate two examples of significant press coverage of an event of international concern between 1932 and December 6, 1941. Copy the articles and write a 200-word summary of their contents.

The best way to locate articles from the 1930s is to use either the Readers Guide Retrospective or the *Readers Guide to Periodical Literature*. The Readers Guide Retrospective is available online through the Missouri State Library site and the *Readers Guide to Periodical Literature* is located in the reference section of the Library. After you locate a list of possible titles, check SWAN for holdings and locations. (Note to readers: SWAN is the on-line catalog at Missouri State University.)

By the third exercise students are ready to move on to a self–directed search. They understand the difference between a finding aid and a database; they have generally mastered basic search techniques and should remember to think carefully about search terms. In the instructions that accompany this exercise, I encourage students to scan the reading for the coming week for a specific event they wish to learn more about, such as Japan's attack on the *Panay* or the Italian invasion of Ethiopia. If a student's interests are more general, say on shifting public attitudes toward Germany, I recommend a broad keyword search. For example, a keyword search using "Germany" and "United States" between the years 1932 and 1941 will return 194 entries, most of which appear to be relevant examples of American attitudes toward Germany. This assignment typically lends itself to a brief but productive discussion of different search techniques and terms since a few students invariably pick the same

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[6](...continued)
Scientific American, 90 (January 30, 1904), 74–75+.

topic yet select different sources, which in turn leads to different understandings of events. This provides a natural lead-in to discussion of foreign affairs during the 1930s. This assignment in particular shows students how difficult it can be to draw meaningful conclusions from incomplete, inconsistent, and conflicting sources. Most students conclude that the average American was probably more uncertain how to interpret international events than she was unaware of their occurrence.

Research Assignment Four

Imagine you have been assigned a major research paper on the school integration crisis in Little Rock that occurred in 1957-58. Conduct a complete literature search using ABC-CLIO's *America: History and Life.*

_____ 1. Total number of relevant articles you located using ABC-CLIO. [32]
_____ 2. Total number of relevant books you located using ABC-CLIO. [14]
_____ 3. Total number of relevant dissertations you located using ABC-CLIO. [4]

America: History and Life, published by ABC-CLIO, is the most comprehensive search tool for secondary sources on any topic in North American history published since the mid-1950s. Few students are aware of its existence and fewer still have had any instruction in its use. The on-line version is, in my opinion, the single most useful research tools currently available to American historians. This is the only assignment not linked in some way to primary source materials and as a result it is the least well integrated into the content of the course. I use this assignment to introduce students to historiography. We discuss issues such as point of view: The 32 articles found in this search discuss the events at Little Rock from the perspective of students and parents of both races, from the perspective of school administrators and politicians, as a media event, and in the context of memory and remembrance. Comparing and contrasting the article summaries gives students a fuller sense of the variety of perspectives possible when approaching a subject. It also leads naturally into a discussion of sources. When I combine these assignments with a formal paper, as I do in Honors classes, I give the ABC-CLIO exercise early in the semester in order to help students make their secondary
search more effective.[7]

Research Assignment Five

Locate two different newspapers from the week of your birth. Use them to supply the following information:

Date of Birth: _____

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[7]ABC-CLIO *America: History and Life and Historical Abstracts*, http://serials.abc-clio.com/.

Major international news item: _____

Major local news: _____

Weather: _____

Movie option: _____

Television option: _____

Cost of mid-range automobile (include make/model): _____

Cost of major appliance (include type): _____

One surprising item from the news: _____

By this time most students are comfortable using the various finding aids, navigating the library stacks, and operating the microfilm readers. The point of the final assignment is to shift the focus back to the source and remind students how much information they can glean about everyday life from newspapers. This exercise is generally the most popular of the research assignments. Students searching their local papers sometimes find their birth announcement, occasionally listing it as a "major local news" item. I typically ask students to compare and contrast the view of life in the mid-1980s as depicted in our discussion of the newspapers with the view of the period found in the text.

Some Advice for Teachers

Assignments such as these are simple to construct. I vary the particulars based on my current research interests. I have developed the format and procedure through five semesters of trial and error. Based on that experience, I offer the following advice for anyone interested in creating similar assignments.

1. Consult with colleagues in the library as you design your research exercises and provide them with copies when you assign them to students.

Shortly after I began experimenting with these assignments, one of my colleagues in reference politely informed me that it would be helpful to everyone involved if I would inform them when I planned to give research exercises to roughly 100 students, many of whom show up a day or two before the assignment is due. He was right—student success and satisfaction rose significantly when the reference staff began to receive copies of the exercises. Our reference staff has been extremely helpful in alerting me when our library gets access to new finding aids, such as Readers Guide Retrospective, and in helping me develop more effective search techniques.

2. Keep the assignments simple.

For example, three of the five assignments are identical for all students in a class. This makes it far easier to sort out and explain why a search was not as complete as it could have been. There is often a significant difference in the number of hits students are able to locate, but because everyone, including myself, has done the same search, it is fairly easy to discover how the process went astray for any individual student and explain how to correct the problem. Originally I allowed students to select their own

searches with the thought that I could check their results quickly. Unfortunately this was only true for those who had done searches correctly. I quickly discovered there are many ways to do an incomplete search and it is often neither easy nor quick to discover and correct the error.

3. Keep current with online finding aids and databases.

The Internet has become much less ephemeral in the last five years. Commercial search engines such as Google have made it far easier to locate resources, and electronic versions of traditional finding aids such as *Readers Guide Retrospective* and *America: History and Life* now allow for simpler and far more powerful searches than were possible a few years ago. Access to collections has begun to coalesce around a relatively small number of major websites such as those created by the Library of Congress or the National Archives. As a result, guides to Internet research are no longer universally outdated by the time they are published. The best single guide to online resources related to the research and teaching of U.S. history currently available is *History Matters: A Student Guide to U.S. History Online*. This well organized book is a distillation of the best of History Matters: The U.S. Survey Course on the Web, the pioneering website created by the Center for History and New Media and the American Social History Project. This slim volume contains descriptions of 250 of the most useful sites for both research and teaching. It is extremely well organized and indexed and although it is designed as a research and reference tool for students, teachers will find it extremely helpful as well.[8]

4. Integrate the assignments into your class content.

When I began using this type of assignment two years ago, student reaction was mixed. Partly I had overestimated the average student's familiarity with basic search techniques; partly the exercises were not as clear and straightforward as they should have been. Mostly, however, I was not as effective at integrating these assignments into the course and explaining how these exercises help build the basic skills needed to develop a richer, more complete understanding of the past. Initially many students saw these assignments as "busy work" with no practical point. I found that by incorporating them into the content of the class, and by asking students to take the information they have discovered and either go beyond the text or explain how these types of sources shaped the text, I was able to turn these assignments into "real work."[9]

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[8]Alan Gevinson, Kelly Schrum, Roy Rosenzweig, *History Matters: A Student Guide to U.S. History Online* (New York: Bedford/St. Martin's, 2005). "History Matters: The U.S. Survey Course on the Web," http://historymatters.gmu.edu/.

[9]For a good discussion of the importance of "real work" and the research paper, see David C. Hsiung, "Real Work, Not busy Work, Part II: The Primary Source Paper," *Teaching History: A Journal of Methods*, 29 (Spring 2004), 36–40.

TEACHING WITH ON-LINE PRIMARY SOURCES:
ELECTRONIC DATA FILES FROM NARA

HOLLYWOOD ACTORS' PARTICIPATION IN WORLD WAR II

Lee A. Gladwin

National Archives and Records Administration

Which famous country-western singer and movie start, first name Orvon, served with the U.S. Army Air Forces Transport Command during World War II? Which former child star and costar of the "Andy Hardy" series enlisted in 1944?[1] The answers to these questions may be found, in part, by searching the U.S. Army Serial Number Electronic Merged File and the World War II Prisoner of War File, now available at the National Archives and Records Administration's Access to Archival Databases websites. These and many other servicemen's enlistment and/or prisoner-of-war information await discovery by students and teachers.

Part I: About AAD

Inquiry or discovery teaching methods traditionally employ paper documents as their primary source material. Photographs, diagrams, and textual sources often are favored over the use of electronic files or databases, despite increased accessibility via the Internet. Though introduced in the 1980s by Richard Ennals as a more dynamic way for students to develop problem-solving skills in social studies, data files are not widely used by teachers. This is unfortunate because data files may be searched by querying the database to discover possible sources of pattern fluctuations. Patterns may be explored for contributing factors to an observed phenomenon, and the results can be graphed and printed. Databases or files offer a convenient way to collect and summarize large amounts of information in ways that can be searched, sorted, tabulated, and analyzed by a computer.

Information, for example, may be collected by a survey, such as the ones conducted every ten years by the Bureau of the Census. During World War II information was collected from U.S. Army enlistees at the time of enlistment. Records of U.S. prisoners of war (POWs) were created from prisoner lists compiled by the Axis powers and forwarded to the Provost Marshal General's Office through the International Red Cross in Berne, Switzerland.

To search through these mountains of paper would have been too time-consuming for the U.S. Army personnel who notified next of kin or prepared monthly unit strength reports for the Army Chiefs of Staff. So, wherever possible, the information was summarized in the form of codes that could be punched into the appropriate fields of an IBM punch card. (Show sample card in Theodore Hull's article and/or make printed

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[1]**Answers to Opening Questions:** The "Singing Cowboy" was better known as Gene Autry. Child star Mickey Rooney enlisted in 1944 as a private.

copies available.) Of course, punch cards are no longer used, but data is still recorded in columns and rows that form a grid. For example, each column of the Army Serial Number Electronic Merged File bears a title, such as Service or Serial Number, Home State of Record, or Civilian Occupation. These columns separate each row, or the enlistee's record, into fields. Information about each U.S. Army enlistee was recorded on long forms at each induction center. A field, such as State, might be punched with the code "91" for California. A motion picture actor's civilian occupation was encoded as "002." The codes were taken from code books such as "Civilian Occupation Codes." Also layouts provided "maps" to the sequence order of the fields on the punch cards, their size (number of characters), and types (alphabetical or numeric data). Using punch cards and code books helped reduce the time it took to find information about individual U.S. Army enlistees. If these servicemen were killed or captured, their cards could be retrieved in order to locate and notify family members. World War II POW card information was used to analyze the current balance between authorized and actual unit strength of combat units. This information, in turn, was vital in determining which units required reinforcement, which kinds of specialization were required, and how many more personnel needed to be drafted.

What follows is an introduction to a large collection of databases available from the National Archives and Records Administration (NARA) at http://aad.archives.gov/aad/. One of these data files has been selected for illustrative purposes to show how databases might be used in an inquiry or discovery lesson.

Access to Archival Databases (AAD) provides Internet access to 491 databases spanning a period from the Irish Famine to the present. Students can access records that identify specific persons, geographic areas, events, activities, organizations, messages, as well as indexes to other records. Records in AAD include but are not limited to:

- An index and photographs relating to disasters and emergency management
- Files from the Natural Landmarks System
- Grants and contracts that the Federal Government has awarded
- Immigrants through New York City during the Great Irish Famine
- Individual military casualties from the Korean and Vietnam Wars
- Insider trading in securities
- IRS Private Foundations files
- Japanese Americans interned during World War II
- Labor unions in the United States
- Military operations during the Vietnam War
- People processed through the Gorgas Hospital Mortuary in Panama
- Prisoners of War from World War II through the Vietnam War
- Savings and loans or thrift institutions
- Telegrams from the Department of State's Central Foreign Policy File, 1973-74
- The historical significance of major Civil War battlefields

- World War II Army enlistment records, including the Women's Army
  Auxiliary

The AAD system does not support quantitative calculations or tabulations (e.g., mean, mode, standard deviation, multiple regression analysis, or even basic arithmetic). It is possible, however, to download up to 1000 full records into a spreadsheet (in either raw data form or in interpreted form) for further analysis.

AAD offers both free-text and field-based searches. Free-text search matches strings of text with those found in pages of text and retrieves any page containing one or more of the words found in the string. While useful in searching for text in scanned or otherwise produced paper documents, free-text search ignores context and lacks the rigorous structure of field-based search ordinarily used for searching a database. Free-text search was designed to search collections of documents for pages containing selected keywords or strings of words. For example, scroll down the AAD page, click on "Browse by Category" and then enter "BUSH GEORGE W" in the query box and run the query. This query will retrieve records from the Securities and Exchange Commission, Ownership Reporting System (ORS), having those words in the "Name of Filer" field. Similarly, records will be retrieved from the SEC's Proposed Sale of Securities file, because all three terms occur in the "Name of Seller" field. Free-text search seems to work well where there are name fields. Since this method of search ignores field names, database records are treated as textual documents, leading to retrieval of records having no relationship to the subject. Like many "key word" type searches, this query also retrieved records from the Federal Procurement Data System, FY 1995, because the "Contracting Office City" field was "Fort George G. Meade," the "Contractor Name" contained a "W," and the "Contractor Street Address" was "2 Bush Chapel RD." Free-text searches are easier to run but erratic in their results.

Field-based query is available and encouraged as it forces students to look at specific fields and code values to be used in constructing searches. Each query should be carefully thought through and recorded together with the results produced by the search. These results can lead to further discussion of how to refine or replace the query.

Part II: Using AAD

Teachers might want to refer to http://nchs.ucla.edu/standards/toc.html for student standards such as Chronological Thinking; Historical Comprehension; Historical Analysis and Interpretation; Historical Research Capabilities; Historical Issues-Analysis and Decision-Making; and Era 8: The Great Depression and World War II (1929-1945) that are applicable for this teaching activity.

Background

For this activity, supply students with some historical background of Hollywood stars during World War II from a text such as Roy Hoopes, *When the Stars Went to*

War: Hollywood and World War II (New York: Random House, 1995). Note that some well-known actors served while making training films in Hollywood. Some, such as Lew Ayres, a conscientious objector, served with medical units or in other non-combatant capacities. Others, including Errol Flynn, were deferred for medical reasons (tuberculosis scars on his lungs).

Introduction to World War II U.S. Army Serial Number Electronic Merged File

Explain to students that this activity involves searching an actual NARA World War II database containing records of U.S. Army enlistees (no officers). Using the World War II U.S. Army Serial Number Electronic Merged File (ASNF) with AAD, teachers can help their class construct a search query to find out whether actors enlisted during the Second World War.

Objectives

The objective is to introduce databases and research methodology using the World War II U.S. Army Serial Number Electronic Merged File, by asking "Did motion picture actors receive any special treatment during World War II?" (Another method is to let students view some sample records or graphs and then generate their own questions and hypotheses for testing. For example, if students were asked to look at a graph of the numbers of U.S. POWs taken in Europe, they would see a "spike" in the numbers for mid to late December 1944. Ask why this might have happened and then construct a search of the data to determine when and where these losses occurred and why.) Hand out or display sample copies of the records of Clark Gable and Jimmy Stewart. Ask students to brainstorm and write down what results they would expect to find after querying the database. For this activity, students should have access to a computer laboratory with Internet access and a facilitator. For large classes, the lesson could be conducted using Smart Screen or some other projective system.

Procedure:

1. Demonstrate for students the layout/search template (list of fields available on screen). To see all fields available for searching, click on "More" in the upper right section of the template. Ask what fields need to be used for the search query. Explain how each field contributes to focusing the search and finding an answer. Look at attached (VIEW) code lists suggested by the class. Encourage students to ask questions such as: Which code(s) should be selected? Or does a suggested field and code narrow the search and help to find an answer? Double-click on the box to produce a check mark and then scroll down and click SUBMIT. This places value in the search template field blank. Follow this procedure until students have exhausted all possibilities or they are ready to run search (click SEARCH). Examine the sample records for Clark Gable and Jimmy Stewart for field values associated with finding them, other than by name.

2. Download results for further analysis or record results (frequencies) on the board. Ask students if the results provided answers to the central question concerning favored treatment for actors during their enlistment in World War II. Do the results raise further questions for additional searches and analysis? Encourage additional questions and qualifications concerning results.

3. Ask students what bearing the query results have on their question(s). Have the findings affected their view of the problem? What fields or codes might need to be changed, added, or removed from the query? Follow with further discussion and analysis of findings as they relate to the basic question and any others that students raised. When concluding the session, ask students where they might look for additional sources of information and the types of records that might confirm or strengthen their conclusions.

This sample lesson hopefully will serve as a prototype for others sharing the same purpose of introducing students to databases and social science inquiry methodology. Teachers might wish to refer to Richard Ennals' book, *Beginning Micro-Prolog* (New York: Prentice Hall, 1984), for other suggestions in how such experiences might be planned.

For more information about the World War II Army Serial Number Merged File, go to www.archives.gov/publications/prologue/2006/spring/aad-ww2.html to see Theodore Hull's "The World War II Army Enlistment Records File and Access to Archival Databases (AAD)." It contains a copy of an enlistment card that may be printed and enlarged. For further information about the World War II POW Data File codes and how the information was used to win the war, see Lee A. Gladwin, "TOP SECRET: Recovering and Breaking the U.S. Army and Army Air Force Order of Battle Codes, 1941-1945," in the Fall 2000 issue of *Prologue*.

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FILM REVIEW

ADDING HOLLYWOOD TO THE AMERICAN HISTORY SURVEY

Steve Blankenship
Georgia Highlands College

The Fog of War, Errol Mann, director, 2003.
The New World, Terrence Malick, director, 2005.
Apocalypto, Mel Gibson, director, 2007.

The movie critic and the history teacher do not look for the same things in films. Dialogue, plot, and denouncement for the critic give way to context, significance, and example for the teacher. The virtue of continuity for the critic yields to the teacher's need for the episode that accentuates the lecture's main points. The critic avoids missing a moment of a film; the teacher often will defeat his or her purpose if a selected film clip takes more than a few minutes from class time. A clip that runs too long can jeopardize classroom context and revert to a movie instead of an illustration or commentary on the lesson at hand. But, when used judiciously, film excerpts can provoke students' critical thinking about course materials, whether lecture, images, map study, primary-source analysis, or text. The purpose of this review is not to judge overall quality of *The Fog of War*, *The New World*, and *Apocalypto*, but to identify and evaluate selected segments from the three films for their usefulness in the American history survey.

Operating from the premise that the classroom is a place where enlightenment generally follows doubt, consternation, and reevaluation, I suggest that film might further this process of critical thinking by satisfying three criteria: Does the excerpt put a human face on what previously had been a mere *abstraction*? Does the clip create *empathy* in the student for historical characters previously unconsidered? Are the cinematic selections successful in prompting the *reevaluation* of old premises? For example: The discussion of Protestant martyrs in Reformation England is brought shockingly home to students who watch the five-minute prologue of *Elizabeth*.[1] Here three "heretics" are burned at the stake in a tumultuous scene that prompts discussion of religious toleration and its meaning in the sixteenth century while also providing a human face to the abstract ideal of martyrdom—a term in vogue today both in Palestine and Baghdad. *Black Robe*, a movie about seventeenth-century Jesuit priests in New France seeking a middle ground with Huron Indians, creates student empathy for both sides' mutual incomprehension.[2] The recent Arab-language film, *Paradise Now*, might or might not create sympathy for Palestinian suicide-bombers, though it will certainly

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[1] *Elizabeth*, Shekhar Kapur, director, 1998.

[2] *Black Robe*, Bruce Beresford, director, 1991.

cause a reappraisal of what students thought they knew about the conflict in the Middle East generally and the West Bank specifically.[3]

The Fog of War

For those over fifty, Robert McNamara's resume is easy to recall: He was a mathematical and managerial whiz-kid, a legendary statistician who worked to increase the efficiency of United States bombing campaigns in the Second World War, a professor at Harvard, an executive at Ford Motor Company before becoming its President in 1960, a tenure cut short when President-elect John Kennedy called him to head the Pentagon as Secretary of Defense. After leaving the Pentagon in 1968, McNamara became President of the World Bank, a post he kept for thirteen years. Although eighty-five years old when this film was made, McNamara's powerful presence has not been diminished by time.

Errol Man's film, *The Fog of War*, places the viewer face-to-face with the formidable figure of McNamara. Mann's camera stays focused on McNamara's face as he regales, regrets, explains, remembers, forgets, ignores, and assays responsibility for military actions undertaken with his participation or at his behest from World War II to the Cuban missile crisis and American involvement in Vietnam. Mann juxtaposes McNamara's expressive (and often emotional) visage with Cold War images and makes especially effective use of newly released taped-recordings from the oval office of Presidents Kennedy and Johnson.

The Fog of War is structured round eleven lessons learned by McNamara over the course of his long career. The history instructor benefits from McNamara's reiteration of the Cold War as the larger historical context for crises in Cuba, Berlin, and Vietnam. Lesson number one, "Empathize with the enemy," recounts how the resolution of the Cuban missile crisis occurred due to JFK's willingness to allow Premier Khrushchev an honorable way out of the dilemma. In lesson number seven, "Belief and seeing: both are often wrong," McNamara recalls the Tonkin Gulf incidents that were used to justify American escalation against North Vietnam in 1964-65. In a soliloquy eerily presaging the present president's entanglement in Iraq, McNamara says, over footage of Operation Rolling Thunder, that the American mission in Vietnam was "a struggle for the hearts and minds of the Vietnamese." As the screen explodes with heavy munitions and napalm, McNamara goes on to say that "as a prerequisite for that, we must be able to provide for their physical security." He admits that neither he nor anyone else at the upper levels of the United States government knew the Vietnamese "well enough to understand them." Just as the current president might have placed the so-called "War on Terror" in the wrong historical context ("Freedom" v. Terrorism), McNamara admits that "we saw Vietnam as an element of the Cold War, not as they saw, as a civil war."

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[3]*Paradise Now*, Hany Abu-Assad, director, 2005.

Lesson number eight, "Be prepared to reexamine your reasoning," is especially pertinent now in the midst of the current war in Iraq where last year's verities are finally being reevaluated along with presumptions about America's role in the world. McNamara's discussion of Vietnam confirms the old adage about history repeating itself.

McNamara's reflections on the end of the Second World War in the Pacific invariably provoke classroom discussions as he recalls the fire-bombing of Tokyo and other Japanese cities prior to the dropping of the atomic bombs and asserts that there should be "proportionality in war" (lesson number five). He recalls how his Pacific commander, General Curtis LeMay, remarked to him that both of them would have been tried as war criminals had the United States lost and Japan won the war. McNamara's voice-over footage of Japan's destroyed cities asks, "What makes it immoral if you lost, but not immoral if you win?"

The New World

The New World's sustained dream-like sequences, extended scenes without dialogue, and fuzzy narrative, on initial viewing, would appear to promise little of use to the teacher seeking to illustrate the early seventeenth-century close encounters of the colonial kind. Upon closer examination, however, *The New World* demonstrates the useful conceptual ideas now common in the history classroom, that of Indian "agency," the liminality of persons caught between two cultures, and the myth of American "exceptionalism" whereby North America is portrayed as an empty Garden of Eden ready for occupation and exploitation by Europeans.

Native American agency is illustrated in the initial contact when it is the Indians that draw back from the stench of the Europeans, when they decide that "we must drive them away while they are few," and when they save the dwindling English colony from starvation by willingly giving their own stores of supplies. Both Pocahontas and John Smith become dislocated outside their proper place by their association with the "other." Smith's defense of his lover points to her untenable position as mediator between two sides and, when he proclaims that "she has been the instrument to preserve this colony from disaster," he further isolates her from her own people and his. Pocahontas's loyalty to her tribe is questioned by her attachment to the Englishman, Smith. Irony drips like dew in the humid Chesapeake Bay as one of the English proclaims amidst suffering and starvation: "Eden lies about us still. We have escaped the old world and its bondage." American exceptionalism begins here in the marshlands of the Chesapeake where ideals of a "New World" collide with the inhabitants of an old world.

Apocalypto

The classroom usefulness of Mel Gibson's *Apocalyto* is limited to two sequences, though the implications of each are important to foster critical thinking (and viewing). Built round the traditional hero's tale of challenge, journey, and return, the bulk of this admittedly exciting Saturday afternoon adventure yarn lacks sufficient context or significance to make it applicable to the classroom. Yet the centerpiece of the film, when the captured hero is brought from his rainforest home to an urban area to be sacrificed, demonstrates both the specialization that results from a surplus supply of food and the power of the priestly class whose mediation with the gods gives them discretion over life and death.

The final scene of *Apocalyto* is especially useful for its stunning anachronism. On a long and treacherous trek home, the hero, after disposing of most of his enemies in a variety of macabre ways, is finally run down on a beach and apparently about to receive the *coup de grace* when the camera slows and begins to track the eyes of both the captured hero and his pursuers as all of them gaze with wonder on the appearance of three Spanish ships off shore, along with a smaller boat, loaded with a priest and soldiers making their way to the beach. The hero escapes as his pursuers venture forth to meet these strangely dressed men from across the seas. Now, this film's advance publicity, its advertisements, interviews with the director, and prior notice that the actors all speak Mayan with English subtitles, all imply Mayan civilization as the subject of the feature. Yet, every college textbook that tackles English exploration while discussing the indigenous peoples of the New World makes plain the demise of Mayan civilization some centuries before the arrival of the Spaniards. It is the Aztecs that famously encounter the conquistadors in the early sixteenth century, not the Maya of the twelfth.

If used to accentuate important points in the instructor's lecture, film is an effective tool to promote critical thinking among students of the United States history survey. Visuals lend themselves to enhanced learning in a society increasingly fixated on images emerging from myriad sources. The current undergraduate is more familiar with the laptop than with the Dewey decimal system, more comfortable with the verb construction "to google" than "to check out." To tilt against this prevailing wind is sometimes necessary, though in the case of film in the classroom, instructors might take advantage of the present preoccupation with images to make the history lesson resonate through both the ears and the eyes.

Andrew McMichael. *History on the Web: Using and Evaluating the Internet.* **Wheeling, IL: Harlan Davidson, Inc., 2005. Pp. 82. Paper, $8.95; ISBN: 0-88295-230-7.**

As history educators, we are concerned not only with teaching our students how to think historically but also how to find authentic and reliable sources for historical study. The Internet has brought both benefits and challenges to our classroom door as we figure out ways to help our students separate the wheat from the chaff. Because the web is so vast and so complex, our task only continues to get harder. However, Andrew McMichael's *History on the Web: Using and Evaluating the Internet* provides an excellent starting point for any instructor or student of history from the high school through the graduate level conducting historical research on the web.

While our students become more and more dependent on technology, their enhanced skill level does not necessarily translate into classroom application that they can viably demonstrate in their spoken and written assignments. One reminder of this is students language skills and their comfort zone that includes text messaging but not necessarily long, thoughtful, complete sentence-filled essays. In turn, this means that students have come to expect instant access to sources. Even with our concerns about student plagiarism from the net, it's often easy to spot this form of cheating because they often google their paper topic and pick one of the first sources and, at most, pick a source from the first page or two of results generated to their computer screen. And, because our computer skills were not acquired as soon in life as those of our students, we are sometimes perplexed at what we can expect from students in regard to utilizing the vast resources of the Internet to enhance their study of history.

In this short book that can be purchased alone or as a package with any of the other numerous history works available from Harlan Davidson, McMichael manages to navigate these treacherous waters successfully. The author grounds his work in a brief overview of the history of the Internet—a subtle way to point out to our students that the Internet did not always exist—and then jumps to more practical matters when he examines the role of search engines in finding history on the web. McMichael explains in plain language how the search engines work and how students (and instructors!) can develop their search skills to find what they are seeking. An important point to note is that throughout the book the author discusses how to think critically about what is found on the web and how to decide what sources are reliable and which are not. This is obviously an ongoing discussion and underscores that we hope our students think and critically analyze what they find as they research and go well beyond basic reporting of what they have found. Chapter Three deals with this issue most specifically and McMichael's descriptive analysis at this crucial point in the book contributes to the overall user-friendliness of this book.

Demonstrating how McMichael is able to achieve broad yet brief coverage in this work, he deals with web resources beyond websites in Chapter Four. Most history teachers are aware but most students are not aware that much of the early historical

material on the web arrived in our email boxes and not on our color screen and ways to access some of these archived resources are examined in this chapter. The H-Net (Humanities and Social Sciences Online) site is an excellent example of a wealth of information for students of history that does not always pop up as Google's most popular site on the topic yet contains numerous historical discussions among scholars and teachers that are useful even today. Finally, he discusses how to put material on the web in the last chapter. He succeeds at dealing with some of the bigger issues without recommending specific software because, as he aptly points out, the best software is a multi-variable decision for both students and instructors.

Teachers of high school history courses through graduate level courses will find this work useful in enhancing effective student use of the web both in and out of the history classroom. McMichael's writing is clear yet succinct and grapples with large issues and topics in an easy to read fashion that also succeeds in not talking down to the reader—a difficult task in any book like this.

Pittsburg (KS) State University   Kelly A. Woestman

Dana Lindaman and Kyle Ward. *History Lessons: How Textbooks from Around the World Portray U.S. History*. New York: The New Press, 2004. Pp. xxi, 404. Cloth, $26.95; ISBN 1-56584-894-2.

We all recall Robert Burns's couplet, reminding us that we should see ourselves as others see us. Thus Dana Lindaman (a Harvard Ph.D. candidate) and Kyle Ward (a professor of history and politics at Vincennes University) have set a useful task for themselves. History teachers and students of the discipline in general should be interested in reading United States history as seen through others' eyes. But the task is not as straight-forward as it appears. Their study, though a useful and rewarding book, also raises as many questions as it answers.

The book proceeds more or less chronologically from the age of European exploration of the Americas through the post-Cold War world. Within each section, the editors have selected passages from current secondary school textbooks from a total of twenty-eight countries around the world (though surprisingly, Australia was left out). It is not surprising that the selections from any particular country emphasize topics that are relevant for its own history, and that apparently the books have little or nothing to say about other aspects of U.S. history. Prominent voices that appear regularly are from Canada. While they emphasize issues of importance to Canadians (such as trade policy), they also provide important and often critical commentaries on other aspects of U.S. foreign policy.

The editors are to be commended for dealing well with the technical aspects of their tasks. In addition to the resources of the Harvard libraries, they have tapped the excellent collection of the Georg Ekert Institute in Germany. Often the selections had to be translated by third parties. Simply arranging for the permission to publish from all

of these books from so many countries must have been a challenge. Their notes and bibliography will be helpful to other scholars, while the accessible style of the texts will be user-friendly to students at both the secondary and the university levels.

The editors might have provided more than very brief introductions to the selections they have chosen. For example, when dealing with the Spanish American War, they use a passage from a Philippine textbook that states that the *Maine* had been "blown up by American spies." Well-informed historians have found no evidence to support this extreme theory. The editors should alert their readers—which may well include naive students—when items they have selected are myths rather than legitimately varying interpretations of history.

All of the excerpts from the books are "text only." We know that textbooks often include other materials, such as maps, pictures, chronologies, and primary source documents. One gets few hints of such material in this volume, even though the editors claim that they have "attempted to keep each text and its format as close to the original as possible." Reproducing page after page of visuals and insertions would have been impossible, but an occasional reference to such material (or its absence) would have provided important context within which to understand the textual material.

History Lessons would be a very useful addition to the library of every history educator, and selected excerpts from it would provide refreshing supplementary reading for students from the eighth grade on up. Fortunately, it is now available in paperback.

Purdue University   Gordon R. Mork

Suzanne Le-May Sheffield. *Women and Science: Social Impact and Interaction*. Science and Society Series. Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-Clio, 2004; New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press, 2006. Pp. 448. Paper, $29.95; ISBN 0-8135-3737-1.

In *Women and Science: Social Impact and Interaction*, Suzanne Le-May Sheffield provides a unique look at women in science from medieval Europe to the present. This is clear from the beginning of the book, where rather than proceeding chronologically, Sheffield dives right into the career of Marie Curie as a biographical case study of the forces that hindered women in science and the strategies they used to overcome these barriers.

This kind of innovation is found throughout the book. The work takes not only a biographical perspective on women and science (who did what) but also weaves in a considerable amount of theoretical and philosophical material on changes in science. Thus, the section on medieval, Renaissance, and early modern science contains not only information on the woman scientists we know about but also about the shift in the idea of science and nature to one of male domination of both nature and women.

Throughout the book, Sheffield uncovers stories that are both familiar (Marie Curie and Rosalind Franklin) as well as a host of figures unfamiliar even to those with

a Ph.D. in the history of science. The book also aims to address the social history of women in science, with sections on science and medieval education.

Sheffield's book does not skimp on resources. Over 100 pages of the book are given over to primary documents about women in science, giving students a chance to compare the text to the original works of women in science. The book also gives a bibliographic essay after each chapter, as well as a glossary, chronology, and complete bibliography.

This book would fit well into a history of women in science course, a women's studies course, or a history of science class. It is a rich book that might fit many niches. It would be ideal as a resource for teachers and professors to enrich their curriculum in this area. It would also be a good resource for programs that aim at gender equity in the sciences. No one reading Sheffield's work could close the book unconvinced of the breadth and depth of women's contributions to science, technology, and medicine.

Eastern Michigan University   Russell Olwell

Richard Holmes and Martin Marix Evans (eds.). *Battlefield: Decisive Conflicts in History*. **Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2006. Pp. 376. Cloth, $30.00; ISBN 0-19-280653-X.**

Richard Holmes and Martin Evans are both good writers and scholars. Holmes's works such as *The Little Field Marshall* (1981), *Riding the Retreat: Mons to the Marne* (1995), *The Western Front: Ordinary Soldiers and the Defining Battles of World War I* (1999), and many others (he has published twenty) mark him as thoughtful and articulate as well as an able scholar. Evans's publications tend to be more popular in nature, but nonetheless he has made real contributions to military history. In the current volume, the two are updating and revising information about battles covered in *The Oxford Companion to Military History*, which Holmes edited. Battles that were not covered in the *Oxford Companion* have been added to the current volume, if, since the original publication, scholars have shown their significance to merit doing so. The contents of *Battlefield* have been organized in chapters that are in part chronological and in part regional. Hence the first chapter is "The Ancient World" and the last is "Africa." Battles are generally arranged chronologically within chapters. This arrangement works well. It allows readers to find battles of interest easily. It also allows the editor to provide introductions that provide background and context for the battles in the campaign. This is an improvement on *The Oxford Companion* that is more completely focused on battlefield events.

For teachers and students, *Battlefield* will be a valuable reference book. The convenience of being able easily and quickly to find an authoritative account of virtually any strategically significant battle at any time or place will be great. While the information might be available on the Internet, one would have to question the dependability of such electronic reference. The number of wrong turns and blind alleys

on the information superhighway is enormous. There is no reason, however, to think that Holmes and Evans did anything but get it right. The section introductions, setting battles in some context, will also be useful to those studying for exams and writing lectures. Those doing such work will be happy to have a copy of *Battlefield* on their desks.

Others, however, will find little use for this book. Holmes says on the first page of his Preface that he did not want to do a decisive battles book or "another dictionary of battles." While grouping the contents by a combination of chronology and geography and adding some introductory remarks when shifting from one place or campaign to another does add context and avoids a simple alphabetical listing, he has failed in his latter intention. This book is a dictionary of battles, a useful and well-done dictionary, but a dictionary nonetheless.

Fort Valley State University   Fred R. van Hartesveldt

Jeff Broadwater. *George Mason: Forgotten Founder.* Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 2006. Pp. 352. Cloth, $34.95; ISBN 0-8078-3053-4.

In this biography, Jeff Broadwater makes the argument for adding Virginian George Mason to the pantheon of founders. Broadwater adds his voice to a recent trend of restoring men whom some scholars believe have been left behind in the history of the American Revolution and early republic, men such as John Jay, Charles Pinckney, and John Witherspoon. While these scholars have not necessarily argued Mason, Jay, Pinckney, or Witherspoon rose to the level of Washington or Jefferson, they want to make sure we get it right, that government policymakers in this important period get their due.

Broadwater has practice in biography. He previously published biographies of Dwight Eisenhower and Adlai Stevenson. Although he successfully, with this biography, moves back in time to the founding era, his book reads like a work by someone contextualizing from scholarly reading rather than a work by someone long immersed in the field. This is not a criticism, however. An argument can be made that scholars working this way can write accessible biographies and bring in new audiences. *George Mason* does not raise new insights about the American Revolution or early republic, but it can teach students and non-historians about the complexities of the late eighteenth century.

Broadwater begins by placing Mason in his eighteenth-century context, explaining Mason's political and religious beliefs and the juxtaposition of Mason's antislavery rhetoric with his slaveholding practices. These themes are highlighted throughout the book to make sure readers understand the differences between twenty-first and eighteenth-century ideologies. This contextualization is the strength of the biography. For students unfamiliar with the era, *George Mason* would bring to light some of the sticky issues historians have grappled with since the Revolution. What exactly did the founding generation mean by republicanism? How did they define civil liberties? How

could they continue to hold slaves while making arguments that slavery was immoral? It would also highlight for students that the acceptance of the war for independence was neither a foregone conclusion nor unanimous. Whereas the myth behind our founding is that great and ordinary citizens rushed to the cause, the reality is that it was a slow process with many coming only reluctantly into the fray.

According to Broadwater, as an individual, Mason did not become a revolutionary due to the forces generally credited with transforming the politics of Virginia gentlemen. He did not actively participate in colonial government, even when elected. The Proclamation of 1763 did not have a clear effect on Mason. Mason did begin to take a prominent role in the 1760s with the protests against British imperial policies. From this time on, Mason debated with other prominent political thinkers and wrote and revised important policy on regional and national levels, including the Virginia Declaration of Rights, the Virginia Constitution, and later the U.S. Constitution. He emerged, at the end of the era, as an opponent of the Constitution, and as such, Broadwater argues, continued to influence politics.

George Mason: Forgotten Founder is strongest in its last chapters on the Constitutional Convention. Because of this, the biography would work best as a supplementary text in a class on the early American republic. Jeff Broadwater makes a strong and convincing argument that George Mason, while "less visionary than Thomas Jefferson," deserves a place at the founding fathers' table.

Mesa State College   Sarah Swedberg

Clare A. Lyons. *Sex Among the Rabble: An Intimate History of Gender & Power in the Age of Revolution, 1730-1830.* **Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 2006. Pp. 432. Paper, $22.50; ISBN 0-8078-5675-4.**

Clare A. Lyons skillfully crafts a book exploring the evolution of power in colonial and early American Philadelphia. The author asserts that sexuality served as a key category in the formation, contestation, and regulation of gender, race, and class hierarchies and that contrary to popular understandings, Philadelphia at this time was not a city of "chaste Quakers." The mid-eighteenth-century city was a complex environment where inhabitants engaged in a variety of nonmarital and extramarital affairs, where women forged spaces in which they could exercise their autonomy, where sex commerce and bastardy proliferated largely unchecked, and where many such acts and behaviors transgressed lines of gender, race, and class. By the nineteenth century, however, the city's elite and emergent middle-class fathers initiated a range of social and legal reforms to restrict women's autonomy and most everyone's sexual behavior. Although this transformation "altered the relationships of gender and sex to power and social control," especially among the least powerful, the shift largely failed to effect the desired behavioral changes.

As Lyons states, her work contributes to the scholarship on early American history in that it reveals the sexual norms and behaviors of a highly diverse colonial and early national city and adds to the body of work charting the transition from "colonial constructions and regulation of sexuality into the nineteenth-century gender system" in which conceptions of race and class played pivotal roles.

The text is divided chronically into three sections, the first of which explores the "sexual terrain of colonial and revolutionary Philadelphia," focusing on conceptions of patriarchal marriage, the phenomenon of self-divorce, the thriving pleasure culture, views on bastardy and prostitution, and depictions of sexuality contained in popular print sources of the day. Part II shifts to the post-revolutionary era where Lyons illustrates the ongoing and expansive liberal sexual culture of the city as well as concomitant areas of sexual contestation, primarily drawn along lines of race, class, and gender. Finally, the last section turns to the regulation of sexuality, especially concerning bastardy and prostitution, in the early nineteenth century, as seen through popular literature, the work of social agencies, and the law.

In charting this dramatic transformation, Lyons combines methodologies from intellectual, social, and cultural history. To support her assertions, she mines the best in the secondary literature, which is supported by primary sources culled from social welfare and benevolent societies, court and church records, tax lists, newspapers, popular literature, and period art. The resultant product includes both a convincing thesis and compelling stories that beautifully balance narrative, argument, and at times dry quantitative analysis. Although Lyons's geographical scope is somewhat narrow, confined to a unique urban environment, and her assessment is restricted to heterosexuality, her findings remain insightful and are of critical importance.

As a text for classroom instruction, I highly recommend this work for upper-division undergraduates and graduate students studying anything that addresses sex, gender, politics, race, class, and/or revolutions in colonial and early national America. Even more, I suggest using the book to restructure lectures on this period of U.S. history, particularly in regard to explaining the many ways that the American Revolution was (or was not) revolutionary.

Georgia State University   Andrew Reisinger

Paul E. Johnson. *The Early American Republic, 1789-1829.* **New York: Oxford University Press, 2006. Pp. 208. Paper, $24.95; ISBN 0-19-515423-1.**

Paul Johnson, professor of history at the University of South Carolina and author of a number of highly acclaimed works including *A Shopkeeper's Millennium*, has offered a fresh survey of the American republic's early and arguably most critical developmental period. Chapters 1 and 2 focus on the heated political debates between the commercial-industrial Federalists and the democrat-agrarian Jeffersonians over the most beneficial program to steer the course of the young nation. Such disputes laid the

groundwork for American party politics. President George Washington's earlier recommendation to avoid political factions seemed more and more distant. The next few chapters deal with the economic, social, and religious consequences of what historians have commonly referred to as the Market Revolution. Two competing cultures emerged. The North grew as a powerful industrial sector, while the South, with the ascendancy of "king cotton" and the plantation empire, focused its energy on an export agricultural economy and thus never grew out of its dependent "colonial status." The final section evaluates the regional economic expansion and competing political cultures that reached a point of no return by the 1830s.

Johnson wants to dispel the myth that both democracy and free-market capitalism for the United States represented the natural "two-sided coin of a 'free society.'" Expanding democracy, changing cultural identity, and the power of commerce and industry did not congeal into a homogeneously stable nation. Early America was rocked and also shaped by contest, fissure, and paradox; consensus was perennially undermined. Far from being amicable bedfellows, democracy and laissez-fairism were hostile adversaries. With competing plans for the direction of America, northern and southern citizens continued in opposing directions, locked in a Cain-and-Abel struggle that would eventually end in bloodshed. Perhaps one lesson we can learn from the early republican era is the way in which American identity was and continues to be "an ongoing debate."

The Early American Republic is a work of synthesis and reads as an historical primer. It rests heavily on a number of important secondary works from leading early republican scholars such as Charles Sellers, Nathan Hatch, Sean Wilentz, Mary Ryan, and Karen Haltunnen, to name a tiny but influential few. The author deftly pulls together each secondary source to bring harmony to a rather disharmonious age. Although nothing is original in the work—in fact, portions were taken from *Liberty, Equality, Power: A History of the American People*, a course book, now in its fourth edition (2005), that the author helped write—Johnson's objective is to present not a detailed analysis, incorporating the tools of new social, political, or cultural theory, but an overview of both history and historical literature. He admits that the book was written "for people who know little about the subject or who have forgotten what they once knew." For this reason, there is not much one can say by way of criticism, except for the hackneyed forest-for-the-trees comment that grand surveys often neglect crucial parts for the sake of the whole. But every once and a while, it is beneficial for seasoned scholars to renew our knowledge of a particular period. Students, from college freshmen to tenured professors, can often learn just as much from a textbook such as *The Early American Republic* as from an original monograph.

University of California, Irvine   Ryan McIlhenny

Alan Brinkley and Davis Dyer, eds. *The American Presidency.* **Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 2004. Pp. xv, 608. Paper, $18.95; ISBN 0-628-38273-9.**

Authors and editors Alan Brinkley and Davis Dyer have woven the interpretive essays of thirty-nine scholars along with their own into a work that covers the abbreviated stories of the forty-two chief executives and how their tenure in office has collectively changed the institution of the presidency. This elite group of historians, which includes Jean H. Baker, Robert Dallek, Michael Kazin, Drew R. McCoy, Roger Morris, and Alan Taylor, offer a variety of perspectives along with some new insights that keeps *The American Presidency* fresh. As a collection of quality narratives, this work is of high value to a vast audience. Adding more than biographical information, the contributors have masterfully intertwined the social, cultural, economic, and political climates that each president faced. However, essays on William Henry Harrison and James A. Garfield focus more on biographical information due to the brevity of their terms as president. An unexpected surprise is how men such as Thomas Jefferson are depicted differently by historians who write about them as vice-president and those who write about them as president.

The battles to remove or tighten the restraints of the Constitution on the presidency are well chronicled. Nicely documented is the expansion of executive power in the twentieth-century (at least until Watergate) which in turn weakened the legislative branch. Most chapters include an analysis of each president's best traits and character faults, their optimism towards a bright future and pessimism about the current state, and finally their greatest accomplishments followed by their biggest blunders. No contribution encompasses the before mentioned more than Roger Morris's essay on Richard Nixon's rise to the presidency, eased by his most trusted and powerful aide, Henry Kissinger, and the character flaws that forced him to resign and end one of the nation's great political careers in disgrace.

Despite the various updates there are some drawbacks to this work. Some of the 608 pages could be eliminated if overlapping information was deleted. Yet, how can experts on John Quincy Adams, Andrew Jackson, and Martin Van Buren accurately depict their subjects without mentioning the elections of 1824 and 1828 and how the outcome affected each of them individually? The lack of scholarly notes might bother those looking for additional sources, but the editors offer a "For Further Reading" section with some of those extra sources. Here the benefits far outweigh any of the work's drawbacks or limitations.

Already a rich reference source for anyone interested in the executive branch, this book would make an excellent companion text for certain American history courses, especially upper-level undergraduate or graduate courses on the presidency. It is not a presidential almanac, it is a serious yet abbreviated collection of essays written by leading historians who are experts of their chosen subjects. This work is about more than just interesting and obscure facts; some of the authors propose questions to the reader that would make for excellent class discussions. Nevertheless, the book is

constructed in a way that reaches beyond academia to an audience that would include the general reader who has an interest in the presidency.

Jacksonville State University   Scott W. Akemon

Jorge Canizares-Esguerra and Erik R. Seeman. *The Atlantic in Global History, 1500-2000.* **Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc., 2007. Pp. 288. Paper, $29.33; ISBN 0-13-192714-0.**

"The Atlantic world" has in recent decades become a widely accepted unit of study and analysis among historians. Many global history textbooks devote at least a chapter to the "Atlantic world," with such chapters often referring in their titles to "Europeans, Africans, and the New World." Courses in Atlantic history have become increasingly common, and publishers have been quick to respond with textbooks and readers. But how exactly does the "Atlantic world" fit into "global history?"

Jorge Canizares-Esguerra and Erik R. Seeman, the editors of *The Atlantic in Global History, 1500-2000*, point out the "narrative restrictions" that have, up to now, often limited the relevance of the "Atlantic world" for global historical studies. Works in Atlantic history, they suggest, have tended to be "organized along national lines," have "prevented historians from seeing the global dimensions of certain processes," and have generally focused only on "the early modern Atlantic." The essays in *The Atlantic in Global History* are intended to challenge the existing paradigm of Atlantic history by situating it more firmly in a global perspective.

Religion has been a relatively neglected topic in Atlantic history, and several of the essays in *The Atlantic in Global History* seek to redress this imbalance. In "A Catholic Atlantic," Alan Greer and Kenneth Mills take a transnational approach to relating the European Reformation to missionary efforts in the New World, while briefly suggesting as well comparisons and connections to missionary efforts in Asia. This essay makes an interesting companion piece to Patrick McDevitt's "Ireland, Latin America, and Atlantic Liberation Theology," which discusses a key development in twentieth-century Catholicism in an Atlantic context. Jorge Canizares-Esguerra compares how Puritans and Spanish clergy both used the concept of struggling against the Devil to understand the New World, while Erik Seeman provides a fascinating glimpse of how Jews maintained and modified their faith in the early modern Atlantic.

While religion has been a relatively neglected topic, the African diaspora has been a central concern of Atlantic history since the 1960s. Essays by Pier Larson, Christopher Schmidt-Nowara, and Jason Young address various features of the African diaspora. The essay by Larson is the most successful of the three, making a convincing case that the Atlantic African diaspora must be seen in a global context, as part of a larger, transnational history that includes both the movement of slaves across the Sahara and the Indian Ocean and changes in the nature of slavery in Africa itself.

Jason Young's essay on black identities in the Atlantic world shares a problem with several of the other essays in the volume. Essays by Young, Jose Moya (on modernity), and to a lesser extent, Peter Coclanis (on the global rice trade) will prove difficult reading for undergraduates, particularly first and second year students, because of their sophisticated concepts and at times convoluted language. Patricia Seed's essay on Portuguese navigational technology is a bit too specialized to engage the interest of most student readers, while Claire Schen's comparison of piracy in the Atlantic and the Mediterranean never quite seems to come together. Claudio Saunt's essay on the Choctaw in the eighteenth century and Reed Ueda's essay on Hawai'i in the nineteenth century have the most direct relevance for United States history, as well as for current issues—proxy war and immigration—likely to be of interest to students.

The Atlantic in Global History will be a valuable addition to upper-level undergraduate and graduate courses in Atlantic history. By "pushing the Atlantic envelop," to use Reed Ueda's title, the book will encourage students to see Atlantic history in new and challenging ways. As a supplementary textbook in lower-level undergraduate world history courses, the difficulty and specialized nature of some of the essays in *The Atlantic in Global History* might prove problematic. Some individual essays might work well, however, and this is certainly a book that all teachers of world history will benefit from reading.

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James L. Gelvin. *The Modern Middle East: A History*. New York: Oxford University Press, 2005. Pp. 338. Paper, $34.95; ISBN 0-19-516789-9.

Due to recent events that are distressingly familiar to all, the Middle East currently occupies a more prominent place in American popular consciousness than ever before. As a result, we have witnessed a dramatic increase in the number of academic positions, course offerings, and publications that take the "modern Middle East" (however defined) as their focus. Among the more significant of such recent publications is James Gelvin's *The Modern Middle East: A History*. Gelvin, Professor of History at UCLA, is both a prominent scholar of the region and the recipient of multiple teaching awards. Thus, he is more qualified than most to produce a textbook for undergraduate surveys of the subject.

As such a text, *The Modern Middle East* comprises a comprehensive, yet critical selective, synthesis of the relevant secondary literature. However, in structure, content, and style Gelvin's text represents a departure from previous approaches to the topic, most of which were structured around discrete temporal and geographic units and frequently contained sufficient detail to overwhelm and thus discourage students lacking basic knowledge of the subject matter. *The Modern Middle East* adopts a conventional geographic framework, roughly comprising Egypt, Turkey, Iran, and the Arabian Peninsula. It nominally adheres to an equally conventional chronology by

locating the advent of the modern period in the eighteenth century. However, Gelvin is careful to situate the region's defining historical events and processes in global and long-term contexts. He thereby goes a long way toward accomplishing three difficult yet critical objectives: (1) the deconstruction of hoary and misleading dichotomies like East/West and Traditional/Modern; (2) the presentation of a clear, yet nuanced, definition of modernity as a collection of historical phenomena and experiences; and (3) the demystification of the processes by which modernity "arrived" in the Middle East.

In so doing, Gelvin is also admirably concise. By maintaining a thematic emphasis throughout, he avoids the aforementioned problem of excessive and extraneous detail, focusing on a select number of illustrative examples for each of his overarching themes, e.g., the emergence of a truly global economy, European/Western economic and political penetration of the region, modes and consequences of indigenous states' responses, the destruction of empires and the formation of nation-states, the Arab-Israeli conflict, and the emergence of political ideologies and movements collectively designated (rightly or wrongly) "Islamist," among others.

Furthermore, this coherent and focused elucidation of the central events and processes of modern Middle East history is supplemented by a selection of maps, period photographs, primary-source documents, and "vignettes" (jokes, anecdotes, and topical asides) that help illustrate the aforementioned events and processes and render their human consequences concrete. It is also elegantly yet lucidly written, thus mercifully free of jargon and other linguistic "innovations" that so frequently plague academic prose and bewilder students.

Thus, my survey classes have benefitted from assigning *The Modern Middle East* as a required text. Its coherence and brevity permit the instructor to derive the structure and essential content of most lectures directly from the text, then emphasize or elaborate according to his or her expertise and interests, confident that the essential points have been covered. When used in conjunction with one of the many recently published primary-source readers or supplemented by a handful of such documents selected by the instructor, it is, in my opinion, the best text currently available.

Finally, I should note that a second, revised edition of *The Modern Middle East* that contains a new introduction further clarifying the authors' central arguments and updates the role of the United States in light of recent developments in Iraq, Palestine, and Iran, is scheduled for publication prior to August 2007.

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