THE AMERICAS IN SECONDARY HISTORY CURRICULA

A Thesis Presented for the
Degree of Master of Arts

by

James L. Busey, B.A.

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

The Ohio State University
1947

Approved by:

[Signature]
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. THE DEVELOPING INTERNATIONAL ORIENTATION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada: An Illustration</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>America: A Unit</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Inter-American System</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Interest in the Americas</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. THE AMERICAS AND HISTORY TEACHING</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OBJECTIVES</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History is Universal</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History: An Expansion of Understanding</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Americas as History Material</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. SURVEY OF SECONDARY HISTORY TEXTS</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World History Texts</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American History Texts</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary of Findings on History Texts</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. SURVEY OF LESSON PLANS AND TESTS</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson Plans</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepared Tests</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. EVALUATION OF PRACTICE IN THE LIGHT OF HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substantiation of Findings</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influences in History Instruction</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation of Practice Concerning the Americas</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI. PLACING THE AMERICAS IN THE SECONDARY</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HISTORY CURRICULUM</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Alternatives</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examination of the Alternatives</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII. PROBLEMS IN PREPARING THE NEW CURRICULUM</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Problems</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems of Development</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion and Exclusion of Materials</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minor Suggestions</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning Aids</td>
<td>181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

i1
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VIII. LEADS FOR FURTHER STUDY</td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIBLIOGRAPHY</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER I
THE DEVELOPING INTERNATIONAL ORIENTATION

Within the Americas are twenty-two theoretically self-governing political divisions. In terms of industrial production, two of these—Canada and the United States—are major powers, the United States leading the field with the highest total industrial production, and Canada with the highest per capita industrial production in the world. \(^1\) In terms of population, the United States ranks behind only China, India, and the Soviet Union. Brazil, with a population which has been doubling each twenty years and has now reached \(44,116,000\), \(^2\) stands on a level with or exceeds in number of inhabitants any country of Europe except the Soviet Union and Germany.

In terms of area, only the Soviet Union and China are larger than Canada (3,694,863 square miles), Brazil (3,285,319 square miles), and continental United States (3,022,387 square miles). \(^3\) Argentina, with 1,079,965 square miles, and Mexico, with 760,290 square miles, stand

---


\(^3\) Ibid., pages 4 and 8.
near the head of the world list in point of area.

In considering the physical components of leading political divisions, two points must be made:

1. The Americas occupy a significant physical position in the world picture.

2. A number of American nations share with the United States in contributing to this prominent physical position.

Canada: An Illustration

A detailed examination of the geography, resources, and population features of each American nation would over-emphasize an easily made point. A brief summary will be made, however, of some significant data which put at least one country of the Americas in a leading world position with respect to physical features and political and economic development.

Canada is selected for illustration because so much will be said later of Latin American international developments and because Canada's physical and cultural proximity to much of the United States makes our lack of information concerning her the more remarkable.

In area Canada is slightly smaller than the continent

\[4 \text{ Ibid., pages 4 and 6.} \]

\[5 \text{ On lack of information in United States concerning Canada, see Mitchell, loc. cit.} \]
of Europe. Canada has an area thirty times that of the United Kingdom, eighteen times that of pre-war Germany, and twice that of India. The Dominion contains within its borders approximately 1,500,000 square miles of forested land. An insignificant part of the total potential water power has been developed.

Canada's population now numbers some 12,307,000, having increased 188,000 since 1945 and 800,000 since 1941. As in most other American nations, a number of culture groups have entered into the Canadian population. Those of British origin number approximately 5,700,000; French-speaking Canadians total about 4,000,000; other groups include Eskimos, Indians, and descendants of early New England settlers. At the present rate of increase, it is estimated that by natural growth Canada in the year 2046 will contain a population of 25,000,000. This figure is probably conservative since it does not take into account a probable increased immigration from Europe.

---


7 Item in Newsweek, XXIX (May 5, 1947), p. 50.

8 Murray, op. cit., p. 214.

9 Ibid., p. 213.

10 Ibid., p. 215.
In the field of international relations, Canada has assumed leadership among the intermediate powers. The Dominion is the world's third trading nation.

Canada is coming to occupy a position of increasing military significance. The Dominion reports the world's highest output of nickel, radium, and uranium. Gladstone Murray, Public Relations Counsel of Toronto, has stated that, "by 2046 we shall be well advanced into the age of atomic power, with Canada in the forefront." The military position of Canada was clearly indicated during the recent war when the Dominion shipped over $2,000,000,000 worth of food to Britain and the U.S.S.R., convoyed in the main by ships of the Canadian navy. The central "top of the world" location in which Canada finds herself, with Great Circle routes crossing her territory, has further brought home to military strategists the fact that Canada must enter into whatever calculations they make.

As has been indicated above, Canada is reported as producing the world's largest per capita industrial output. The Dominion stands second in world production of cargo

11 Ibid., p. 214.
12 Mitchell, op. cit., p. 53.
13 Murray, op. cit., p. 215.
14 Mitchell, loc. cit.
15 Ibid., p. 514.
ships, wood pulp, and hydroelectric power, and third in the production of aluminum, copper, and zinc.

16 United States investors have placed approximately $1,000,000,000 in Canadian concerns, with Canadians investing about $1,000,000,000 in the United States. In the railroads linking the two countries are invested some $2,000,000,000.

17 It may thus be seen that by physical standards alone an American nation other than the United States is playing a notable role in the world scene. Material of a similar nature may be found respecting the populations, areas, and products of other American nations, such as Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Mexico, Peru, and Venezuela.

18

Culture

A well-known children's encyclopedia calls attention to a fact which is well known, but regularly overlooked:

When the Dutch were trading trinkets to the Indians for Manhattan island, the city of Asunción in the heart of South America was a well-organized community with schools, churches, and literary clubs.19

16 Mitchel, op. cit., p. 48.
17 Ibid., p. 53.
The first printing press to come to America was brought into Mexico in 1539, sixty-eight years before settlement of Jamestown.

The first American university was established at Santo Domingo in 1538, almost a century before the founding of Harvard. Universities were founded in Mexico and Lima in 1551, and had been in operation for eighty-five years when Harvard opened its doors in 1636.

When the first Europeans landed in America about 1000 A.D., a high degree of complexity had been reached in certain American cultures. A rigid hierarchy of ruling religious castes held sway over much of Central and South America. Systems for the recording of historical events were in operation. Skilled artisans were constructing works of engineering which were to last a thousand years. A complicated art, combined with an involved ritual, was a part of American culture.

A unique artistic pattern was later established in churches and cathedrals of Latin America—a peculiar combination of the baroque, Spanish, Roman, and pagan.

More recently, the world has known the paintings of Rivera, Orozco, and Siqueiros; the literature and thought of Latin Americans such as Heredia, Bello, Alberdi,

---

20 Luis Quintanilla, *A Latin American Speaks*, p. 35.
Sarmiento, Villalobos, da Cunha, Martí, Inéz de la Cruz, Rodó, and Rubén Darío; the literature of French Canadian Mazo de la Roche; and the humor of Canadian Stephen Leacock.

The influence of Latin America on our musical pattern is well known. From south of the United States have come rumbas, congas, sambas, tangos—some imported originally from Africa, others native to Latin America.

Important contributions to science have been made by workers in the other Americas. For example, from Canada has come the discovery of insulin by the late Sir Frederick Banting and Doctor Charles Best. Rust-resisting wheat has been developed by Sir Charles Saunders. Well-known medical work has been accomplished by Sir William Osler.

All that has been said so far is intended to underline a single point: the Americas hold an important place, not only in the world's economic and geographic pattern, but also in cultural achievements of world significance.

In the sense of its significance for the social studies, America is a unit. It is with this view that the matter will now be approached.

---

22 Ibid., pp. 35-37.
23 Mitchell, op. cit., p. 52.
24 Quintanilla, op. cit., p. 37.
25 Mitchell, loc. cit.
America: A Unit

Quintanilla has pointed out that the Americas have a common history—ancient, colonial, independent, and republican. In the struggle for independence, America's national histories are completely interwoven. Enrique Gil writes:

Bolívar, fighting for the independence of Venezuela, promised his help to the inhabitants of Argentina and conveyed to them his project for the union of all the countries of South America. In 1821 Bolívar, the Venezuelan, wrote from Colombia (Nueva Granada), to O'Higgins the Chilean, assuring him that the armies of Colombia were about to march into Ecuador with instructions to help the armies from Argentina and Chile to liberate Perú.27

Washington helped free only the eastern third of the United States. Latin Americans, fired by the Plan of Iguala, liberated much of the remainder. Francisco Miranda, commanding a ship, the Leander, and about a hundred recruits, and with considerable military supplies, all secured in the United States, opened the first revolt against Spanish rule in the Americas.29

26 Quintanilla, op. cit., p. 17.
27 Enrique Gil, Evolución del Panamericanismo, p. 21.
28 Herbert E. Bolton, address delivered before the Conference on Inter-American Relations, Washington, D.C., November 9, 1939, "We Owe Latin America," reported in American Neighbors, p. 10.
29 Mary Wilhelmine Williams, The People and Politics of Latin America, p. 291.
Quintanilla writes:

Heretofore, the problems of the Western Hemisphere have been examined from the limited angle of North, Central, or South. These distinctions—however useful in the past—are now obsolete. The America of today must be viewed as a unit.30

Cecilio del Valle, the Guatemalan writer, economist, and political leader of the struggle for independence, wrote: "America spreads through all zones, but it forms one single continent; Americans are scattered through all climes, but they should form one single family." In much the same vein, Henry Clay called in 1820 for, "a human freedom league," to reach "from Hudson Bay to Cape Horn." Others in the United States, however, were prevented by apprehension for United States sovereignty from supporting the pleas of Clay.

Simón Bolívar may have had much the same objective in mind when he wrote in the London Chronicle, September 5, 1810: "The Venezuelans will take care to invite all the people of America to unite in a single confederation." 33

30 Quintanilla, op. cit., p. 7.
31 Ibid., p. 23.
32 Ibid., p. 93.
33 Ibid., p. 91.
In 1815, Bolivar wrote from Jamaica:

I desire more than anybody else to see the formation in America of the greatest nation in the world, not so much as to its extension and wealth as to its glory and freedom. ... How beautiful it would be if the Isthmus of Panama should come to be to us what the Isthmus of Corinth was to the Greeks! 34

Quintanilla has pointed out that America is, geographically, the only true inhabited continent. Europe, Asia, and Africa, are substantially a single land mass, while Australia is regarded by many as hardly more than a large island. The Latin-Anglo-Saxon divisions, he indicates, are fictions, when Indian and Negro cultural contributions are considered. Dividing America by culture groups, any number of partitions are possible—Anglo-Saxon, Latin, French, Spanish, Indian, Portuguese, Negro, Catholic, Protestant, Mestizo, Mulatto, Zambo, etc. So-called "Latin" America is but one-fifth white, with other culture patterns spreading through all the Americas. Geographic divisions may be made—as for example, Eastern and Western America.

So interwoven has the American fabric become that

34 Gaston Nerval, Autopsy of the Monroe Doctrine, p. 131.
36 Ibid., p. 8.
37 Ibid., p. 3.
38 Ibid., p. 4.
political divisions are mere figures of speech. More descriptive divisions could possibly be made at the Mason-Dixon line and along the parallel 50° North Latitude. South of the Mason-Dixon line would be found, except in scattered spots such as Uruguay and Costa Rica, a highly stratified class society resting on a system of semi-feudal land tenure, with only Mexico attempting on a large scale to throw off its landed gentry. Between the Mason-Dixon line and the fiftieth parallel would be found a region characterized in the main by a high degree of industrialization, wage labor, and some vestiges of a former free enterprise system. North of the fiftieth parallel the economic pattern could be described as characterized by a rugged pioneering culture, large areas of available free land, and a comparatively high degree of free, competitive enterprise.

It has been the intent of the foregoing paragraphs to point out that America can be divided into no set number or type of divisions—that its cultures, its economics, and even its politics, transcend any fixed frontiers.

As an outgrowth of the American pattern set forth above, there has been gradually built over a period of time the inter-American system. This, the most concrete realization of the concept of American unity, will now be considered.
The Inter-American System

Introduction

Doctor Ricardo J. Alfaro has stated: "Pan Americanism is not a theory or a dream; it is a positive fact which manifests itself in the concerted action of all the American republics for purposes of common benefit in their international existence."

This section will attempt to show the degree to which the Pan Americanism set forth by Doctor Alfaro has been realized.

Luis Quintanilla observes that inter-American cooperation will in its final epoch have known four stages: (1) The period of independence, (2) the era of the Good Neighbor policy, (3) the stage of valid inter-Americanism, into which Quintanilla feels we are now entering, and (4) the period of merger of the Americas into organization for a world order.

Inter-American relations have developed along lines which may be associated with the following personalities:


2. Monroe: promulgated a unilateral doctrine, at the time favored by Latin American leaders but later distorted in application.


40 Quintanilla, op. cit., p. 237.
3. Blaine: was instrumental in forming a Commercial Bureau designed to facilitate trade among the Americas in the interests of the United States—an organization which later developed into the Pan American Union.

4. Franklin D. Roosevelt: gave impetus to rapid development of the inter-American system on the basis of equality, recognition of national integrity, and cooperation for mutual benefit.

Developing Objectives

In his opening address before the First International Conference of American States, in Washington, D.C., October 2, 1889, Secretary of State James G. Blaine remarked:

They can show to the world an honorable, peaceful conference of eighteen independent American powers in which all shall meet together on terms of absolute equality; a conference in which there can be no attempt to coerce a single delegate against his own conception of the interests of his nation; a conference which will permit no secret understanding on any subject, but will frankly publish to the world all its conclusions; a conference which will tolerate no spirit of conquest, but will aim to cultivate an American sympathy as broad as both continents; a conference which will form no selfish alliance against the older nations from which we are proud to claim inheritance—a conference, in fine, which will seek nothing, propose nothing, endure nothing that is not, in the general sense of all the delegates, timely and wise and peaceful.

\[41\] Ibid., pages 112 and 131.

\[42\] William Manger, Inter-American Highlights, 1899-1940, pp. 4-6.
In outlining his aims, Secretary Blaine said:

It will be a great gain when we shall acquire that common confidence on which all international friendship must rest. It will be a greater gain when we shall be able to draw the people of all American nations in close acquaintance with each other....It will be the greatest gain when the personal and commercial relations of the American states, south and north, shall be so developed and so regulated that each shall acquire the highest possible advantage from the enlightened intercourse of all. 43

The Commercial Bureau organized at the first conference did little more than provide a foundation on which might be built the structure of international relations envisioned by Secretary Blaine.

Woodrow Wilson expressed the thought that Pan Americanism should be a union of American partnership, and proposed a treaty respecting the equality and independence of various countries. With American troops in Nicaragua and with periodic interferences by the United States in Mexican internal affairs, however, it was too early to realize such an objective.

The first United States president to carry such aims into action, and to take from the inter-American system the stigma of United States domination, was Herbert Hoover, who disclaimed all desire for territorial expansion, and made a pre-inaugral trip through Latin America. Later, during the Hoover administration, provision was made for withdrawal of troops from Haiti, and two months before the inauguration of Roosevelt

43 Ibid., pp. 4-6.
United States forces were withdrawn from Nicaragua.

The "Good Neighbor Policy" was a term coined by Roosevelt in his first inaugural address, delivered March 4, 1933.

In December, 1933, President Roosevelt defined the new policy as follows:

The maintenance of law and orderly processes of government in this hemisphere is the concern of each individual nation within its own borders first of all. It is only if and when the failure of orderly processes affects the other nations of the continent that it becomes their concern; and the point to stress is that in such an event it becomes the joint concern of a whole continent, in which we are all neighbors.

It will be observed that Blaine's statement of objectives was general. While well received, these objectives were capable of a wide or narrow application. As matters developed, the Commercial Bureau set up by the first conference had little to offer in the way of meeting the lofty aims set forth by Secretary Blaine.

President Roosevelt's description of the Good Neighbor policy was specific, capable of clear interpretation, and suggestive of definite action by all the American nations.

Structural Development

During the interval of time between the Commercial Bureau of Blaine and the Pan American Union of today there

---

44 Quintanilla, op. cit., p. 154.
45 Ibid., p. 156.
46 Virginia Prewett, The Americas and Tomorrow, p. 95.
has occurred a gradual development which has transformed the character of the organization. The structural changes in the inter-American system will now be discussed.

The 1889-1890 conference created a paper organization called the International Union of American Republics. The work of this union was to be conducted by the Commercial Bureau, with headquarters in Washington, D.C. The Commercial Bureau was to be operated under direction of the United States Secretary of State.

In 1896 came the first move toward including other American nations in administration of the new union. A permanent executive committee was created, with five representatives from the Americas, including the United States Secretary of State, who was to act as chairman.

At the Second Conference of American States, which met at Mexico, D.F., from October 22, 1902 to January 23, 1903, the Commercial Bureau became the International Bureau of American Republics. At the same conference it was decided that the executive committee should become a Board of Governors, and should include the diplomatic representatives of all the American member nations, with the United States Secretary

48 Quintanilla, op. cit., p. 144.
49 Manger, op. cit., p. 16.
of State continuing as chairman.

Further reforms were made at the fourth conference, which met at Buenos Aires from July 12 to August 30, 1910. There the name given to the inter-American organization was changed from International Union of American Republics to Union of American Republics, and its guiding body, the Bureau of American Republics, became the Pan American Union.

In 1923 the chairmanship of the Pan American Union Board of Governors became elective, though the United States Secretary of State continued to be chosen for the post.

At the sixth conference, held in Habana in 1928, it was decided that the Governing Board should be composed of whatever delegates the governments might choose to appoint.

At the special Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace, meeting at Chapultepec Castle, Mexico, D.F., from February 21 to March 28, 1945, it was decided that the chairman of the Board of Governors should be elected annually and not reelected for an immediately following term. Thus was the long period of United States chairmanship of the board brought to an end.

---

50 Quintanilla, *op. cit.*, pp. 144-5.
51 Frewett, *op. cit.*, p. 61.
52 Quintanilla, *loc. cit.*
53 Manger, *op. cit.*, p. 47.
At the same conference it was decided that representatives on the Board of Governors should be individuals other than ambassadors accredited to the United States, thus making the Pan American Union increasingly independent of the diplomatic structure. However, protests from some of the smaller republics on the basis of economy have elicited a ruling that ambassadors may serve at discretion of countries concerned until the meeting of the ninth conference at Bogotá, to open in December of 1947.  

The governing organization of the Pan American system thus begins to approach a valid all-American pattern. The gap caused by the absence of Canada from the Pan American Union may be closed in the near future, thus bringing the inter-American ideal closer to fruition. In 1945 and again in 1947 Canada was asked by the United States if she would care to join. Finally, on April 14, 1947--Pan American Day--Arthur H. Vandenberg, chairman of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee, asked Canada to complete "our continental brotherhood from the Arctic Circle to Cape Horn." Ottawa declined immediate comment, but new reports indicated that the Dominion might accept.

55 Manger, op. cit., p. 3.
Some Outstanding International Agreements

The gradual broadening of the inter-American system in terms of administration has been indicated above. Some of the outstanding international agreements drawn up under the auspices of the inter-American system will now be mentioned.

1. General rules of policy:

Growing out of almost fifty years of inter-American development, the following general rules of policy are now recognized as determining the foreign policies of the member republics:

a. The member nations will respect their treaty obligations.
b. They will not intervene in the external or internal affairs of any other American state.
c. They forswear war or the use of force as an instrument of national policy.
d. They will not recognize territorial changes arising from the use of force.
e. They will contrive to settle international disputes by pacific means. 57

The direction in which the inter-American system is moving was indicated in the Preliminary Recommendations on Postwar Problems, formulated by the inter-American Juridical Committee at the request of the third meeting, at Rio de Janeiro, from January 15 to 28, 1942, of the foreign ministers of the member republics.

The Inter-American Juridical Committee outlined the

57 Prewett, op. cit., pp. 251-252.
tasks of the inter-American system as follows:

a. To repudiate the use of force in international relations and recognize that all nations must settle disputes by peaceful means.
b. To recognize the necessity of a more effective international organization.
c. To abandon political imperialism and eliminate exaggerated political nationalism, economic nationalism, economic imperialism, and the social factors of war.

The Juridical Committee stated that:

Nations must recognize in their mutual relations the priority of the moral law, which is the same for nations as for individuals; and they must make their conduct conform to the fundamental principles derived from that law. 58

2. A joint Monroe Doctrine:

The end of the unilaterally interpreted Monroe Doctrine began in 1933, when all the American republics signed at Montevideo an agreement supporting the principle of non-intervention in the internal affairs of one another. 59 For the first time the United States agreed to become a signatory to a general non-intervention agreement. The demise of the unilaterally distorted Monroe Doctrine was thus initiated.

58 Williams, op. cit., p. 901.
59 Manger, op. cit., p. 51.
Complete abandonment came with the Act of Chapultepec, signed at the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace, which ended at Chapultepec Castle, Mexico, D.F., March 8, 1945. The Chapultepec agreement pledged all the American republics to consider as an act of aggression against themselves "every attack of a state against the sovereignty or political independence of an American state...." All the American republics thus became participants in the phases of the Monroe Doctrine originally approved by Simón Bolívar.

Between 1933 and 1945 had occurred a marked transformation in inter-American relations.

The special Buenos Aires Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, which met in 1936, approved a formula providing that the American republics should consult and collaborate whenever the peace of these republics might be threatened from within or without. The principle of "consultation" thus established was to be invoked "in the event of war, or a virtual state of war, between American states, or in the event of an international war outside America which might menace the American republics."

60 "Chapultepec Triumph is Unity in Pan America," Newsweek, XXV (March 19, 1945), p. 70.
61 Williams, op. cit., p. 902.
63 Manger, op. cit., p. 52.
Specific machinery was organized at the Eighth Pan American Conference, meeting at Lima from December 9 to December 27, 1938, to carry into effect the general principle of consultation. The Declaration of Lima, signed December 24, 1938, declared the solidarity of the Americas on the basis of (a) tolerance, humanity, and the belief in the sovereignty of states, and (b) individual liberty without religious or racial prejudice, and agreed that consultation should be effected through meetings of the several foreign ministers in case the peace, security, or territorial integrity of any American republic should be threatened.

The first meeting of foreign ministers, convening at Panamá on September 23, 1939, issued a general declaration of neutrality. The second, meeting at Habana on July 21, 1940, issued the so-called Habana declaration:

An attempt on the part of a non-American state against the integrity or inviolability of the territory, the sovereignty, or the political independence of an American state shall be considered as an act of aggression against the states which sign this declaration...

The highest point in inter-American cooperation in the struggle against the Axis was achieved after the signing of

---

64 Williams, op. cit., p. 884.
65 Manger, op. cit., p. 54.
66 Ibid.
67 Charles Wertenbaker, A New Doctrine for the Americas, p. 147.
the Act of Chapultepec, in which the word "non-American" was struck out. A united front was achieved, and the last vestiges of the one-sided distortion of the Monroe Doctrine were laid to rest.

3. Conciliation and arbitration:

Out of the inter-American system has been erected the foundation for a structure of international conciliation of disputes. At the International Conference of American States on Arbitration and Conciliation, meeting during December, 1928, and January, 1929, there was signed a broad continental treaty providing for submission to arbitration of international disputes juridical in nature which had not been solved by diplomacy.

Peaceful settlements under the above conciliation agreement were made between Honduras and Nicaragua in 1937, and between the Dominican Republic and Haiti in 1938.

**Important Inter-American Organs**

A few of the international agreements drawn up under auspices of the Pan American system have been briefly described. Their implications have been suggested. The expanding scope of the organization may also be indicated by a survey of the bureaus and commissions working in most cases under direction

---

68 Manger, op. cit., p. 48.
69 Ibid., pp. 52-3.
of the Pan American Union.

A brief summary should include the following:

1. The Pan American Sanitary Bureau, created by the Second Conference, meeting at Mexico, D.F., October 22, 1902 to January 23, 1903.

2. The Inter-American Trade Mark Bureau, formed in 1910, but not an integral part of the Pan American Union.

3. The International Commission of Jurists set up by the third conference, Rio de Janeiro, June 26-July 6, 1912—an organization which has taken up the problem of codification of international law, and which has recommended a number of conventions later ratified by the several republics.

4. An independent American Institute for Protection of Childhood, organized in 1919.

5. The Inter-American Commission on Women, created by the 1928 Sixth Pan American Conference, meeting at Habana.

6. Division of Agricultural Cooperation, 1928.

7. Juridical Division of the Pan American Union, 1936.

8. Travel Division, 1937.

---

70 Prewett, op. cit., p. 58.
71 Manger, op. cit., p. 47.
72 Ibid., p. 44.
73 Ibid., p. 47.
74 Ibid., p. 58.

10. Division of Labor and Social Information, 1940.

Of the above bodies, the following have been noted for their accomplishments in promoting the purposes for which they have been founded: the Pan American Sanitary Bureau, the International Commission of Jurists, the American Institute for Protection of Childhood, and the Division of Agricultural Cooperation.

Building International Equality

Changes in the aims and organization of the Pan American Union in the direction of international equality have been indicated above. A few of the agreements which have operated toward that objective have been listed. The expanding scope of the inter-American system was demonstrated by naming some of the better known units operating within the general framework of American cooperation. Some concrete events which have occurred under inspiration of the inter-American system, and in evident sympathy with its aims, will now be cited. It will be seen that these events have tended to strip American international relations of the power factor formerly so prominent.

A diminution of United States influence was indicated in 1923, when it was decided, at the Fifth Conference meeting

---

Ibid., p. 47.
in Santiago, that any state, whether recognized by the United States or not, could enter the Pan American Union.

The policy of United States intervention in Latin American internal affairs was specifically reversed by Secretary of State Cordell Hull at Montevideo in 1933. In line with the new United States Good Neighbor policy, proposals for the first reciprocal trade treaties were also made by Secretary Hull at Montevideo.

That the United States intended to act according to its word was soon indicated. Marines left Haiti during 1934. On May 29, 1934, Cuba was released from obligation to include in her constitution the interventionist Platt Amendment. In August, 1934, a pact was signed settling outstanding differences with Panamá. Just prior to inauguration of the Good Neighbor Policy era, United States marines had been withdrawn from Nicaragua. Armed intervention by the United States in internal Latin American affairs has not occurred since enunciation of the Roosevelt policy. The fact that the Cárdenas expropriation of United States-owned oil resources and plants in Mexico elicited no overt act on the part of the United States demonstrates the transformation that has occurred in inter-American relations.

76 Quintanilla, op. cit., p. 145.
77 Prewett, op. cit., p. 88.
78 Ibid., p. 91.
79 Quintanilla, op. cit., p. 58.
Finally, there should be mentioned the elevation from legation to embassy rating, between 1898 and 1943, of all the Latin American diplomatic establishments in the United States. Thus has juridical equality of the various nations been recognized.

From the foregoing observations two trends may be noted:

1. An expansion and strengthening of the offices and machinery of the Pan American Union.

2. A growing recognition, by the most powerful American republic, of the principle of international equality in inter-American affairs.

The second trend was given genuine impetus by the change of United States policy after 1933, but its realization was facilitated by the growth of the Pan American Union, which had been going on since 1889.

**Strengthening of Inter-American friendship.**

The 1933 reversal of United States policy toward the other Americas was significant. Of even greater moment has been the consequent transformation in inter-American attitudes.

In 1928, J. Fred Rippy wrote: "Never have the Latin peoples of America been more bitter toward the United States than they are now." By 1936, however, President Roosevelt

---

80 Williams, op. cit., p. 902.

81 J. Fred Rippy, Latin America in World Politics, p. 253.
could tell Congress in his annual message:

At no time in the four and one-half centuries of modern civilization in the Americas has there existed...a greater spirit of mutual understanding, of common helpfulness...than exists today in the twenty-one American republics and their, the Dominion of Canada. 82

The transformation which occurred between 1928 and 1933 becomes clear when we consider the near-disintegration into which the Pan American system had fallen at the time of the 1928 Sixth Conference, held at Habana. The conference is to be remembered principally for the sensational exit of Charles Evans Hughes when delegates insisted upon discussing United States intervention in Latin America. The meeting failed completely, as result of United States opposition, in attempts at adopting the principle of non-intervention as a part of international law. 83 The difficulties of the delegates were increased by the fact that United States troops were at the time occupying Nicaragua and Haiti.

Tracing the background for the near-breakdown which faced the Pan American system in 1928, one must review highlights of previous conferences. The equalitarian objectives of Secretary Blaine were put to the test at the first conference, which met at Washington, D.C., October 2, 1889. A recommen-


83 Quintanilla, op. cit., p. 143.
dation was suggested by the delegates to the effect that foreigners in the various republics be given no rights not granted natives of the countries concerned. The United States refused to approve the recommendation.

At the Second Conference, meeting at Mexico, D.F., from October 22, 1901, to January 21, 1902, the same question produced discord. Agreement was reached by delegates of all countries except the United States that foreigners should expect no special treatment in time of internal strife. The agreement having been made among the other member nations, the United States was thus placed in a privileged position with respect to treatment of its citizens in foreign zones.

The Third Pan American Conference of Inter-American States convened at Rio de Janeiro on July 23, 1906. The Roosevelt-Panamá affair of 1903 engendered considerable tension at the meeting, and its accomplishments did not measure up to the standards of the first two conferences.

The Fourth Conference met at Buenos Aires in 1910. It had become increasingly evident that the United States intended to continue its policy of intervention in Latin American internal affairs. The tension created on the Isthmus of Panamá was sharpened by United States intervention in support of Conservative factions of Nicaragua in 1909, thus

84 Ibid., p. 139.
85 Quintanilla, op. cit., p. 140.
assisting in the overthrow of Liberal Dictator José Santos Zelaya.

The first three conferences had succeeded in passing a number of constructive measures, including the following: Recommendation that an intercontinental railroad be constructed; three recommendations concerning sea communications; a recommendation that a customs union be erected; approval of a proposed "Commercial Bureau of the American Republics"; a denunciation of the right of conquest; agreement on a convention for formation of codes on private and public international law; an agreement that the respective countries should join the Hague conference; agreement on a treaty for the extradition of criminals; expansion (in the third conference) of the Commercial Bureau, with instructions for that organ to assist in ratification of conventions approved at the conferences and to prepare data pertaining to treaties and conventions between the American republics; renewal of a treaty for arbitration of pecuniary claims; and creation of an international commission of jurists whose duty would be to formulate codes of international law for the American nations. 86, 87

The fourth conference adjourned without significant accomplishment.

86 Manger, op. cit., pp. 4 and 23.
87 Quintanilla, op. cit., pages 139 and 141.
Nicaragua was occupied by United States forces in 1912. Haiti was occupied in 1915, and Santo Domingo in 1916. April 21, 1914, saw the seizure of the port of Veracruz by the United States in response to a refusal by Mexican authorities to fire a twenty-one gun salute to the United States flag. The salute was to have been recompense for arrest by Mexican officials of a boat-load of United States Marines found illegally on Mexican territory at Tampico. In the battle for Veracruz, eighteen United States Marines and sixty defending Mexicans were killed. In 1916 General John J. Pershing led a fruitless pursuit into northern Mexico in search of the Mexican renegade revolutionist General Francisco Villa, after the latter had raided the town of Columbus, New Mexico.

In 1916, during United States occupation of Nicaragua, the Bryan-Chamorro treaty was ratified. The agreement called for (1) exclusive right by the United States to build an inter-oceanic canal along the southern frontiers of Nicaragua, (2) lease to the United States of the Corn Islands on the east coast for a naval site, and (3) lease of a naval site in the Gulf of Fonseca, on which were also the shores of El Salvador and Costa Rica. The latter two republics protested to the Central American Court of Justice on the grounds that their rights had not been properly considered. The court decided in favor of the plaintiff nations. Appropriation of

88 Williams, op. cit., p. 491.
funds for support of the court, which had been provided by Andrew Carnegie, was not renewed, and the court collapsed.

The Fifth International Conference of American States did not meet until 1923, at Santiago. The Uruguay delegation attempted to end the unilateral nature of the Monroe Doctrine. The United States refused to assent. A proposal for a Pan American court of international justice was referred to the commission of jurists. Offices of chairman and vice chairman of the Board of Governors were made elective, and four permanent commissions on economic and commercial relations, labor, hygiene, and development of intellectual cooperation, were established. Nothing further of major importance was accomplished.

Had the conditions prevailing since the turn of the century been dominant in 1933, it is to be questioned whether the seventh conference would ever have convened. An independent spirit had manifested itself among the other American republics, making impossible a continuance of interventionist policies along with successful operation of the inter-American system. As has been indicated earlier in this paper, however, significant changes took place as a consequence of the new United States policy. The pattern of conferences initiated at Montevideo in 1933 made clear the effects of

89 Ibid., p. 442.
90 Quintanilla, op. cit., p. 112.
91 Manger, op. cit., p. 42.
the Good Neighbor policy on a genuine inter-American system.

At Montevideo a resolution was adopted calling for lower tariffs, reciprocal trade agreements, and similar economic policies. Secretary Hull of the United States devoted much of his time and effort to clearing up the obstacles which had been created by interventionist policies, and to making clear that the United States was determined to end all such interferences in Latin American internal affairs. 92

Enough has possibly been said on preceding pages to indicate that the spirit of friendship engendered in 1933 was strengthened at the eighth and last regular international American conference held at Lima, Peru, from December 9 to December 27, 1938; and at the special Buenos Aires and Chapultepec conferences, held in 1936 and 1945, respectively. 93

It is anticipated that the Ninth Inter-American Conference will follow the same pattern. It is to be held at Bogotá, in December, 1947. A preliminary list of topics to be placed on the conference agenda has been prepared, as follows:

---

92 See Quintanilla, op. cit., p. 160.

93 See pp. 17, 21, and 22, above.

1. Reorganization of the inter-American system:
   a. Convention for the organization of the inter-American system.
   b. Declaration on the rights and duties of states.
   c. Declaration on the international rights and duties of man.
   d. Permanent organization of the Inter-American Economic and Social Council.
   e. Reorganization of the agencies for the promotion of inter-American cultural relations.

2. The inter-American peace system: Coordination of the treaties and conventions for the pacific settlement of international disputes.

3. Consideration of the reports presented by the Inter-American Juridical Committee on various matters entrusted to its attention.

4. Consideration of the statutes of the Inter-American Commission on Women, to follow a report presented to the conference by that commission. 95

In World War I, ten American nations joined in the common struggle; five severed diplomatic relations; and seven maintained neutrality. In World War II, fifteen nations declared war before 1945 on one or all members of the Axis; seven took the step during 1945; and none remained entirely out of the conflict. Inauguration of the Good Neighbor policy had proved friendly cooperation to be more effective than the United States Marines.

The scope of the Pan American system has been indicated, and its growth in international vision has been traced. It


96 Quintanilla, op. cit., p. 161.
now remains to point out the inter-American relationship to the United Nations Organization.

Pan America and the United Nations

In considering the relationship between the Pan American system and the United Nations Organization, two schools of thought present themselves:

1. The Pan American Union has developed into a power bloc which will find itself in conflict with the United Nations ideal.

2. The Pan American Union is an international organization which can provide much in the way of lessons, experience, and understanding toward the successful development of a world organization.

In The Americas and Tomorrow Virginia Prewett gives what is possibly unconscious support to the first view when she writes:

The zone of security that we are building in the New World offers us stability in time of peace and in time of war. Building it has been one of the most urgent tasks of our time. Preserving it will be one of the requisite tasks of our future. 97

The provision of standardized arms and munitions by the United States to nations of the Western Hemisphere tends to support the view that the inter-American system will develop into a bloc destructive of the aims of the United Nations and injurious to the cause of world peace.

97 Prewett, op. cit., p. 280.
It must be recognized, however, that in considering the validity of the power bloc concept, the inter-American system can no longer be considered as a pawn of the United States. If the system may be thought of in some quarters as presenting a divisive world force, it must still be seen as a limited international grouping, not as a unilaterally dominated organization. The size and population of Brazil—90,000,000 by 1960 at present rate of increase—the nationalistic, at least semi-fascist fervor in Argentina, the strong movement for self-determination in Mexico, the traditionally independent policies of Chile and Uruguay, and the strong bonds of international friendship being erected throughout Central America and expressed in the constitutions of that area, all throw into the discard any notion of the political domination of the hemisphere by the United States. As has been shown in preceding paragraphs, recent departures within the inter-American system from the aims and objectives of the Commercial Bureau of 1889 have been amply reflected in the constantly revised organization of the union itself.

The danger that the inter-American system could become a destructive factor in the United Nations organization may be very real. A distinction must be made, however, between the Pan American Union in its present form and the other world power blocs to which adherents to United Nations objectives point with concern. The Pan American Union, which is increasingly becoming a joint international enterprise, can
hardly be compared, for example, with the British colonial bloc or with the Soviet-influenced bloc. The distinction may seem to be a subtle one when dangers to world organization are being considered, but it becomes significant when it is considered that the Pan American Union can in no way influence member nations to participate in the United Nations Organization in a manner influenced by unilateral interests. Their participation can only be in the form of an amalgam of Western Hemisphere international interests, in the form of individual and often conflicting objectives based on national interests, or in the form of aims based on varying individual interpretations of the world organization ideal.

The second view—that the inter-American system can provide much support to the United Nations Organization—is at least openly held by most supporters of the union. Luis Quintanilla, for example, attempts to refute on philosophical, geographical, and historical grounds the notion that Pan Americanism is in conflict with world internationalism. He holds that Pan Americanism is the focal point for American international mindedness—that isolation is completely foreign to the inter-American ideal, and to the whole history of the movement. Reference to the unilateral nature of the Monroe Doctrine, he holds, is irrelevant, as that doctrine had no connection with genuine inter-Americanism, and has been in fact superseded within the Pan American system by the Act of
In *A Latin American Speaks*, Señor Quintanilla expresses the world organization ideal of the Pan American concept when he writes:

> We, of the Americas, by organizing our inter-American life, are contributing positively to the establishment of a democratic world government. We can offer to other continents a mass of historical experience, which was lacking to the intensely nationalistic makers of the first League of Nations.  

The question of inter-American relationship to the United Nations Organization will continue to be a vital issue for debate among students of the social sciences. The debate is no less heated within the Pan American Union itself. Between 1923 and 1938, regular Pan American conferences were held each five years. The nine-year interval since the 1938 Lima conference reflects the anxiety felt in inter-American circles respecting the effects which Western Hemisphere meetings might have on the world organization. At the special Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace, held at Chapultepec Castle in 1945, there were openly expressed the differences of opinion arising out of the expected formation of a United Nations

---


organization. In this connection, Mary Wilhelmine Williams writes:

The second problem was the relationship of regional security pacts, like the Pan-American Act of Chapultepec, to the general international organization. Some Latin American states wanted to make the Pan-American organization virtually independent of the general security system. It was obvious, however, that if an exception was made for the Pan-American system, other regional pacts could be created which would claim the same privileges, and the whole structure of world peace would be endangered. After prolonged discussion, an agreement was reached in favor of the paramount authority of the world security organization. It was agreed, however, that the supremacy of this world authority should not impair the inherent right of individual or of collective self-defense in case of an armed attack before the world organization had taken effective means to deal with the aggressor. Thus the Pan-American system was provided for in a way that left it strong and useful, but not supreme and independent. 100

It is not the function of this discussion to settle the debate into which the Pan American system has thus been plunged. It is, however, very much the function of this chapter to indicate the paramount importance of the inter-American system in the developing world pattern. Its relationship to the world organization must be added to the list of factors making of the Pan American system a subject vital for understanding significant social problems.

New Interest in the Americas

Something has now been said of the geographic size and of the respective populations of some of the other American

100 Williams, op. cit., p. 904.
nations. An illustration of the importance of many of these
nations in the world scene was taken from the case of Canada.
Mention was made of cultural achievement in the other
Americas. The concept was suggested that America is a geog-
graphic, economic, and social unit as much as it is a collec-
tion of separate divisions. A growing political unity through
the inter-American system was sketched at some length. It
would seem unnecessary that more pains be taken to underline
the vital place held by the other Americas in the world scene.
If more proof be desired, however, it can be provided by
examining the interest taken in the other Americas during the
years of the recent world war. The significance of the rest
of the hemisphere was clarified by the exigencies of war.

During 1943, for example, it was found by experiment in
Toledo, Ohio, that after Latin American programs had appeared
in club meetings, books on Latin America came to be more in
demand than were books on the war. During 1943 the Pan
American Union filled 10,000 requests for material on Pan
American Day. The United States Office of Education and the
office of the Coördinator of Inter-American Affairs filled
requests at over two thousand per month, and the Pan American
Union found itself called upon to mail out 2500 packages of
informational material each month. A three-day session on
inter-American affairs attracted ten thousand persons to the
meeting during March 13, 14, and 15, 1943. 101

101 Frewett, op. cit., p. 280.
Conclusion

The important place occupied by the other Americas in any international framework is clear. To United States students of the social studies, the Americas may be seen to be involved in the development of international good-neighborliness in the following three ways:

1. The Americas provide a means for demonstrating to social studies students and to the entire world the workings of United States foreign policies. United States relations with the other Americas are bathed in a spotlight of critical world scrutiny. In international discussion and criticism of United States foreign policy, the other Americas will come repeatedly to the fore.

2. The Americas may provide a foundation for the creation of a unified world concept. The experience, the failures, and the achievements of the inter-American system can aid in the erection of such a world ideal.

3. The inter-American system can demonstrate whether or not the Americas seriously intend to participate in a world organization. Can the American nations establish the validity of their professed international intentions by relinquishing some of their sovereignty within their own hemispheric system?

International good neighborliness does not provide the only justification for a knowledge of the other Americas on the part of social science students. Quite outside of the
inter-American system and its implications, such countries as Brazil, Argentina, Canada, Mexico, and Colombia, are already making their influences felt in the cultural, economic, and political life of the world community. That their influence will become increasingly potent is not to be doubted. To fail in understanding these peoples threatens to impose a severe handicap on the student and teacher in the social sciences.

The contributions offered by a study of the Americas toward fulfillment of objectives that guide history instruction will next be discussed.
CHAPTER II

THE AMERICAS AND HISTORY TEACHING OBJECTIVES

In the preceding chapter the Americas were discussed in the light of their physical stature in the world community. Basic elements of hemispheric unity were suggested. The inter-American system, some significant phases in its evolution, and its place in world organization, were partially described. The chapter concluded with the thought that out of all of these factors must come a realization that the Americas might well occupy a place in the social studies program.

The present chapter will turn specifically to the field of history, and will point to the contributions offered by a study of the Americas toward realization of objectives commonly stated as guiding history instruction.

**History is Universal**

James Harvey Robinson, Henry Johnson, and many others have repeatedly pointed out that history becomes defective when it confines itself to limited areas or to sharply delineated facts. Even Jean Jacques Rousseau's *Emile*

---


criticized the type of history which points out only clearly fixed and dated facts and slips over less conspicuous but possibly more important items.  

It is clear that neither by definition nor by stated objective is any sizeable world area, such as the Americas, compelled to remain outside the pale of history. Examining some of the better-known definitions and objectives, one finds nothing to favor any particular area over any other equally significant area. The following definitions are fairly representative of the dozens which are commonly given:

History is the science of the development of men in their activity as social beings.--Bernheim.

History is the biography of a political society or commonwealth.--Arnold.

History is a record of the past actions of men.--Anon.

History is past politics.--Freeman.

In listing aims guiding history instruction in 1909-1910, Henry Johnson brings together in broad outline objectives which have supposedly guided history teachers and

3 Henry Johnson, An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences, p. 56.

students in the past, some of which, he believes, guide them in the present:

a. Discipline of memory, imagination, judgment.

b. Setting up of ideals of patriotism, conduct, social service.

c. Illumination of other studies, particularly geography and literature.

d. Establishment of an ultimate relation with current events.

e. Various aims concerned with mind-training and skill-training.

f. Improvement of expression and debate.

g. Enrichment of the humanity of the pupil, enlarging of his vision, and the influencing of his concepts toward charitable views of his neighbors. 5

From none of the foregoing definitions or objectives can it be reasonably supposed that history instruction must confine itself to Europe, to the United States, or to any specific area of social development. The objectives concerned with development of the faculties have largely fallen into discard. Relationships of history to current events and to significant problems are today stressed. Yet in no objective, old or new, used or discarded, is there implied a limitation of history in point of area.

In fact, more recent thinking seems to suggest the inclusion of all significant world areas. In its Conclusions and Recommendations, the Commission on the Social Studies,

5 Henry Johnson, Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools, p. 103.
of the American Historical Association, recommends that:

In view of the growing interdependence of the nations, the increasing significance of the Far East, and the rapid development of certain newer regions, relatively more attention should be given to Latin America, to Africa, and particularly to Asia. 6

Calvin Olin Davis, writing in 1914, had the following to say about history:

**History:** It breaks down provincialism through revealing the relations, common traits, and interdependence of one community with another, and one nation with all nations. 7

The Committee on the Social Studies, reporting in 1916, had this to say about world history:

One of the conscious purposes of instruction in the history of nations other than our own should be the cultivation of a sympathetic understanding of their peoples, of an intelligent appreciation of their contributions to civilization, and of a just attitude toward them. 8

Respecting the social studies in general, the Committee of 1916 reported as follows:

The Social Studies are understood to be those whose subject-matter relates directly to the organization and development of human society, and to men as members of social groups. 9

---

6 American Historical Association, Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission on the Social Studies, p. 53.

7 Davis, op. cit., p. 13.

8 Johnson, op. cit., pp. 113-114.

9 Ibid., p. 74.
The Commission on the Social Studies of the National Historical Association agreed with this view when it reported:

Social education cannot help a given society attain its just ends unless it lays bare the structure of international relations and emphasizes the importance of the kind of national behavior essential to the rational conduct of human affairs. 10

The Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges, investigating the matter in 1940, had this to say:

We believe that American history should be so written and taught as to produce in the minds of the students a keen consciousness of the world beyond the United States. Our country has never been isolated, its contacts with other peoples and countries are now more numerous and important than ever before. 11

The Committee also felt that:

We must know our own history if we are to understand our country and deal adequately with its problems. But many aspects of our history can be fully understood only in the perspective of world history, and many of our problems cannot be solved without reference to other peoples. 12

It has been suggested above that neither by definition nor by any accepted objective does instruction in history exclude any significant world region. It has been further indicated that history instruction not only does not exclude,

10 National Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies, A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools, p. 25.

11 Report of the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges, American History in Schools and Colleges, pp. 119-120.

12 Ibid., p. 22.
but actually demands inclusion of, all significant areas. In the paragraphs to follow, an attempt will be made to demonstrate that history instruction in the United States is even more certainly obliged to include the Americas when history is considered as providing an expansion of understanding.

**History: An Expansion of Understanding**

Stated broadly, history is conceived by modern students as providing an expansion of understanding.

This broad objective may be seen to have two aspects--one general, the other specific:

1. Generally, history is thought by many to provide an expansion of understanding of all subjects and to promote the formation of correct thinking habits in those subjects.

According to Karl Müller, writing in the nineteenth century, no study has any meaning without history. *History, he thought, saves students wasted effort in any field.* A better understanding of all subjects, as promoted by correct thinking, was in the mind of the Committee of Seven when it reported that: "...the habit of correct thinking is the supreme result of good teaching in every branch of instruction."

Some of the subjects to which the history of the other Americas might contribute a broad understanding have been

---


14 The Committee of Seven, *The Study of History in Schools*, p. 18.
implied in the preceding chapter. If art, literature, music, or science, for example, are to be pursued with comprehension, the history of their development in the other Americas must be included. Philosophy is not complete without the philosophies of Rodó and of del Valle. Political thinking is not entirely understood without a knowledge of the thinking of José de San Martín and of Simón Bolívar.

2. Specifically, history is more commonly thought of today as providing an aid toward understanding the working of social phenomena, and in evaluating their place in the creation and solution of present problems.

Since 1912 the United States has probably gone farther than any other country in using history as an explanation of vital current problems. Now it revolves about current problems, writes Henry Johnson, like eighteenth century history revolved around examples to good conduct.

History: An aid to understanding the present--this theme, with a variety of undertones, has in recent years provided the most commonly expressed objective toward studying and teaching history. The following interpretations of the theme "understanding the present" have manifested themselves:

a. Sympathizing with present dominating social features.

"Understanding" the present has at times come to mean "sympathizing with" the present, or "tolerating" the

15 Johnson, op. cit., p. 134.
present. For example, the Committee of Seven reported in 1899 that the objective of secondary education had apparently been well fixed as being that of giving students a "sympathetic knowledge of their environment." At another point, the Committee stated that:

...it does not seem necessary now to argue that the most essential result of secondary education is acquaintance with political and social environment, some appreciation of the nature of the state and society, some sense of the duties and responsibilities of citizenship, some capacity in dealing with political and governmental questions, something of the broad and tolerant spirit which is bred by the study of past times and conditions. 17

b. Satisfying curiosity about present conditions.

Combined with the aim of creating a "sympathy" for the present has gone a body of thought which has conceived of history instruction as providing "understanding of the present" by satisfying a sort of idle curiosity about present conditions. That this must have been the conception, at least in part, of the Committee of Seven, is indicated by their statement that: "...we can fully understand the present only by a study of the past; and the past, on the other hand, is appreciated only by those who know the present." 18

A general, all-around understanding of the present and of the past, without any necessary implications as to evaluation or

16 Committee of Seven, op. cit., p. 17.
17 Ibid., p. 17.
18 Ibid.
action, seems to have been indicated by the Committee.

Again, the English Historical Association, setting forth its aims in 1916, listed the following as being characteristics of history study:

1. It should train the pupil...to understand something of the conditions—social, political, intellectual, and economic—that have moulded the present.

2. Its study should be approached through that of the political community in which the pupils live. 19

James Harvey Robinson could be interpreted as suggesting that history is best conceived as satisfying a curiosity about present problems, when he writes that history, like memory, saves the student from bewilderment. History, he indicates, can give a comprehension of existing conditions founded upon a knowledge of the past. But when Robinson writes that our selection of phases of history may quite logically depend upon the current pressing problems, and that history ought "to help us understand ourselves and our fellows and the problems and prospects of mankind," he is clearly indicating that history is not simply a means for creating submission to, or sympathy for, present conditions; that it is not merely a means for satisfying idle curiosity

19 Ernest Scott, *History and Historical Problems*, p. 121.


about present imponderables; but that history outlines a course of action.

c. Evaluating surrounding conditions and suggesting courses of action.

It is around this latter conception that today's thinking about "understanding the present" has begun to crystallize. Henry Johnson clearly has this thought in mind when he writes that no matter how history is approached, its aim is liable to be to enlighten understanding of the present and stimulate intelligent moral action. Again, he is thinking of history as proposing action as well as clarifying understanding when he describes the continuing search for laws governing historical, political, and social events.

The Committee of Seven partially captured the thought that history might provide a guide to intelligent action when it found that: "We must know how forces have worked in the social and political organization of former times." W. H. Woodward, writing in 1901, certainly had the same thought in mind when he wrote that: "History deals with

---

26 Committee of Seven, op. cit., p. 20.
subject matter of perennial concern to human life and motive."

Over 270 years ago Christian Weise (1642-1708) came closer to the modern conception of history teaching aims than do some present-day interpreters when he started working out his history course by figuring what history should be studied by boys living in Saxony in 1676. He attempted to make all of their history bear on Saxony and its problems, and even suggested that his students begin with current events and work backward. Such a close application to current problems could only mean that much beyond mere "sympathy" or even curiosity was involved.

History, then, may provide an understanding of the present in the sense that it points to a course of action. With this interpretation in mind, "understanding" becomes "evaluating" and is immediately robed in a meaning of deep significance to the student of the social studies. Robinson is thinking along these lines when he writes that: "on every hand the past dominates and controls us...." and refers to the affection of the conservative for the past.

Robinson places much emphasis on history as

29 Robinson, op. cit., p. 256.
30 Ibid., p. 257.
explaining the existence of things. He does not, as he might well have done, stress the study of history as helping to evaluate them.

If the student can know something of the development of a practice or institution, he can better evaluate its place in the social fabric. If he finds, for example, that an organization, such as the United States Bureau of Indian Affairs, was originally set up to accomplish certain objectives, but has changed its objectives two or three times since its foundation, and is now pursuing a course of action diametrically opposed to the course originally intended when the institution was created, he may well come to question the validity of its continued existence; or if he finds that an organization or practice once established to attain certain goals, has long since either passed by or forgotten its initial objectives, and is now apparently operating solely in the interests of its own perpetuation, he may have reason to demand that the organization or practice be abandoned; or, finally, if he finds that a political practice, such as suppression of the right of free speech, has invariably been followed by the outbreak of destructive war involving the suppressing nation, or by the reduction of living standards and general human rights, he may be tempted to search for a causal relationship between free speech and human welfare,

31 See Robinson, op. cit.
and to come to evaluate the right of free speech in advantageous terms.

The relationship of history to understanding of the present in terms of evaluation and of action pervaded the aims set forth by the Commission on History appointed by the College Examination Board in 1936. The Commission listed history instruction objectives as including:

1. An understanding of the fundamental problems which have faced man in his social evolution.
2. Some knowledge of how he has dealt with these problems at different times and in different places.
3. An objective attitude towards all social customs, organizations, and institutions as being not ends in themselves but means to ends, and a disposition to weigh and measure them not in terms of blind loyalties but in terms of their adequacy to serve the purposes they are designed to serve.
4. An appreciation of the fact that no movement in human affairs can be adequately comprehended or properly appraised without reference to the impulses, near and remote, which set it in motion.
5. An appreciation of the fact that human society is always in motion, never static, and that the concept of unceasing change is just as essential to the understanding of any social organism as it is of any biological organism.
6. An appreciation of the fact that since change is of the essence of society, the social machinery must be constantly readjusted to meet the changing social needs of a constantly changing world.
7. An attentive attitude, therefore, to all ideas, seriously directed towards the improvement of the social order, accompanied, however, by a critical distrust of all social medicines concocted and prescribed without adequate knowledge either of the nature of the disease or of the history of the patient.
8. An appreciation of the fact that different conditions of living and different standards of value produce different ways of dealing with fundamental social problems; an acceptance of diversities of culture as the nature of things and not in themselves undesirable; and a capacity not only to approach objectively but to participate understandingly in the
ways of thought and the ways of action of cultures different from our own.

9. A sense of social responsibility which involves not only intelligent participation in the operation of the social machine as it is, but also intelligent cooperation in the making of such alterations in the social machine as shall keep it in close adjustment to changing social needs.

Finally, (10) the Commission believes that history properly taught, should develop certain definite attitudes in dealing with social material of all sorts. It should offer a particularly favorable opportunity to train students: (a) How and where to get information, (b) how to weigh evidence and discount prejudice, (c) how to reach logical conclusions, (d) how to select, arrange, and present social data as preliminary to the formation of a sound opinion about any social pattern, past or present. 32

In the above discussion, it has been pointed out that history is universal, unlimited in location, and therefore to be as much associated with the other Americas as with any other significant area. History has been described as providing an expansion of understanding, in that it broadens knowledge in any field, and promotes the formation of correct thinking therein. By a few examples it was shown that, within such a concept, the other Americas have much to contribute to such a study. Finally, it has been indicated that the study of history, as at present conceived within the framework of the social studies, is envisaged as evaluating present-day practices and institutions, and as outlining a course of action concerning them.

It is with the relationship of such a conception to the other Americas that the remainder of this chapter will be principally concerned.

**The Americas as History Material**

This section will devote itself to a summary of some of the significant social problems and trends in the other Americas, with the thought that a historical study of the bases of such phenomena might provide material toward the understanding of similar problems elsewhere. Examination will show the extreme nature of many of these other-American problems, and will tend to point up their historical bases in a manner that may not always be so simple in the complex, urbanized society developing in the United States.

As an expansion of economics, sociology, or of politics; as an elucidation of current institutions, practices, and problems; or as a basis for evaluating such phenomena and proposing a course of action - it will be found that in many instances a historical study of the other Americas stands supreme.

**Economic Problems**

1. Maladjustment of nourishment and wealth.

The Americas, including large sections of the United States, are characterized by wide variation in distribution of wealth, and by consequent contrast between conspicuous consumption on the one hand and undernourishment on the
other. George Soule, David Efron, and Norman T. Ness in their study, *Latin America in the Future World*, make clear in tables and diagrams the low dietary level, almost entirely lacking in meat, milk, or eggs, which predominates throughout Latin America. 33 Manioc and coffee; tortillas and beans; or a little fish and rice, depending on the locale—these constitute the standard Latin American diet for masses of the population. 34 The overwhelming majority of persons lives from day to day on an absolute maintenance minimum. Such impoverishment stands in sharp contrast to the opulence enjoyed by a wealthy minority resident in the capital cities.

Agricultural living standards in the United States are described in unflattering terms by reports of the Committee on Education and Labor, United States Senate. 35 Maldistribution of wealth in the United States was pointed out by Representative Amlie in a speech of August 26, 1935, before the House of Representatives, when he showed that if one hundred dollars were to be distributed among one hundred


34 Ibid., p. 22.

men as the national wealth is distributed in the United States, one man would have $59.00; two men, $9.00 each; twenty-two men, $1.22 each; seventy-five men, less than seven cents each. In 1940, according to another report, the average annual income in the United States was eight hundred dollars. Raymond P. Brandt, writing in the Washington Star on July 19, 1942, emphasized that there is no such thing as "a United States standard of living," but that there are many standards of living, with wide variations between them.

It may thus be seen that the other Americas share with the United States the economic factor of maldistribution of wealth. The historical bases for the phenomenon are deserving of serious study.

2. Housing and sanitation.

The authors of Latin America in the Future World point out in glaring terms the desperate shortage in housing and sanitation facilities found throughout Latin America. Rural housing conditions, they point out, are even worse - if that is possible - than urban conditions, and are particularly bad in big company or hacienda-controlled areas.  

---

36 Luis Quintanilla, A Latin American Speaks, p. 53.
38 Scule et al., op. cit., p. 34.
it may thus be seen, is another factor making of the economic life of the Americas a field worthy of historical scrutiny.

3. Sickness and health.

It has been estimated that of Latin America's 120,000,000 inhabitants, probably fifty million are sick. Latin Americans are harassed by typhoid, dysentery, yaws, yellow fever, tuberculosis, malaria, and hookworm. In many sections of Latin America tuberculosis runs particularly high, affecting from 50 per cent all the way to 95 or even 100 percent of the population. Malaria is a great scourge, intensified by Dutch monopoly of cinchona bark. Hookworm is almost universal in some sections, with from 98 to 100 per cent of the Bolivian people suffering from the disease. At the same time, reflecting the low standards of living, hospital beds and doctors are at a premium. Only Uruguay and Panamá can claim half the number of hospital beds per capita found in the United States.

Because of the miserable health conditions described above, high mortality rates prevail throughout most of Latin

\[39\] Ibid., p. 40.
\[40\] Ibid., p. 40.
\[41\] Ibid., p. 46.
\[42\] Ibid.
America. Life expectancy in the Latin American republics as a whole varies from thirty-two to forty-seven years. This is to be compared with the United States life expectancy of sixty-two years, five months.

4. Semi-feudal working conditions.

Like Eastern Europe and China, the Americas outside of the United States and Canada are characterized by a predominant, almost overwhelming, agricultural economy. In most of the countries this agricultural type of activity is dominated by a species of feudalism, called peonage, involving bondage to the estate, without specified remuneration. Particularly are Ecuador, Peru, Guatemala, Bolivia, and Chile known for this type of economy. Possibly similar in some respects to the peons of these countries are the share-croppers of the United States.

Latin American peons are subject to debt bondage, which is in most cases transferrable to children, and contracted through advances of liquor, money for police fines, coca, etc. Payment in script, good only at hacienda or company stores, is prevalent over a wide area. Coca chewing and

---

43 Ibid., p. 39.
44 Ibid., p. 91.
45 Ibid.
46 Ibid., p. 61.
47 Ibid.
48 Ibid., p. 92.
liquor consumption, which in turn fasten the system of debt bondage more firmly on to many Latin American workers, are promoted by company stores.

5. Low education standards.

Poverty, poor curricula, and disease, are strong factors in preventing Latin American children from attending school as they should. The majority, if they attend at all, leave after the first or at the latest the second grade. Illiteracy is generally high, ranging from 12 per cent in Argentina to 82 per cent in Honduras. Countries proud of their educational achievements are Uruguay, with 20 per cent illiteracy, Costa Rica with 23 per cent, and Chile with 24 per cent illiteracy reported. Surveys indicate that some improvement, however, is taking place in Latin American education, with the addition of more schools and of more practical curricula.

6. Disentangling cause from effect.

The authors of *Latin America in the Future World* list two principal underlying causes for low Latin American living standards: (1) The land tenure system, and (2) the pattern

---

49 Ibid., p. 27.
50 Ibid., p. 189.
51 Ibid., pp. 190-194.
of economic activity - that is, one-sidedness and dependence on foreigners.

They do not hold to the view that tradition and a weakened working class necessarily prevent development, as these have been present in other countries which have succeeded in improving their conditions. The problem for the social studies is to unravel the economic problem as manifested in the other Americas into its component parts - that is, determine what features are basic to the pattern, and what features, though apparently causal, are simply secondary effects acting as causes of tertiary phenomena.

7. Different types of development.

It must be cautioned at this point that not all of the Americas have experienced precisely the same type of development. Indeed, there are cases in which countries adjacent to each other have known widely different types of economic development, as in the case of Costa Rica, Uruguay, and Canada, as contrasted to Nicaragua, Argentina, and the United States, respectively. Costa Rica enjoys a comparatively wide degree of individual land ownership, though of plots sometimes too small for effective production, while Nicaragua suffers from a high degree of concentration of land ownership.

---

52 Ibid., p. 134.
53 Ibid., p. 60.
Uruguay, as contrasted to Argentina or even to Brazil, has developed an economy in some respects highly socialized and high coöperative. Canada, while industrialized along its southern frontier, differs from the United States over a large sector of its territory in having a semi-pioneering, individualistic economy.

It may be seen that the Americas offer to the social studies student a wealth of comparative material on economic cause and effect, and a mass of historical data rich in illuminating, explanatory items of aid in evaluating significant modern-day social problems.

Possible Causal Factors

The similarity of many economic problems of the other Americas to problems faced in the United States becomes clear from a consideration of the above brief summary. It also becomes clear that many of these problems of the other Americas are suffered in extreme form. It may be assumed, therefore, that the search for material which will assist the history student in his function as appraiser of practices and institutions and director toward a course of action, may become particularly fruitful in the Latin American field. In examining the first possible causal factor in economic problems, this function of history of the other Americas becomes striking.
1. Concentration of land ownership.

"The fate of the Indians," writes Doctor Jorge Bejarno in his book, *Food and Nutrition in Colombia* (Bogotá, 1941), "was both abundant and heterogeneous. Their undernourishment began with the usurpation of their lands and their crops." Soule and his co-authors take up several countries of Latin America and show how in each there is an almost incredible concentration of land ownership in the hands of a few. They also indicate that in all countries vast acreages remain held, but unused. Only Haiti, Santo Domingo, Costa Rica, and El Salvador are somewhat better off as result of (1) a different type of colonization, and (2) less intensive drive by foreign capital for appropriation of the land.

In Chile, these writers demonstrate, .3 per cent of the landed properties comprise 52.4 per cent of the total area. In Brazil, 9.9 per cent comprise 77 per cent of the area. In the state of Sao Paulo, 6.7 per cent of the holdings control 64.2 per cent of the area. In the republic of Venezuela, .8 per cent of the land holdings comprise 46.48 per cent of the total area. Canadian writers warn that Canadian control of resources is falling into fewer hands,

54 Ibid., p. 28.
55 Ibid., p. 85.
56 Ibid., pp. 352-354.
and that resultant class differences are on the increase.
Reports have been issued citing the concentration of land control into which the United States is falling.

Finally, what small land-holding there is in the Americas is found in many cases to be on such a small scale as to be economically non-productive, unable to compete either with the power of the large holders or with the mechanization that some of them are gradually introducing.

Soule, Efron, and Ness, list the following as being characteristic of the Latin American land economy:

1. Monopoly of land.
2. Monopoly of distribution in the hands of the big landholders.
3. Rural population in peonage, share cropping, or tenancy.
4. Protective legislation either non-existent or ignored.
5. Land use characterized by urge for quick profits - not for use.
6. Prestige often more important than profits - and prestige dependent principally upon mere ownership of vast tracts of land, without any diminution of prestige being attached to non-use.
7. No land taxation - taxes, therefore, being applied to unstable imports and exports, as the masses have income insufficient for taxation purposes.
8. Dependence of landholders on low wages for profits rather than on productivity; therefore, a lack of machinery.

59 See Rupert B. Vance, Farmers Without Land. Public Affairs Pamphlets Number Twelve, revised 1940.
60 Soule et al, op. cit., p. 85.
10. Transportation facilities provided for landowners rather than for the nations concerned.
11. Almost entire absence of rural electrification.
12. Lack of agricultural credit except for those able to take advantage of its facilities - i.e., the large landholders.
13. An agricultural cooperative movement thus far mainly on paper only, or in the form of employers' cooperatives for the furtherance of their mutual marketing or other interests.
14. Predominance of colonialization (usurpation of the labor power and the means of subsistence of a people) over colonization (creative release and development of untapped human and natural resources for the benefit of the people concerned.  

A social studies approach to the history of concentration of land ownership in Latin America should reveal some highly revealing factors which have direct bearing on evaluation of the whole institution of land ownership. For example, in examining types of land grants which gave rise to present monopolies, the student would find: (a) The capitanías, or repartimientos - huge grants made to early court favorites and to military leaders, (b) caballerías - special grants to mounted Spanish troops, (c) encomiendas - large grants made to persons high in court favor, ostensibly in exchange for a promise to care for, civilize, and Christianize the Indians forcibly brought within the encomienda confines, (d) reducciones - sizeable grants made to church orders for missionary purposes, and (e) ejidos - residues of native

61 Ibid., pp. 62-65.
communal land holdings, generally broken up by colonial and republican forces, but gradually returning to the economic scene in a few areas such as Mexico.

The student would come to see the Church as at one time owning over half of the land in each country of Latin America. He would discover, possibly to his surprise, that the creole revolts for independence had no desire to grant lands to the Indians - that rather than make such a move, leaders including Bolívar, O'Higgins, San Martín, and Sucre, relied on the military aid of foreign mercenaries. Finally, the social studies examination would demonstrate that as much land was lost by the Indians to political and military leaders during republican days as during colonial times - that speculation and donations to foreigners served to reduce the public domain to the vanishing point.

A number of American problems have been cited. A glaring causal factor has been briefly described. The functional place of history in this one matter has been indicated. It is to be hoped that the place of the other Americas in the study of history is becoming increasingly clear. Some other factors of social significance, with implications for the study of history, will now be presented with the object of

---

62 Ibid., p. 66.
63 Ibid., p. 67.
64 Ibid., p. 67.
further pointing up the contribution to be made by material from the Americas toward any social studies approach to historical knowledge.

2. Unbalanced trade.

The concentration of land ownership and low general living standards found throughout much of the Americas is inextricably related to the narrow economic base so characteristic, at least, of Latin American economics. Only a few different types of exports are found throughout all of Latin America. The economic life of Latin America rests in the main upon export. Exports bring the new money into circulation. Fluctuations in quantities and values of exports affect the whole of Latin American economy. Latin American republics are all peculiarly subject to economic fluctuations of leading import nations, such as the United States. 65

3. Foreign exploitation.

All of the Americas have known a long struggle against the oppressive hand of Europe.

Quintanilla writes: "...even a superficial survey of general conditions throughout the Hemisphere shows that our masses have definitely one thing in common: the plight caused by the ruthless exploitation of man by man." 66

66 Quintanilla, op. cit., p. 52.
Much of America has been subject to waves of individuals who have come to get rich on, not in, the continent. In Latin America, where such tendencies have been most striking, the peculiar combination of foreign exploitation, one-crop economy, land monopolization, and dependence on export of one or two products, have served to characterize much of the economic behavior of the region. The student is struck by the long-standing historical effects in Latin America of dependence upon foreign exploitation for economic sustenance. Government policies have been subverted to the interests of foreign monopolists; popular movements for reform have been effectively frustrated; and a form of mass subjection to extra-territorial owning groups, so characteristic of colonial economies, has come to dominate much of the Latin American scene long after the departure of the Spanish regime.

4. The geographic factor.

When Simón Bolívar despaired, "I have ploughed the sea," he was expressing his dismay at the difficulties involved in securing American union. A large share of the obstacles to inter-American cooperation were in the form of immense geographic barriers. Geography as a causal factor stands

68 Ibid., p. 63.
69 Ibid., p. 38.
out throughout the history of American development. The Andes and the Amazon basin have resulted in the separation of Spanish South America into a number of different political divisions, and the unity of Portuguese South America in the form of the vast area of Brazil. The Laurentian shield, "a million-square-mile wedge of pre-Cambrian rock that reaches around Hudson's Bay and down to the Great Lakes," has kept much of the population of Canada along the southern frontier of that country. The Rockies, the Great Plains, and the Appalachians, have accounted for much United States economic and historical phenomena otherwise inexplicable.

Mountainous barriers have been held by some to be as much responsible as Spanish separatist efforts for the provincialism of much of Latin America and for the colonization under which much of the continent has fallen. The geographical factor, therefore, must be considered in conjunction with the factors of foreign exploitation, narrow trade channels, and concentration of land ownership, if the history student is weighing American problems, evaluating institutions and practices, and outlining courses of action.

5. American economic influences in other areas.

The low living standards prevalent through much of the

Americas affect world economy through two channels:

(1) They make the purchasing power of much of America a negligible factor in world economy, thus withdrawing from avenues of trade a sizeable continental mass.

(2) They tend to throw on the world market large quantities of products which cannot be purchased in the areas of production.

The colonialization of much of Latin America, it may be seen, produces a peculiarly sensitized spot in the world economic picture - a spot which, in its own periodic moments of weakness, may seriously affect economic trends in other lands.

That the economic patterns of the Americas are closely interwoven in terms of influence may be shown by the case of Canada, which has emerged from World War II with a large machine tool industry, a synthetic rubber industry, and a shipbuilding industry, all of which were negligible or nonexistent before the war. Social studies students will be interested in following the pattern of evolving Canadian-United States economic relationships, to find out what possible effects the new, competing industries to the north may have on relations between the two countries, and on problems within Canada herself.

A study of fluctuations in relative currency values in

71 W. E. Greening, op. cit., p. 343.
connection with an examination of ratios of real wages can lead to a clarification of thought in this matter if evidence is gleaned from the American scene. For example, for one hour of work a person can generally obtain more goods in the United States than would be the case in any other American nation. Yet, for one dollar more home-made goods can be purchased in many American nations than can be obtained in the United States. Some countries, such as Venezuela, however, prove to be exceptions. By extending such a study into former times - expanding the examination of economics to include some history of the topic - the student may broaden his base of evidence, and may come to understand the factors involved in this particular situation, and to determine whether or not a course of action is indicated.

6. Reform tendencies.

Reform, as might be expected, has been slow in much of the Americas. Countries in the forefront of economic progressivism have been Uruguay, certain provinces of Canada, Costa Rica, Chile, and Mexico. Uruguay has developed an economy similar in many respects to the cooperative pattern of Scandinavia. Chile has the oldest cooperative legislation, with origins dating back to 1925. It would appear, however, that these are utilized in the main by employers in their own interests.  

72 Soule et al., op. cit., p. 223.
Housing problems have recently been attacked in several countries, with Chile taking the lead. Costa Rica has become known throughout Central America for its high degree of social legislation. The reform movement of Mexico growing out of the 1910-1920 revolution has become famous.

Conflict, meanwhile, is carried on in Canada between socialist influences emanating out of the mother country, and capitalist ideology brought across the border. The C.C.C.F. (Canadian Co-operative Commonwealth Federation) secured control of the province of Saskatchewan during the summer of 1944, and has been putting in a program of social security and state control and development of industry in that province. The effects of this movement are now matters of debate throughout the Dominion. It is thought in C.C.C.F. circles that the Liberal party, having passed its age of usefulness, may soon dissolve into sectional and economic groups, thus enabling the more radical organization to obtain power.

In the above discussion of economic problems and possible causal factors, enough random items have perhaps been introduced

73 Ibid., pp. 185-188.
74 Greening, op. cit., p. 344.
75 Ibid., p. 345.
77 Greening, op. cit., p. 347.
to indicate that the other Americas are replete with problems of an economic nature which in many cases may be more extreme than, but still similar to, problems within the United States. It may readily be seen that if a study of history is to create an understanding of present-day problems, an evaluation of practices and institutions, or an outline of a course of action, its work may be defective if it overlooks material from the other Americas.

**Political Problems**

Charles A. Beard writes in *A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools* that: "...over-reliance on ideas has been responsible for the failure of a hundred paper constitutions...." Nowhere is this better illustrated than in the history of Latin American constitutions, where the constitutional statement of highly desirable aims has had no relation in fact to the actual social situation.

Another feature of Latin American constitutions is the "transitional clause", wherein, after citing the liberties to be guaranteed and the social rights to be supported, the documents frequently add a "transitional clause" providing that certain voting rights, election clauses, and personal liberty guarantees will not become effective until a later date, until which a designated leader will rule without benefit of democratic processes. At the time of expiration

---

78 National Historical Association, *op. cit.*, p. 25.
of these special powers, a revolution is announced, a new ruling group takes office, a new, democratic constitution is promulgated, and the revolutionary clique holds office for a further period under a new "transitional clause." 79

In general, it may be said that actions of most American governments rest on decisions and interests of a few, and not on a broad, popular base. Participation of the masses in Latin American politics has been negligible most of the time.

Another phase of American political issues deserving of thorough historical study is the liberal-conservative struggle which has become a feature in much American political life. Battles between Liberals and Conservatives ripped to pieces the early Central American confederation. Revolutions in many Latin American countries have been, under various names, outcomes of Liberal-Conservative struggles. The pattern, of which Nicaragua provides an excellent example, has generally centered around a large, land-monopolizing Conservative group competing for political power and consequent favors with a small professional, artisan, middle-class Liberal group.

The struggle, under a variety of names and leaders, is

79 See, especially, the constitutions of Nicaragua and Paraguay.

80 Soule et al, op. cit., p. 98.
coming to be a part of United States political life. Western Canadian farmers are coming to look on the Liberal and Conservative factions as tools of the Montreal and Toronto bankers. At the same time, French Canadians are known for the strong conservative influence which they have wielded in Canadian politics, with the consequence that labor legislation has been left largely to the provinces.

In addition, therefore, to the contribution which it can make to understanding and evaluating features in our society, a study of history of the other Americas is likely to reveal a mass of data bearing on current political topics.

Race and Prejudice

James Harvey Robinson stresses the absurdity of talking about "race" after the great confusion of peoples which has been occurring over a period of centuries.

The Americas furnish a first-class illustration, not only of the great historical mixture of races, but of the ways in which the so-called "race question" has been handled. Brazil has become outstanding as an example of an area of racial-cultural assimilation. Portuguese settlers, already possessed of strong African background, came into

81 Greening, op. cit., p. 345.
82 Mitchell, op. cit., p. 52.
83 Robinson, op. cit., p. 88.
harmonious relationship with Negroes imported into Brazil during the slavery period. Slavery was abolished by general common consent in 1888, so that no extreme prejudices were stirred through inter-sectional struggle. Brazil, as result of this historical development, has known no "race problem".

The United States, on the other hand, has become outstanding as an example of an area of racial-cultural friction. North European settlers with no recognized previous African contacts, could find little in common with African culture. In addition, a bitter struggle was waged which was associated in many minds with the emancipation movement. The slavery, or racial, issue, came to have a sharp North versus South connotation in the popular imagination.

The Indians have fared badly throughout the Americas. They were exploited and enslaved by the Spanish, and massacred by the North Europeans. The struggle of Bartolomé de las Casas for betterment of the Indians' condition stands out in American history as an example of self-sacrificing devotion to the cause of a persecuted, oppressed group, and should become a part of any social studies approach to the subject of history. The later disillusionment of las Casas when planters imported Negro slaves in place of Indians, should also become known to students of problems arising out of the concept of race.

Canada has known prejudice of a nationalist sort. For
example, a wave of 90,000 immigrants swept into Canada during 1846 and 1847, leading to a strong prejudice on the part of much of French Canada against all types of immigration. The hope of many Canadian circles now, however, is that the Dominion may become increasingly a high example of unity with diversity, and that Canadians will become bi-lingual in an attempt at creating harmony and understanding throughout the country. That strides are being taken is indicated by the new Bill of Rights passed in Saskatchewan, calling for fines and jail terms for the practice of racial discrimination. Under the C.C.C.F. government, three Canadian-born Japanese have been appointed to high government posts in the province.

Nationalism

The Americas present a wealth of historical material bearing on the phenomenon of nationalism. A thorough study is needed of the factors which have thus far prevented Central American union. The break-up of Bolívar's federation of Nueva Granada into the republics of Ecuador, Colombia, and Venezuela, should be studied for an evaluation of the

---

84 Gladstone Murray, "Canada a Century Hence," a speech delivered before the Canadian Unity Alliance, Montreal, Canada, December 12, 1946, and reported in Vital Speeches, XIII (January 15, 1947), p. 213.

85 Ibid., p. 216.

86 Item in Newsweek, XXIX (May 5, 1947), p. 50.
existence of these separate entities. The relative unity of Portuguese South America and the nationalist disunity of Spanish South America should be examined. The severe struggle which perennially breaks out between Haiti and Santo Domingo needs a thorough investigation. The factors basic to the debate now raging in Canada between those who desire creation of a definite Canadian flag, emblems, and bill or rights, and those who see separation as a deterrent, could in all probability be examined with profit by the history student.

Out of these and similar studies of the nationalism characterizing much of American life may come a new understanding of the basic causal factors involved, and a possible worthwhile approach to the entire nationalist question may be revealed.

Pan-Americanism

In the previous chapter much was said about Pan Americanism in an attempt at showing its paramount importance in the developing world pattern, and at demonstrating the important problems involved in the relationship of the Inter-American system to the world organization.

In evaluating international practices and institutions and in suggesting an international course of action, however,

87 "Is Canada a Nation?" Canadian Forum, XXVI (June, 1946), pp. 53-54.
Pan Americanism can do much more for social studies students than simply stand as a significant agency which should be studied. The examination of the inter-American system can serve to fulfill definite objectives of history instruction.

Objectives of the Pan American system were outlined by President Ezequiel Padilla of the Chapultepec Conference, when he stated:

What is it that America expects of this conference? It expects practical resolutions that will alleviate its misery....The Western Hemisphere contains over 30,000,000 square kilometers of frustrated lives. If democracy is not an imposter, it will offer safe, steady work, decent homes for the people, schools, hospitals, and above all, economic security not based on dictatorship and slavery, but on true liberty, fair distribution of goods and social justice for all. 88

The Pan American system offers to the student of history an invitation to study the manner in which such stated objectives have or have not been realized, the forces which have prevented their realization, and the factors which may be expected to aid in their fruition.

William Manger writes:

The authors (of Pan Americanism) no doubt felt that it is preferable to build on a firm foundation and to expand as experience warrants than to attempt too elaborate an organization in what was, after all, a new and untried field. Time has proved the wisdom of this policy. 89

89 William Manger, Inter-American Highlights, 1890-1940, p. 6.
Has time so proved? Were the authors of Pan Americanism actually moved by such considerations? If so, were their objectives realized? If not, how is it that the Pan American system has reached its present point of development? Within the body of knowledge bearing on these and similar questions may be found an important task for the field of history study and history instruction. The neglect of this task means the omission of materials important for the evaluation of many significant international questions.

At the 1933 Montevideo conference, the Mexican foreign minister, Manuel Puig Casauranc, made this statement:

Pan Americanism is a noble lie. It could never exist while it has not juridical content, political scope, or economic aim. Hence I applaud Mr. Hull's proposals as laying the basis for economic cooperation. 90

What had Secretary Hull done to so gain the support of the Mexican foreign minister? First, immediately upon arrival at Montevideo Mr. Hull had made personal, informal calls on the other delegates. He had secured the friendship of the delegates by talking to each privately. Second, he had stopped a threatened Argentine bolt, with the consequent split which such a dissension might have entailed, by privately suggesting to the Argentine minister, Señor

90 Charles Wertenbaker, A New Doctrine for the Americas, pp. 102-103.
91 Ibid., pp. 100-103.
92 Prewett, op. cit., p. 87.
Saavedra Lamas, that the latter take the lead in promoting the signature of various pending peace pacts. Finally, by proposing the reciprocal trade pacts, he had shown that the United States intended to carry the new Good Neighbor policy into action.

William Manger writes: "Under the impetus given to it at Montevideo, the Pan American movement advanced along every line of endeavor—the political, the economic, the intellectual, the juridical, the social."

The implications of the Montevideo conference for the student of history are fairly obvious. To be ignorant of the more important phases of this conference, it would seem, would deprive the history student of a body of extremely significant material.

Out of the Montevideo conference, incidentally, came sixteen of the trade agreements by 1937. Sales to agreement-countries showed a 60 per cent rise in 1937 over what they had been in 1935; to non-agreement countries, only a 39 per cent rise in sales by the United States was registered.

The broadening of Pan American administration was described in the previous chapter. The first Latin American chairman of the Board of Governors, Carlos Martins of Brazil,

93 Ibid., p. 90.
94 Manger, op. cit., p. 51.
95 Prewett, op. cit., pp. 96-97.
took office in November of 1945, to be followed by Doctor Guillermo Sevilla Sacasa of Nicaragua in 1946 and Doctor Antonio Rocha of Colombia, in 1947. The developing historical process involved in this evolution is worthy of study both with respect to its causes and with respect to its effects on the inter-American system.

It is thought by students of American affairs that by not intervening in the case of the Mexican oil expropriation, the United States secured later Mexican cooperation in the war. Certain it is that during the first world war the United States found itself fighting a half-dozen small campaigns against its Latin American neighbors. As was pointed out in the preceding chapter, no such friction developed during the second world war. Virginia Prewett writes: "...it was the practice of democracy in international relations that held our southern bulwark and gave the great democracies time to rally and come back to fight." On foundations laid at Montevideo, Buenos Aires, and Chapultepec, cooperation was secured in air bases, in guaranteeing against sabotage, in declarations of non-belligerency, and in the distribution of war materials.

---


97 Prewett, op. cit., p. 199.

98 Ibid., p. 200.

The history of the inter-American system, it may be seen, is replete with aids to understanding, to evaluating, and to formulating plans for action.

The Americas and Internationalism

It was pointed out in Chapter One that the problem of Pan American-United Nations relationship has become highly significant in any consideration of the growing need for world organization. Supporters of the inter-American system are already expressing concern over failure of the Pan American Union to call the Ninth Conference, and are apprehensive that long intervals between conferences might weaken the Pan American Union and prevent it from functioning as intended.

However, such intervals have been permitted at least partially out of a desire to aid in the smooth functioning of the new world organization. The issue, therefore, may be seen to have reached a stage calling for concrete decision.

On the other hand, the inter-American system has been presented as a worthy example to be followed by any international organization. Charles Wertenbaker, for example, writes: "If it (the Doctrine of the Americas) fits the nations of the Western Hemisphere, then, with alterations, it may one day fit the world."

100 Manger, op. cit., p. 127.
101 Wertenbaker, op. cit., p. 169.
Another American problem related to the United Nations Organization has been the United States-Canadian defense mechanism, and especially the reported United States military activities in Canada. National Defense Minister Brooke Claxton has felt called upon to deny that there is anything to reports of large-scale United States installations and maneuvers at Churchill, in the province of Manitoba.

It may again be seen that inter-American affairs offer a large body of material toward intelligent understanding of the international complex in which students must find themselves.

Conclusion

This chapter has been devoted to indicating the vital place held by the Americas in any consideration of the field of history. It was shown, first, that history is universal, that there is no known reason for omitting any important sector of the world's population from any history curriculum. It was suggested that in all of the lists of history objectives, no valid basis can be discovered for the inclusion of certain limited areas and the exclusion of others; and that in fact, authorities expect that history instruction shall cover the world scene.

It was then pointed out that a valid aim in the study of history is at present considered as being that of

understanding, evaluating, and acting intelligently within the social framework. The remainder of the discussion has pointed out the materials offered by the Americas toward attainment of these objectives.

The next two chapters will analyze current secondary texts, curricula, and tests and measurements to determine whether or not the Americas are being given the place in secondary history instruction which their position in the social fabric apparently demands.
CHAPTER III
SURVEY OF SECONDARY HISTORY TEXTS

Introduction

The discussion thus far has been confined to a demonstration of: (1) the significant physical position held by the other Americas in the world community, (2) the fundamental unity pervading America, (3) the insistent demand that history instruction cover all areas of human development, and (4) the contributions offered by the Americas toward fulfillment of objectives stated as guiding history instruction.

In the preceding pages an attempt has been made at showing that history instruction must include the Americas in its program. Secondary history curricula are now the concern of this paper. Consequently, the discussion will now proceed with a survey of secondary history materials to determine the extent to which the other Americas are covered in secondary history instruction.

The present chapter will review leading texts commonly used in secondary world history and American history courses. The following chapter will take up lesson plans, and will supplement its examination of these by presenting a brief analysis of some better known prepared history testing materials.

Time has not permitted as close an examination of any of
these sources as might be desired. It is to be hoped, however, that the three types of materials will so supplement each other that a reasonably approximate view of the treatment accorded the Americas in secondary history instruction may be secured.

There is, of course, no question respecting the coverage given the United States in secondary history programs. It has been the burden of this paper to show that the United States is but one of "the Americas", and it is not felt that apology need be made for the stress laid on the other American republics.

If it be found that only the United States is adequately treated, then the Americas, it may be deduced, are not being covered. Our concern, therefore, is with the treatment being given the American nations other than the United States.

As will be seen in the chapter that follows, separate history courses in the other Americas are not ordinarily offered in United States secondary schools. It may be surmised, therefore, that one would expect a secondary student to find the other Americas presented either in his world history or in his American history courses. Books intended for use in these two types of history courses will consequently be reviewed.
World History Texts


In this world history text there is no mention of Latin America. Countries lying below the Rio Grande are entirely omitted. There is passing mention of Canada, as a part of the British Empire.


Essentially a history of Europe. Five pages, at the most, are devoted to Latin America, while Canada is introduced incidentally as a part of the British Empire.


Intended for Junior High School use. Nine pages are included on Latin America, and a few words cover Spanish-Portuguese colonization. Reference is made to colonial Canada, in addition to four pages on Canadian history, the Dominion being introduced as one of the parts of the British Empire.


This text organizes history around the topical plan. It is so thoroughly integrated that it becomes difficult to determine how much material is drawn from the other Americas.
It seems probable that not over five to ten pages use material from the Western Hemisphere outside the United States. There is one page which is clearly concerned with developments in the Dominion of Canada.


This is a history of the period from 1914 to 1943. Whereas nations outside the Western Hemisphere are considered on their own merits, with discussion of internal developments, Latin America is mentioned only in terms of United States policy toward the republics to the south, United States intervention in Latin America, etc. Nothing, apparently, is offered on internal affairs of the various republics. There are two chapters on "The Americas", but these sections revolve entirely around the United States and its relations with Latin America, with added consideration of internal problems of the United States.


Pages 199-204 deal with "Latin American Revolts," and a few pages touch on exploration in South and Central America. Two or three passing references may be found elsewhere in the book to the other parts of the Western Hemisphere.

A secondary history of international developments. Pages 247 to 261 take up New World developments. The period after 1914 is stressed, though early chapters do deal with developments back to 1810.


This text is a socialized history of the world, and includes modern-day descriptions of various areas. Its aim is stated as being that of developing socially minded citizens. Pages 336-396 take up Latin America. The authors saw fit, however, to include only two pages on the historical evolution of Canada.


Intended for junior high use. No pretense is made at including the Western Hemisphere. A very few paragraphs touch on Latin America under the heading: "How Strong Nations Plunder the Weak."


One paragraph takes up European colonization in Latin America. Twelve pages (pp. 568-580) outline the Latin American revolutions. Pages 635-640 discuss Canada as a
member of the British Empire. No other mention, except in occasional passing reference, is made of the other Americas.


Pages include no mention of developments below the Río Grande. Three pages are included on Canada.


This text is divided into six parts: Europe, the Soviet Union, the Islamic States, the Far East, Africa, and America. Pages 344-361 are devoted to Latin America and to Canada.


Latin America is given one line on page 168. On pages 321 to 322 one short paragraph discusses Latin America. Pages 667 to 683 take up the entire matter of American development outside of the United States and Canada, while pages 601 to 610 discuss Canadian evolution.


In Volume One, a very few pages are devoted to colonization in the Americas. A total of possibly three paragraphs are given to the Latin American republics. A discussion of Canada covers three pages.

Pages 467-480 unravel Spain's colonial history. Two pages discuss the significance of the Christ of the Andes. One page covers Canadian developments. A few passing references to the other Americas are found elsewhere in the text.


An addition, Part Twenty, from page 605 to page 642, contains a rather thorough treatment of Latin American history and problems. However, only the one page devoted to Canada in the 1934-1936 edition is to be found in this later, enlarged edition.


A world history of modern and contemporary economic, political, and social development, with some digressions into ancient history. Forty-four pages out of the 567 total are devoted to Latin America, with five pages (pp. 138-143) on Canada. The book is apparently intended for junior high use.


One paragraph deals with Spain in America. One paragraph, page 457, takes up the Spanish American independence movements. One paragraph, pages 459-460, discusses the
Monroe Doctrine. Two pages are given to later Spanish American developments, especially concerning themselves with matters of arbitration and trade. One paragraph takes up Canada, and there are articles on explorations.


As in the text mentioned above, two pages are given to Spanish America, and one paragraph to Canada, in addition to passing references. Chile is spelled "Chili" both in text and in index.


Pages 375-386 on colonization mention Spanish and Portuguese settlements. Eight pages cover Latin American developments, including independence movements. One page touches on Canada, with the usual comments on Canadian explorations. The text is almost entirely devoted to Europe.


Pages 431-437 take up Spanish colonization, with some mention of English and French in Canada. Unit VII, called "The People of the World Since 1878", with 136 pages, makes mention of almost every inhabited section of the world, but excludes Latin America. Maps and pictures added in the back of the book make no reference to Latin America. Two and
one-half pages are devoted to Canada, in connection with references to the British Empire.

**American History Texts**


This is a standard United States history text. Latin America is mentioned only in connection with early discoveries and conquests and in infrequent contacts with the United States. Subtitles referring to "America" or to "New World" are invariably revealed by subsequent textual material to refer only to the United States.


This book is strictly a United States history text. Latin America is not mentioned aside from important contacts with the United States. The authors reveal a spirit of consistency, however, when they omit references, in chapters on explorations, to the conquest of Mexico by Cortés and of Peru by Pizarro.


This text contains material on Pizarro and Cortés, after which the other Americas receive no further mention. References to the "New World" must in all cases be interpreted to mean only the United States.

A standard United States history text. The book contains a few lines on the Spanish explorations in the New World.


This is a United States history text, about junior high level. On pages 28-39 is discussed the question: "How did Spain Establish and Govern its American Colonies?" In this section, fourteen lines are devoted to Spanish government in America, the remainder to conquerors and missionaries. No further mention is made of Spain or of Latin America except in references to contacts with the United States. The book does contain a treatment of Indian civilizations in the Americas.


Intended for junior high levels. The book is a collection of historical readings calculated to vivify United States history. Except for mention of Columbus, the book confines itself to readings in United States developments.


This is similar to the above work, but more advanced.

This text contains three pages on Columbus, and twenty on "Spain in North America." On pages 637-648 are discussed the Monroe Doctrine and related items. The remainder of the book, which contains 875 pages, is entirely devoted to the United States. As in the work by Ames et al, mentioned above, consistency was maintained by omitting reference to Spanish activities in South America, and by confining treatment of North American Spanish developments to those closely affecting the United States.


Strangely enough, this text, entitled *U.S.A.*, contains more material on the other Americas than does any other secondary history text to come under this investigation. At least seventy-five pages are devoted to Latin America and to Canada. The book represents a genuine attempt at writing the history of all the Americas. Integration around a rather broad topical plan is followed. Two chapters are specifically devoted to Latin America, while other chapters contain sections relating to the other Americas. Frontier developments, explorations, and American relations with the United Nations, are described in terms of the entire continent. Canada is included in a chapter on "Progress Toward Democracy," and in the chapters on frontier expansion. The text contains many
pleasing photographs from all over the hemisphere. The title, however, remains a curiosity.


This secondary history text mentions Latin America in a chapter dealing with the Monroe Doctrine, on pages 558-577. Otherwise, the book is concerned exclusively with the United States.


This is a standard United States history text, and takes up the period from 1783 to the present. No independent mention is made of the other Americas.


Material covering areas outside the United States is confined to seven pages of data on English backgrounds, two pages on Spanish participation in New World colonization, and a page or two on the French.


Pages 314 to 50 trace Spanish explorations and then very briefly summarize development of the Latin American republics. The book contains nothing on Canada. It is intended for use at the junior high levels.

The book is divided into two parts: (1) The Romance of America, and (2) A New Nation. In the first part, there are about twenty pages on "Spanish Gold Hunters and Their Rivals," and some further reference to Cortés, Pizarro, etc. No other mention is made of Latin America or of Canada.


Less than one page (pp. 4-5) is devoted to Spanish settlement and to an apology for giving so little space to the Spanish influence. Hamm claims the English were so much more important to United States history that they must receive chief consideration (See p. 8, above). A few paragraphs dwell on the Monroe Doctrine and on relations with Britain in which Latin America was involved. Chapter XLIV, "Pan-Americanism," pp. 963-973, contains two and one-half pages of description, with material on size, wealth, and populations of the Latin American republics, and a few words on political developments. Remainder of the chapter, pp. 965-973, devoted to the development of Pan-Americanism.


Except for about ten pages on Spanish explorations, the text is precisely what it purports to be.

This book is apparently directed mainly to adult readers desirous of securing high school material. It is strictly a history of the United States of America.


A few pages cover Spanish explorations, with the remainder devoted to the United States. There is mention of the Spanish influence in United States history, and a few paragraphs are devoted to the history and early development of Canada. This feature, however, is common to textbooks covering early English and French explorations.


The text, like the majority of United States histories, opens with summary of Spanish explorations in North and South America, and then confines its attention to the United States and English colonization.


Pages 3-46 include data on exploration and colonization period, with a few paragraphs devoted to Spanish activities in America, including Mexico, and French movements in Canada. A few lines discuss French activities. A page and a half, pages 522-523, outline later development of Canada. Pages
538-544 discuss developments in Latin America and cover relations between the Latin American republics and the United States of America.


Pages 62 to 67 are devoted to Spanish colonization. Mention is made of Pizarro and Cortés. All other reference to Latin America is confined to treatment of United States relations with the southerly republics. Nothing is included on Canadian history, except for United States-Canadian problems, and the usual comments on French and English settlement.


A beginning chapter includes mention of Spanish explorations in the New World. Pages 660-677 deal with United States-Latin American relations, but no background is presented in the way of description of the Latin American countries. No mention is made of Canadian history.


Pages 23-32 touch on Spanish and Portuguese explorations. Mention is made of Canada in connection with English-French wars. After the above passing references, attention is confined to the United States and its problems.

Pages 7 to 14 are devoted to European colonization and exploration in areas of America outside of what was to become United States territory. Otherwise, the text is entirely a United States history. No inclusion is made of Canadian evolution.


This is a standard high school United States history text. No attempt is made at presenting more than passing mention of Latin American republics or of Canada.


One paragraph includes mention of the Spanish. Nothing is given on Canadian history. No further mention is made of the Latin American republics, aside from a few words on infrequent contacts with the United States.


This is a standard high school United States history textbook. Colonization is discussed, both inside and outside the confines of what was later to become the United States. History of the United States is then developed.

This book, intended to be used at the junior high levels, goes into the Indian cultures of America. Pages 32-46 take up Spanish colonization. Latin America is included in these pages. Remaining references to Latin America concern only United States relations, and they are infrequent. Two lines are taken to state that Canada is now a dominion. All other references to Canada concern relations with the United States.


This is strictly a United States history. Five pages cover the Spanish colonization in America. A few pages are devoted to Canadian colonization and exploration by the English and French. If the pattern followed by most of the books covered in this examination be taken as standard, then this is a typical text.


Two or three pages are given to the Spanish and French in America. Otherwise the book is exclusively a United States history text.
Summary of Findings on History Texts

1. World history.
   b. Number devoting 10 per cent or more of their space to the other Americas: None.
   c. Number devoting over 5 per cent but less than 10 per cent of their space to the other Americas: 6.
      (1) Number giving space to Latin America and to Canada: 4 (Publication dates: 1935, 1936, 1938, 1946).
      (2) Number giving space to Latin America but no appreciable space to Canada: 1 (1940).
      (3) Number giving space to Latin America only in connection with United States relations, and no space to Canada: 1 (1943).
   d. Number devoting over 1 per cent but less than 5 per cent of their space to the other Americas: 2.
      (1) Number giving space to Latin America and to Canada: 1 (1931).
      (2) Number giving space to Latin America, and to Canada only incidentally as a member of the British Empire: 2 (1941, 1946).
   e. Number devoting less than 1 per cent of their space to the other Americas: 12.
      (1) Number giving space to Latin America and to Canada: 6 (1922, 1928, 1931, 1934, 1939, 1940).
      (2) Number giving space to Latin America, but to Canada only incidentally as a member of the British commonwealth: 1 (1937).
      (3) Number giving space to Latin America only in connection with United States relations, and to Canada only incidentally as a member of the British Empire: 1 (1939).
      (4) Number giving space to Latin America, but not to Canada: 2 (1939, 1945).
      (5) Number giving space to Canada, but not to Latin America: 1 (1936).
      (6) Number giving space to Canada only incidentally as a member of the British commonwealth, and no appreciable amount of space to Latin America: 1 (1927).
2. American history.
   
a. Number examined: 29.

b. Number devoting 15 per cent or more of their space to the other Americas: None.

c. Number devoting 10 to 15 per cent of their space to the other Americas: 1 (1945).

d. Number devoting no appreciable amount of space to the other Americas, aside from passing references in connection with Spanish explorations or United States foreign relations: 28 (1928 to 1947).

From the above outline it will be observed that of the fifty history texts examined, seven devote over 5 per cent of their space to the other Americas. Of these seven, however, one treats Latin America only in the light of relations with the United States, and devotes no appreciable space to Canada; and another, though it considers historical developments within Latin America, also omits Canada from its consideration. There are thus only five texts which give over 5 per cent of their space to a treatment of historical developments within the other Americas. These five texts are the following:

1. Freeland, George Earl, and others, America's World Backgrounds. Sixty pages on Latin America. Two on Canada. 1


---

1 See p. 92, above.

2 See p. 93, above.


The remaining seventeen world history texts take the student into the other Americas only when considering the exploits of European explorers, colonists, and traders. Twenty-six of the remaining twenty-eight American history references generally introduce such individuals as Columbus in the West Indies, Pizarro in Peru, Cortés in Mexico, and Champlain in Canada - and then disregard the other Americas except for infrequent mention of contacts with the United States. Two other American history texts maintain consistency by omitting mention of the other Americas except when presenting United States foreign relations or conflicts.

**Conclusion**

Enough has been said to indicate that if secondary textbooks provide any clue, students probably have little opportunity within American history or world history courses.

---

3 See p. 94, above.

4 See p. 94, above.

5 See p. 98, above.
to learn anything significant about the other Americas. To examine fifty representative textbooks does not necessarily establish the fact of omission of the Americas from the secondary history curriculum. It may be that (1) the sampling of texts has been too small to present an accurate picture, (2) curricula are broader than indicated by current texts, or (3) separate courses in Latin American or Canadian history are being offered.

Therefore, the chapter which follows will devote itself to a study of some representative prepared lesson plans, supplemented by a survey of some well-known history examinations. It is to be hoped that such an investigation, added to the study already made of secondary history texts, will at least establish a strong presumption with respect to the amount of material on history of the other Americas that is being furnished secondary students.
CHAPTER IV

SURVEY OF LESSON PLANS AND TESTS

The preceding chapter presented a sampling of secondary history texts to determine the amount of space given to the other Americas. There was established a basis for a presumption that nine out of ten commonly used secondary history textbooks do not draw upon the other Americas for more than a negligible part of their material.

In an attempt at securing further evidence on treatment given the Americas in secondary history programs, examination will now be made of available course plans and testing devices. Unfortunately, prepared curricula have been difficult to obtain. The ten lesson plans presented below give but an incomplete picture of the history instruction being generally offered. The twenty-six tests in American and world history, however, have in most cases been prepared with a wide use in view.

It is the thought of the writer that any general pattern emerging from this examination of textbooks, curricula, and prepared tests, must be fairly representative of the situation in history instruction in all but a few parts of the United States.
Lesson Plans

1. California: Long Beach.

World history: Three Resource Units For the First Semester, Tenth Grade Social Studies-English classes. Prepared by members of the Tenth Grade Curriculum Workshop Committee, under supervision of W. J. Klopp, Supervisor of Secondary Education, Senior High School Division. Edited and published by Department of Curriculum and Educational Research, Long Beach Public Schools, September, 1945.

Unit II, on Ancient Civilizations, contains fifty-four pages of lesson planning, and about 625 bibliographical references. No mention whatever is made of early Indian civilizations in America. Egypt, the "East", Greece, and Rome, are treated.

Unit III, on The Middle Ages, has, of course, no mention of the Americas.

Unit IV, The Beginning of the Modern World--The Revolt Against Authoritarianism, contains seventy-one pages of guidance, and not less than 460 bibliographical references. Except for passing references to Spanish colonization, no mention is made of the other Americas.

2. Idaho: Boise.

Ancient and medieval history, modern history, and United States history: Course of Study Summary, Boise Senior High School, Boise, Idaho, January, 1940.

In this catalog description of history courses, no mention is made of the other Americas.
3. **Louisiana**, state:


Takes up entire history program by units. No unit includes material from the Americas, except in mention of American Indians as being ancient peoples.

4. **Missouri**, state:


This is a complete social studies curriculum.

Under "Social Studies II, World History and Problems," is found Unit VI, "Democracy and its Rivals in Recent Centuries," wherein is a Part K (of Parts A to M), called "Revolution in South America," which includes all the material to be found in the curriculum on the other Americas. Subjects covered in this Part K are United States-Latin American relations, Monroe Doctrine, and United States expansion. No significant further mention is made of the other Americas.

5. **New Hampshire**, state:


Contains courses in United States history, modern European history, United States constitutional history, and "History of Civilization." In the course on history of
civilization no mention of the other Americas is to be found. In no other course is reference made to the other Americas.

6. **Ohio**: Cincinnati, 1940.

World history: Try-out Course of Study in Social Studies, Grade Ten, World History. Curriculum Bulletin Number 45, Cincinnati Public Schools, 1940.

The world history herein outlined confines itself to Europe, ancient Asia Minor, and the United States. Under Unit VI, "The World in Revolution," Latin America is given its only mention under one of nine headings, entitled "Revolutions in South America, 1848 (sia)." A section on expansion of empires inspires passing mention of Africa, Latin America, and Canada. A text suggested for the course is Rogers et al., *Story of Nations*.

7. **Ohio**: Cincinnati, 1942:


Latin America is made one of nine units. The curriculum plan announces: "No part of the world has been more neglected in our schools than our 'Good Neighbors' to the South." Unit IV of the tentative course of study treats Latin America in a rather complete fashion. However,

---

1 See p. 94, above.

whereas the remaining units of the course are topical in character, Unit IV on Latin America, and Unit III on the Far East, are limited to geographical and political divisions treated chronologically. Canada is given no treatment.


The course lists twenty-two "General Objectives in American History." Objective Number 1½ is:

Education for inter-American friendship. To develop a mutual respect for countries of the Western Hemisphere. This mutual respect to be based on wide and deep understanding and a knowledge of their life, their customs, and their scheme of human affairs. 3

Unit I, "Laying the Foundation for a New Nation," gives an appreciable amount of space to explorers and natives in the other Americas, outside the borders of what is now the United States. Unit II, "The Rise of the American Nation," confines itself to affairs in the United States. Apparently the only other mention of the other Americas is to be found in a short section within Unit VII, page 70, "The United States Faces World Problems," Section C, "United States and Latin America," comprising: (1) The Monroe Doctrine, and (2) The Act of Chapultepec. Thus is met the objective of "education for inter-American friendship," quoted above.

9. Texas, state:


The following courses are suggested:

1. Early European history - two semesters.
2. Modern European history - two semesters.
3. American history - two semesters.
   Follows standard textbook practice. 4
4. World history - two semesters.
5. Texas history - one semester.
   Unit I. European background (ten days).
   A. Geography and early history of Iberia.
   B. Racial elements.
   C. Struggles between Moors and Christians.
   D. Rise of the Spanish and Portuguese monarchies.
   E. Hispanic culture.
   Unit II. Discovery, exploration, conquest (twenty days).
   A. Causes.
   B. Early European discovery and exploration.
   C. Division of claims, Spanish-Portuguese.
   D. Character of the New World.
   E. Later Spanish explorations.
   Unit III. Colonial era in Latin America (fifteen days).
   A. Racial contacts.
   B. Colonial administrative system.
   C. Commercial policy.
   D. Social and economic conditions.
   E. Brazil - the Portuguese colony.
   Unit IV. Latin American independence, 1810-1826 (five days).
   A. The yoke of Spain.
   B. Influence of examples of United States and France.
   C. Wars of independence.
   D. Brazilian independence.
   Unit V. Republican era (fifteen days).
   A. Government establishments and how they functioned.
   B. Political history of Mexico since independence, and its relations with the United States.

4 See pp. 96-104, above.
C. Study of the general characteristics and the problems of the Central American states.
D. Brief survey of South American states.
E. History of the West Indies and their relations with the United States.

Unit VI. Economic and social conditions in Latin America (ten days).
A. The social structure.
B. Economic backwardness.
C. Development of means of communication.
D. Communication and financial situation.
E. Intellectual and cultural development.

Unit VII. International relations (fifteen days).
A. Relations of Latin American countries with one another.
B. The United States and Latin America.
C. The Pan American movement.
D. Latin America and Europe.

10. Washington, D.C.:

Social studies program: Course of Study in History, Geography, and the Other Social Studies for the Senior and Junior High Schools, District of Columbia. Board of Education, Washington Public Schools, April, 1938.

Only European and United States histories are mentioned, and ancient history neglects to mention Indian civilizations in America.

Prepared Tests

In the list presented below, the term follows the textbook pattern will be used to describe those texts which (1) in the case of American history, make reference to the other Americas only in connection with the era of exploration and conquest, or in connection with infrequent contacts between the other Americas and the United States, or (2) in the case of world history, make reference to the other
Americas only when brought into passing consideration by European discoveries, by the loss of the Spanish Empire, and by other similar incidental references.


Contains references to personages, geographical items, and incidents considered significant in world history. No reference of any sort is made to the other Americas.


Follows the textbook pattern.


Follows the textbook pattern.


Follows the textbook pattern.


Follows the textbook pattern.

Follows the textbook pattern.


Follows the textbook pattern.


Follows the textbook pattern.


Follows the textbook pattern.

10. Denver Public Schools, Semester Tests, American History I and II. No date given.

Follows the textbook pattern.

11. Denver Public Schools, Semester Tests, World History I and II. No date given.

Covers to an unusual degree the history of western civilization, but omits all reference to the other Americas.


Follows the textbook pattern.

Follows the textbook pattern.


Follows the textbook pattern.


Follows the textbook pattern, except for one question: "A characteristic of the administration of Spain's empire was...."


Follows the textbook pattern.


Follows the textbook pattern, except for one question which might be construed as being an exception: "The fact that the United States and Canada have never been at war proves that...."

Follows the textbook pattern.


Test V, said to cover England, Russia, the small states, and imperialism, contains seventy questions, of which nine relate to the other Americas. A list of names to be identified includes Bolívar. Out of the six tests, totalling approximately 420 questions, there are no further references to the other Americas.

21. Pressey, L. W., and others, *Tests in Historical Judgment*. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, Department of Psychology. No date given.

Of ninety-five questions, one concerns the independence of Latin America. Otherwise, follows the textbook pattern.


Follows the textbook pattern.


Follows the textbook pattern. Confined almost exclusively to Europe.

See p. 104, above.

Follows the textbook pattern. Contains forty-eight pages and omits all reference to the other Americas.


Follows the textbook pattern.


One test, which contains 136 questions, includes four touching on the other Americas. In the remainder of the tests, no further mention is made of the rest of the hemisphere.

Conclusion

The preceding chapter revealed that historical material on the Americas is not brought to the attention of secondary students through the media of representative textbooks. The present chapter has discovered two localities - the state of Texas and the city of Cincinnati, Ohio - whose curriculum planners are introducing some of the other Americas to secondary students. The state of Texas has inaugurated a separate one-semester course in Latin American history. Cincinnati has incorporated a Latin American unit into its world history course. In no case could any significant amount
of material from Canadian history be found. In no prepared
test did the other Americas receive more attention than is
ordinarily devoted to them by standard textbooks. In the
majority of tests, the other Americas received even less
proportionate attention than is ordinarily given them in
textbooks.

Cities and states other than Cincinnati and Texas are
undoubtedly including the Americas in their secondary history
courses. That such localities, however, are few, is the
inescapable conclusion to be drawn from the pattern set forth
by textbooks, lesson plans, and testing devices.

Appealing to experience, the writer finds that in no
case has he ever known, directly or indirectly, of a secondary
school offering more than a negligible amount of instruction
in history of the other Americas. Finally, interviews with
social studies teachers in all high schools of Columbus, Ohio,
have revealed that secondary students receive information
on history of Western Hemisphere nations other than the United
States through three channels only, as follows:

1. Early exploration, conquest, and colonization, in
American history courses.

2. Contacts and clashes with the United States - i.e.,
Monroe Doctrine, Mexican War, United States-Canadian boundary
settlements, etc. - in American history courses.

3. Incidental mention of the Spanish and British empires, in world history courses.

The chapter which follows will summarize and evaluate material presented to this point. To aid in this evaluation, data will be drawn from the history of history instruction. Subsequent chapters will propose a line of action.
CHAPTER V
EVALUATION OF PRACTICE IN THE LIGHT OF HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

Substantiation of Findings

The first chapter of this paper pointed to the following as bases for considering the other Americas as physically significant in the present social pattern:

1. In many cases they are in leading positions with respect to geographical dimensions and to numbers of inhabitants.

2. They have made sizeable cultural contributions to civilization.

3. They form a land and population mass which cannot be accurately described in terms of political divisions alone.

4. The inter-American system has injected into the international scene an organization of nations which is worthy of note both as an example and as a problem in the total world pattern.

5. The war years elicited an expanded interest in the other Americas which made clear their importance in the minds of thousands in the United States.

The second chapter discussed the objectives which have been prominently stated as guiding history instruction. The opinion was expressed that history is universal - that it has no frontiers. It was demonstrated that the Americas have much
to contribute to a fulfillment of aims in history instruction. The central theme of the chapter was that the objectives of history instruction, and the universal nature of history itself, demand an adequate historical treatment of the Americas.

To arrive at an approximation of the pattern being followed in handling the other Americas in secondary history courses, some textbooks, lesson plans, and tests were reviewed in the third and fourth chapters. So far as the examination was pursued, it led to the general conclusion that the Americas, aside from the United States of America, are not being given the attention they merit.

That such a conclusion is not entirely unwarranted is to be surmised from history programs proposed by leading authorities. Among others the following should be noted:

1. The Committee of Seven:

   In lists of recommended history courses, no mention was made in this 1899 report of any part of the Western Hemisphere outside the United States of America.

2. Calvin Olin Davis:

   In A Guide to Methods and Observation in History, published in 1914, Mr. Davis suggests history courses which in his opinion should be given on the secondary level. The

   ____________

   1 The Committee of Seven, The Study of History in Schools, a report to the American Historical Association, pp. 134-136.
courses are: ancient, local, medieval and modern, English, and United States history.

3. W. J. Osborn:

In his book, Are We Making Good at Teaching History? published in 1926, Mr. Osborn presents in Chapter V, pp. 25-29, a series of tables purporting to show the amount of emphasis being placed in school history courses on various topics. Table IVb, on p. 28, lists geographical areas. Thirty-four possible topics are included, beginning with England, on which Mr. Osborn reports 13.6 per cent of emphasis is placed, and ending with the Byzantine Empire, on which 0 per cent is placed. The other Americas are not listed as a possible topic. In other tables, general subjects are listed, without specific geographical areas being indicated. In the same general section, Mr. Osborn lists names of historic personages which in his opinion should be brought to the attention of secondary students. No individual from the other Americas is included. Following these lists as a guide, therefore, the student who got his history only in secondary schools would remain forever ignorant of Simón Bolívar, of Bartolomé de las Casas, of Benito Juárez, of Lázaro Cárdenas, and of Dom Pedro II.

---

3 W. J. Osborn, Are We Making Good at Teaching History? p. 28.
4 Ibid.
4. The Commission on the Social Studies:

The Commission on the Social Studies, a group organized under the auspices of the American Historical Association, in 1932 recommended four units in history:

a. Ancient and medieval history of Western Europe to the sixteenth century.

b. Modern European history.

c. American history.

d. Contemporary civilization.

5. Henry Johnson:

In his book, Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools, published in 1940, Mr. Johnson notes the following trends in history instruction in the United States during the past twenty-five years:

a. A decline in emphasis on ancient history.

b. Almost complete disappearance of English history.

c. Shift of American history from the twelfth to the eleventh grade in an increasing number of cases.

Mr. Johnson makes no observation with respect to inclusion of the other Americas in history courses. It is to be assumed that the American history course he mentions is the type of United States history which was reviewed in the

---


6 Ibid., p. 83.
preceding two chapters. Though Mr. Johnson devotes several paragraphs to curriculum changes being realized in response to the impact of modern times, no mention of Latin America or of Canada is made.

6. The Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges:

In their report, American History in Schools and Colleges, published in 1944, the committee notes tendencies and aims which would seem to open the way for introduction of historical materials on the other Americas.

The committee observes an increasing attention being given to the international setting, and reports:

The Hemisphere approach and the interdependence of cultures and peoples are given more recognition. Events in Latin America, the Far East, and other remote (sic) areas have become matters of concern in our national life.

At another point, the committee finds that: "Our overseas interests and responsibilities and relations with Latin America, Canada, the Far East and all other pertinent areas should be studied."

The committee then proposes a course for senior high schools, to be called, "A Democratic Nation in a World

---

7 Ibid.


9 Ibid., p. 73.
Setting." The course includes six sections, of which but
one has reference to the other Americas, and is entitled,
"International Influence and Responsibilities of the United
States." As the last of a series of items under this
heading, is found: "Relations with Canada and Latin America."
No other reference to the other Americas is to be found.

At another point in the same discussion, the committee
lists forty-four "representative persons." Of these,
Simón Bolívar is the only one named from the other Americas.
In a recommended sixty-five item test, three questions have
reference to the other Americas, and these are concerned
with United States relations with Latin America.

From the above references, it may be seen that the
authorities listed are inclined to neglect the other Americas.
In at least one case, the neglect is in conflict with
immediately preceding stated objectives.

In previous pages, these and other authorities were quoted as favoring the concept of a universal history.

There is some evidence to indicate that in those cases
where the other Americas are treated, the resulting instruc-
tion is not on a level with standards ordinarily considered
desirable. The Committee on the Study of Teaching Material

\footnote{Ibid., pp. 30-81.}

\footnote{See pp. 43-48, above.}
in Inter-American Subjects, reported in 1944, the following findings with respect to treatment given Latin America in secondary curricula, including history:

1. While there is no evidence of conscious antagonism, a "black legend" is perpetuated, with traces of prejudice being found in nearly all studies included in the report.
2. Material, especially on secondary school levels, is inadequate.
3. Some inaccuracies enter the instruction.
4. Unwarranted assumptions and biased treatment are to be found in many cases.
5. A Kiplingesque condescension is noted.
6. Disputes rather than cooperation with the United States are emphasized. Adequate treatment is not given to the "other" sides of issues.
7. Cultural products of the other Americas are not adequately treated.
8. The "picturesque" in Latin American life is over-emphasized.
9. Political and military aspects are stressed to the neglect of economic and cultural ties.
10. A sharp dividing line is created between Latin America and Anglo-America.
11. Illustration is not always accurate.
12. Books available are technically of high standard, but are hampered by problems of vocabulary and nomenclature.

Thus, sources other than available textbooks, lesson plans, and history tests, tend to substantiate the conclusions.

---

12 The report cites a juvenile narrative used as a supplementary reader, which follows the journey of a Mexican lawyer and his family to Europe. The group is illustrated in a drawing as standing at a Mexican airport waiting to board plane, wearing wide-brimmed sombreros and Mexican loose-fitting "pajama" costumes, and as being without shoes.

to be drawn from previous pages — i.e., that inadequate treatment is given the other Americas in secondary history instruction, and that such inadequacy is not in agreement with the stated objectives of history curricula. That such lack of agreement between objectives and practice is not foreign to history instruction is indicated by James Harvey Robinson when he writes:

The following is an extract from a compendium much used until recently in schools and colleges: 'Robert the Wise (of Anjou) (1309-1343), the successor of Charles II of Naples, and the champion of the Guelphs, could not extend his power over Sicily where Frederick II (1296-1337), the son of Peter of Aragon, reigned. Robert's granddaughter, Joan I, after a career of crime and misfortune, was strangled in prison by Charles Durazzo, the last male descendant of the house of Anjou in lower Italy (1382), who seized on the government. Joan II, the last heir of Durazzo (1414-1435), first adopted Alfonso V, of Aragon, and then Louis III, of Anjou, and his brother, René. Alfonso, who inherited the crown of Sicily, united both kingdoms (1435), after a war with René and the Visconti of Milan.'

This is not, as we might be tempted to suspect, a mere collection of data for contingent reference, no more intended to be read than a table of logarithms. It is a characteristic passage from the six pages which a distinguished scholar devotes to the Italy of Dante, Petrarch, and Lorenzo the Magnificent. In preparing a guide for more advanced pupils and the general reader, the author's purpose was, he tells us, "that it should present the essential facts of history in due order....that it should point out clearly the connection of events and of successive eras with one another; that through the interest awakened by the natural, unforced view gained of this unity of history and by such illustrative incidents as the brevity of the narrative would allow to be wrought into it, the dryness of a mere summary should be so far as possible relieved." Now, in treating the Italian Renaissance, this writer has chosen barely to mention the name of Francesco Petrarca, but devotes a twelfth of the
available space to the interminable dynastic squabbles of southern Italy. We may assume that this illustrates his conception of 'the essential facts of history presented in due order,' for the extracts quoted above can hardly be an example of 'illustrative incidents' wrought in to relieve the dryness of a mere summary. ¹¹

The goal of the present chapter will be to complete, so far as is reasonably possible, an evaluation of the apparent inconsistencies between theory and practice in secondary history instruction. In the second chapter, it was indicated that the study of history becomes meaningful in the social science sense when it is utilized to study the bases of factors involved in significant processes and problems, and thus to aid in evaluation of the factors themselves. With such an aim in view, material will in this chapter be taken from the history of the teaching of history. From the material thus brought together, a generalization will be attempted in an effort at approaching an explanation and evaluation of the inconsistencies discovered in treatment of the Americas.

Influences in History Instruction

To what extent do the ghosts of Herodotus, Thucydides and Livy, Tacitus, Machiavelli and Boccaccio, Luther, the Jesuits, and Voltaire, walk through the pages of secondary history texts? In approaching an answer to this question,

the inquiry to follow will contain three parts:

1. An examination of the history objectives which have guided and frequently continue to guide much historical study, will serve to determine roughly the influence of invisible hands on present-day practice.

2. An investigation of history programs formulated without benefit of modern-day objectives will aid in arriving at an answer to the question indicated above.

3. Finally, the investigation will be furthered by a rapid examination of the bases for certain characteristic features of history courses.

Objectives

1. To tell a tale.

So-called history has been replete with stories such as that of Romulus and Remus, of Horatius at the bridge, and of Washington heroically struggling through a biting winter at Valley Forge. Such practice arises from an ancient tradition - one which may, indeed, have been the origin of history instruction. It is felt by many that the field of history may have begun merely as a telling of tales - that its purposes, as in the Odyssey and the Iliad, were simply to entertain with a good story or to enliven a party. As late as the nineteenth century, history was considered as being "that branch of literature which had for its subject the
past." Later, an institution was erected about the story-telling structure, and objectives were created.

2. To secure a mass of facts and dates for political, ecclesiastical, and other similar organizations.

During the medieval period the notion arose in some quarters that history should confine itself to annals and chronicles only. Gregory of Tours, Froissart, and Einhard favored this objective. In various forms, this notion has recurred from time to time since that period. Christian Weise, while convinced that history teaching should be based on modern problems, felt at the same time that before the age of twenty, students should be equipped with a mass of facts and dates. He stressed geography and maps as basis for historical study, and favored a large degree of drill work. The term "scientific" history did not at first have its present operational sense. Leopold von Ranke, writing in 1824, for example, tried to present what he called "scientific" history - that is, history from which no lesson could necessarily be implied, but which only told what

15 Johnson, op. cit., p. 15.
16 Davis, op. cit., p. 7.
18 Ibid., p. 40.
actually occurred. His history was scientific in the mass of data it contained, but the organization of such data—the question of inclusion and exclusion of material—demanded that history instruction proceed from some more functional motive.

The influence of the fact-date advocates has been evident in history instruction. The quotation from James Harvey Robinson can be applied as illustration.

3. To provide examples for guidance.

History has been variously interpreted as providing examples for individuals, and as providing examples for governments. This concept pervaded much Renaissance thinking, and made itself felt in the writings of such men as Machiavelli and Petrarch. The Spaniard Juan Luis Vives (1492-1540), for example, felt that history might be used to teach individuals what to follow and what to avoid. Since human passions do not change, he believed, past conduct and its results should reveal the consequences of similar conduct in the present. Frederick the Great (1712-1786), advocated the teaching of history in schools as making people wise by

20 See pp. 130-131, above.
21 Davis, loc. cit.
the experience of others.

Thus, many books have drawn upon history only for those materials which might act either as horrible examples or as inspiring guides for the conduct of individuals and governments. This influence may still be found in books purporting to record the lives of United States presidents, of British kings, and of such characters as Joan of Arc or the Emperor Nero.

4. To see ourselves "as in a mirror."

Feeling that individuals should know themselves and their surroundings, various authorities have in times past considered history as being useful for the clarity of understanding it might give the reader about himself and his fellows. The feeling, as in the schools of the Oratorians of France (1632), was that the actions of personages of history portrayed in an accurate manner the actions of many contemporary individuals. An historical examination of the past, it was felt, would prove to be an examination of material similar to that coming out of the present. Luther held strongly to the mirror concept. What had happened in the past, it was assumed, would happen in the present and in the future. Out of such thinking has come the phrase, "History

23 Ibid., p. 92.
24 Ibid., p. 30.
25 Ibid., p. 20.
always repeats itself." Looking into the crystal ball of history, forecasters of joy and of despair have influenced many.

5. To read the human heart.

Voltaire and Montesquieu felt that by examining history of man's individual and group performances, they might find natural laws, inherent in nature and in natural man. Emile represented the biographical approach to history as being desirable, and passages stressed the "reading of the human heart" into history. The Committee of Seven must have had something of the same thought in mind when it reported that:

The pupil should see the growth of institutions which surround him; he should see the work of men.... he should see tyranny, vulgarity, greed, benevolence, patriotism, self-sacrifice, brought out in the lives and works of men. 29

The readers of the human heart have had their degree of influence on modern-day history instruction. No text would be complete without the pioneering spirit of Jackson, the cowardice of Burr, the statuary magnitude of Bolivar, and the indefinable something possessed only by Napoleon.

26 Davis, loc. cit.
27 Johnson, op. cit., p. 57.
28 Committee of Seven, op. cit., p. 18.
6. To spread a doctrine.

History writers and history instructors are few who have not tried to influence, however slightly, the thinking of readers and students. The enlightenment of the eighteenth century, and of many periods before and after, ruled that "The core of an historical work was the doctrine it contained." During the Reformation, history came to be wielded as an instrument for promotion of theological dogma and religious practices. Luther, Melanchthon, and the Jesuits, saw the usefulness of history instruction for carrying out such aims. Secondary texts, possibly influenced by such a tradition, have been known to engage in attempts at softening the sting of imperialism, at securing an attitude of hostility toward imperialist practices, at making known their sympathies for laissez faire, and at selecting such items from history as might further a program of collectivism. It may be argued that some of the members of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association were not without an interest in a type of

30 Davis, loc. cit.
31 See, especially, Greenan et al, Units in World History, reported on p. 92, above.
economic dogma.

7. To further nationalism.

To further nationalism is to spread a doctrine, and consideration of this point could possibly have been included within the preceding section. As may be seen from a review of previous sections, however, the various aims which have been injected into history instruction are not mutually exclusive. They overlap, partly because of confusion, partly because of misunderstanding which caused them to be separated in the first place, and partly because of the only slight variances in objectives in the minds of the thinkers themselves. Where the furtherance of nationalism - or the inculcation of patriotism - have been involved, it has been intended that history study be a means of stimulating predetermined ideals and kinds of behavior.

The United States has known its share of patriotic fervor, both inside and outside the writing of history books. De Tocqueville, writing of the people of the United States during the early nineteenth century, reported that: "They have an immense opinion of themselves and are not far from believing that they form a species apart from the human race."  

34 See, especially, American Historical Association, A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools, and Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission.

35 Johnson, op. cit., p. 126.

The Committee of Seven, reporting in 1899, stated that:

....a manifest function of the historical instruction in the school is to give to the pupil a sense of duty as a responsible member of that organized society of which he is a part, and some appreciation of its principles and its fundamental character. 37

Some twisting of history has occurred under the drive of national necessity, as, for example, when during World War I, history books attempted to demonstrate that the American revolution was merely a unified American-English attempt at throwing off the yoke of the German, George III. 38

To say that all of the examples of an exaggerated nationalism are confined to the United States, would be to display an unwarranted cynicism. To quote from a Nicaraguan publication:

Situada en el centro de la América central, bañadas sus costas por el Atlántico y el Pacífico, con fáciles comunicaciones marítimas con la América del Norte y la del Sur, con Europa y el Asia, Nicaragua parece constituir el centro geográfico del mundo.

Colocada en un lugar de tránsito, para todos los pueblos de la tierra, puede llegar a ser, no solamente un foco de fuerza económica, sino también un foco de cultura. Su posición geográfica

37 Committee of Seven, op. cit., p. 76.

38 Johnson, An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences, p. 124.
en el mundo moderno es la que tuvo Grecia en el mundo antiguo, y por eso su destino histórico tendrá siempre un sentido universal. 39

The doctrine of nationalism became a force in English schools in 1582, when the Historia Anglorum became compulsory reading, with the stated objective of making the pupils love their country more. 40

The doctrine of exaggerated nationalism, culminating in the statement that "Germany is always right because it is German and numbers 87,000,000 people," probably began during the sixteenth century, when Wimpheling wrote the first history of Germany, designed, as he stated, to make young Germans proud of their German past and to stimulate them to enlarge the fame of Germans. The history text thus resulting left out everything not conducive to that end. Hegel helped give a national and patriotic impetus to

39 "Situated mid-way in Central America, her coasts bathed by the Atlantic and the Pacific, with easy maritime communications with North and South America, with Europe, and with Asia, Nicaragua would seem to constitute the geographical center of the world.

"Located at a point of transit for all the peoples of the earth, she can become, not only a focal point of economic force, but also a focal point of culture. Her geographic position in the modern world is tantamount to that which Greece enjoyed in the ancient world, and it is for this reason that her historic destiny will always have a universal sense." - Luis Alberto Cabrales, Sinópsis de la República de Nicaragua, Managua, D.N.: Talleres Nacionales, Administración Somoza, 1937.

40 Johnson, op. cit., p. 29.

41 Ibid., p. 18.
historical research, when he found in "the German spirit" the motive for world awakening.

During the Napoleonic wars, patriotism became the prime objective of instruction - for purposes of successful prosecution of the wars in French-dominated areas, and for self-protection in the remainder of Europe.

From origins such as these has come much of the tradition which has tended to inject into many history texts a completely uncritical, unscientific attitude toward the nation.

8. To explain the present.

In a previous chapter the thought was discussed that history study has been undertaken or advocated for the purpose of understanding the present. "Understanding the present," it was pointed out, can mean at least any one of three things: (1) Sympathizing with the present, (2) understanding in the sense of satisfying a curiosity about backgrounds, and (3) evaluating present conditions. All of these have been in the minds of thinkers during many centuries. Christian Weise was anxious to have boys understand Saxony in 1676, and Joseph Priestley tried to use history to explain to English boys the times in which they were living.

---

42 Robinson, op. cit., p. 41.
43 Johnson, op. cit., p. 129.
44 See Chapter II, pp. 48-57, above.
45 Johnson, op. cit., p. 128.
46 Ibid.
Karl Müller was of the opinion that history gave meanings to things. During the years subsequent to the first world war, the past-present theory was used, according to Henry Johnson, to push all manner of sympathies for current patriotisms, localisms, and ideologies.

The desire to explain the present, in whatever meaning that may be understood, has perhaps as much of a direct bearing on the problem of the Americas in secondary curricula as it does on arrival at a generalization respecting historical methods.

The study of countries "where we came from," as contrasted to the study of countries whose histories have developed parallel with our own, epitomizes the struggle between the individuals who advocate the study of history as a means for satisfying curiosity, and those who desire a general knowledge of history as a means of comprehending the bases for present problems, and of doing something about those problems. The question becomes one of interpretation of the objective, "understanding the present." Are we contriving to gather material as an aid in solving social problems, or are we merely trying to satisfy a curiosity respecting our family tree?


48 Johnson, *An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences*, p. 133.
These remarks are not to be construed as disparaging the contributions to be made by a study of European history toward evaluating present practices and institutions. Such contributions are incalculable. It is precisely for this reason that European history is a legitimate part of secondary curricula. It is precisely for this reason that history of the Americas is also a legitimate part of secondary curricula. Neither countries of origin, nor countries of parallel historical development, have a monopoly on historical materials likely to satisfy teaching objectives.

The body of thinking involved in the curiosity-satisfying approach to "understanding the present" was expressed by Mr. W. J. Osborn, when he wrote: "Ancient history is fundamental because it tells how our whole civilization got started."

It may be seen that present attempts at making of history study a functional scientific process aimed at dealing with urgent social questions, is hampered by a weighty heritage of yarn-spinners, statistics-gatherers, searchers after shining and shocking examples, mirror-lookers, readers of the human heart, spreaders of doctrine, sufferers from xenophobia, and persons disturbed by nothing more than a strong curiosity about their ancestors.

During much of the nineteenth century there was talk about "scientific" history - science, in this case, meaning the methodical, impartial gathering of facts. History is now a part of a larger science - the science of solving social problems, with science applied not only to the pursuit of knowledge, but also to its application.

The burdens of history instruction in the way of discarded objectives have been outlined above. The discussion may now proceed to a brief consideration of a few of the many organizational programs which have beset history instruction in the past, and which continue to influence it in the present.

Programs

1. Stress on ancient history.

It is only recently that ancient history has been receiving reduced emphasis in secondary school instruction. The practice of stressing ancient history to the neglect of modern and contemporary history had its origins in the middle ages, and particularly received an impetus during the classical period, when it was found that ancient history was better written than any other type, and when interest in Latin was at its height. Long after the writing of modern and contemporary history had become greatly improved,
and after the zeal for Latin study had subsided, ancient history received an inordinate share of time in the school curriculum.

2. The four monarchies.

Just as modern history teaching seems to be confined to treatment of Europe and the United States, with brief excursions into Asia, so ancient history instruction still limits itself in large measure to an examination of the institutions of Asia Minor, Greece, and Rome. Ancient China, Japan, and India, are only recently receiving a small degree of attention, and ancient America is almost invariably ignored.

At least a part of this tradition has arisen from a famous history, called The Four Monarchies, written by Johannes Sleidanus (1506-1556). On the basis of a prophecy in Daniel, Sleidanus divided the world into four monarchies: The Babylonian, Persian, Macedonian, and Roman. According to Johnson, this division remained standard until the eighteenth century. Although history instruction has long since dropped the custom of looking to Biblical prophecies for curricular arrangements, the Sleidanus plan, while no longer standard, still invades to a measurable degree many contemporary ancient history teaching programs.

51 Johnson, op. cit., p. 25.
3. The three chronological divisions.

Jacob Keller (Christoph Cellarius), German theologian writing in the late seventeenth century while history writing and instruction were still very much under the influence of the doctrinaire school, found it suited his purposes to divide his historical writing into three books: (a) Historia Antiqua, a volume which appeared in 1685, (b) Historia Medii Aevi, 1688, and (3) Historia Nova, 1696. The mechanical device thus effected by Keller has formed the basis for present divisions into ancient, medieval, and modern history. The divisions thus created have categorized much thinking with respect to history, and have encouraged the impression that sharp lines of demarcation separate the various chronological ages of history. Practice in historical examination thus is seen to be at odds with the modern concept that development is constantly in flux, constantly changing, perpetually shifting like the variegated bits in a kaleidoscope.

Features

1. Emphasis on constitutions.

Most histories feel compelled to lay great stress on constitutions of countries under consideration, frequently to the neglect of other characteristics which modern thinkers

52 Ibid., p. 34.
would suppose to have even greater influence in shaping the national picture. The constitution of the Soviet Union, for example, is not the most significant feature in that country's social construct. Emphasis on constitutional history has been created at least partly in response to the interest stimulated by the drafting of the French constitution, and by the debate surrounding adoption of the United States constitution, and has not entirely grown out of attempts at realizing present-day objectives. 53

2. Emphasis on politics and wars.

The stress laid on politics and wars in historical presentation need hardly be pointed out. Such emphasis has been traditional from the time of Greek and Roman historians. Thucydides, trying to evoke some political lessons, wrote a record of the Peloponnesian wars, thus making the Athenian-Spartan struggle a landmark in historical writing for all times. The concept that history involves only a series of political struggles was early criticized by the Spaniard Juan Luis Vives, who observed that wars were not too important—that they were mainly contests between thieves, as

53 Robinson, op. cit., p. 40.
54 Ibid., p. 137.
55 Henry Johnson, Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools, p. 11.
56 See p. 134, above.
he expressed it. Contemporary thinkers have, through their social approach to the matter of historical instruction, relegated the details of innumerable military exploits into an inconspicuous spot, and have dropped the notion that "history is past politics." History, in the modern concept, is an expansion into the past of whatever topic is under discussion. Thucydides, however, would not be entirely displeased with the emphasis still placed in secondary history texts and courses on the morbid chronicles of human slaughter.

3. Emphasis on the king.

As in past ages, the king was everything and the people nothing; so in past histories the doings of the king fill the entire picture, to which the national life forms but an obscure background. - Herbert Spencer, On Education. 58

Kings have been replaced by presidents, parliaments, and industrial magnates. The tendency to stress the activities and decisions of these powers is still apparent in history texts. The modern reaction against this type of reporting was early begun. Thomas Macaulay, writing his History of England in 1848, tried to touch on all men - not just the successful figures. 59 One hundred years

57 Johnson, An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences, p. 23.
58 Ernest Scott, History and Historical Problems, p. 136.
59 Johnson, Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools, p. 147.
later, however, emperors, kings, popes, presidents, and captains of industry still march pompously through the pages of history texts, while lumbermen, fishermen, miners, tradesmen, and farmers live their lives through without benefit of more than a few pages or chapters of grudging deference to the dictum of modern aims and objectives in history instruction.


James Harvey Robinson writes:

History is written by many hands and sentiments, with much being left out that should be in, and much being inserted that should be left out. A dissipated courtier may be allotted a chapter and the destruction of a race be left unrecorded.

Growing out of the tendencies we have noted in this section on influences in history instruction, and out of countless other ill-defined whims, fancies, and designs, history instruction has come to include a peculiar selection of materials, having little or no observable relation with stated objectives. Robinson has in the first few pages of The New History outlined these peculiarities in an entertaining manner. He finds the following defects as being particularly noticeable in popular history writing: (a) Careless inclusion of mere names, (b) emphasis on political

---

60 See almost any one of the texts listed, pp. 90-104, above.

61 Robinson, op. cit., p. 2.
events, and (c) narration of extraordinary episodes to the disadvantage of good perspective.

The Peloponnesian wars, selected by Thucydides for reasons of his own as being adapted to special treatment, have been mentioned above in connection with the propensity for stressing wars in history texts. The Peloponnesian wars have also come to stand as a kind of historical break. Similar breaks have been placed at the fall of Rome, the fall of Constantinople, the discovery of America, and the posting of Luther's theses, as being moments after which everything was somehow different from the way it had been before. Such practices, again, stand in clear violation of the modern dictum that events are, like the unrecorded changing phases of the moon, in a state of continuous flux, of never-ending transformation. Thus does the selection and organization of materials revolve about firmly established custom, and only slowly and painfully give way to the demands of modern objectives.

Evaluation of Practice Concerning the Americas

The foregoing discussion has produced evidence pointing to the pervading influence of long-established custom in controlling history instruction. It is not difficult to find the

62 Robinson, op. cit., p. 16.
reasons for the tardiness characterizing most revisions in history instruction:

1. The field of history is the whole world. It is the entire body of current events, current problems, current social forces, multiplied into infinity, if we desire, by adding to the present the evidence of innumerable epochs in the past. The task of selecting, sorting, analyzing, and organizing historical materials thus becomes tremendous.

2. There is no known reason for assuming that the cultural lags generally evident in other practices as result of institutional factors are absent in all of the practices perpetuated in history instruction.

In the light of the findings of this chapter, the following statement is offered:

The tremendous operational difficulties involved in re-creating history programs, and the institutional aspects surrounding long-established practices, tend to retard reforms in history instruction which would, if adopted, bring it more closely in line with stated objectives and with modern developments.

Why France and not Brazil? Why Austria or Italy and not Argentina? Why England and not Mexico? Why Prussia and not Canada? Why Belgium and not Costa Rica? The answer lies in custom, habit, and tradition - in the revered forms and symbols of the institution of history instruction.
The flow of culture with the various parts of the Americas has in general followed the channels of immigration and trade— that is, it has been east and west instead of north and south. The usages of history instruction have thus been evolved out of a European background. Operating in such a framework, the generalization stated above would effectively prevent an adequate treatment of the Americas in United States history curricula.

The omission of the Americas from secondary history instruction is thus explained— even understood. The omission, however, remains unjustified by any known objectives. It remains more certainly unjustified when it is found to have occurred as a consequence of purely mechanical forces whose operations in other aspects of history instruction have been confined to the retardation of needed reforms.

The foregoing discussion has drawn from history to analyze a problem. It thus incidentally serves a second function— i.e., the function of illustrating the purposes of historical study. When we say that the Americas should be introduced more widely into history instruction, we are saying that the type of historical analysis that has been used in this discussion should be put to work in the classroom. Without the Americas, it is doubtful that this can be done.
Conclusion

While it has been shown above that reforms in history instruction are difficult of achievement, it has also been shown that the Americas must be brought into secondary history curricula. Work on such a project should be accelerated. The two chapters which follow will outline some of the problems involved in laying out a course of action.
CHAPTER VI

PLACING THE AMERICAS IN THE SECONDARY HISTORY CURRICULUM

The Alternatives

It has been suggested in the preceding pages that in terms of their importance and in terms of history objectives the Americas merit at least a substantial place in secondary history curricula. It has been shown that they are not ordinarily receiving such a place. Finally, it has been indicated that the Americas are being omitted for other than defensible reasons.

It will be the function of the remainder of this paper to take up problems involved in placing the Americas in the curriculum, and to crystallize a few of the questions which have been inspired by this study, but which cannot be examined within the confines of these pages.

The problem to be considered in this chapter is that of placement of the Americas in secondary history curricula.

Were a completely topical plan to be followed in the high school, the problem of placement would not occur. Material would be drawn from the Americas for the various topics as needed. Such a program is not now generally followed. Secondary curricula are composed of separate topics, or disciplines, including history. History instruction is divided into courses covering specified geographical areas.
It is within such a curricular pattern that the other Americas must be presented. Obstacles to be overcome are great enough without attempting to reorganize the entire secondary curricular program.

What are the feasible means available by which the Americas might be placed in secondary history instruction? How can the inclusion of the Americas, in the most genuine sense of that term, be effected?

Three avenues of approach present themselves:

1. Create a separate course in the history of the other Americas.

2. Expand the so-called world history courses to include the other Americas.

3. Expand the present American history courses to include the other twenty-one American nations.

The above three plans will now be briefly discussed.

Examination of the Alternatives

Separate Course

The feasibility of creating a separate course on the history of the other Americas may almost be dismissed at once. Such a course would serve to perpetuate the notion that there are somehow two Americas - the United States and the others. The tendency, because of the larger population and area of Latin America, would be to emphasize the West Indies, Mexico, Central and South America to the neglect of Canada.
Thus would the imagined gap between Latin America and Anglo America be perpetuated by the school, for the course would become essentially a Latin American history program.

On grounds of geography, economics, and history, a course covering all the Americas except the United States would be unrealistic and absurd. It would have no basis in purpose, and would be similar to a course in Asiatic history which would omit China, or like the world history courses which exclude the United States.

The history of the Americas is woven of material from all the hemisphere. The Americas themselves are more of a unity than their political divisions would indicate. The significant problems for the understanding and solution of which historical materials are to be drawn cannot wait upon a division of the hemisphere into two worlds.

Because it has been speaking from the point of view of United States secondary curricular problems, this paper has frequently used the term other Americas. In the social sense, however, there is no such thing as the other Americas, any more than there is the rest of the world. There are only the Americas, with no egocentric insertion of the word other.

A separate course may be mechanically possible, much as a course in the history of France, India, Ethiopia, New Zealand, Uruguay, and Outer Mongolia, is mechanically possible. Such a course in "Areas Not Considered Elsewhere," however,
is in discord with the stated nature of history and with
the stated purposes of history instruction.

**Expanded World History Course**

World history courses generally confine the larger
portion of their attention to Europe. One state education
bulletin remarks, in referring to the tenth grade world
history course: "The term 'world' history is a misnomer,
as the course is usually little more than a history of
western Europe." In recent years writers and planners
have attempted to bring in to the world history courses some
reference to Asiatic developments, thus making an already
overloaded program top-heavy with material. The so-called
world history course, basically European in emphasis, is in
danger of becoming a catch-all for previously forgotten
continents.

The Americas, as was pointed out in the first chapter,
include twenty-two nations, some of them rich in historical
materials. Such a continental mass cannot simply be "added"
to a program already overcrowded.

It is conceivable that material from the Americas could
be used rather well in a four-year topically arranged world

---

1 John Callahan, State Superintendent, *The Social Studies
in Wisconsin Schools*, Madison, Wisconsin: The Democrat
Printing Company, June, 1943, p. 16.

2 See texts listed on pp. 90-96, above.
history program, but it is not conceivable that such a plan will be soon forthcoming. It would also be possible to abolish all history courses entirely and to expand such fields as civics, economics, problems of democracy, art, music, metallurgy, etc., into more of their historical backgrounds, thus using materials from the Americas as well as from other lands. The ramifications of such a proposal will be outlined in the concluding chapter of this paper. Meanwhile, it suffices to say that such a step may not be expected to be taken in the near future.

Thus, if the Americas are to be added to the world history course, they will be annexed as a new body of knowledge to swell an already burdened schedule.

Such a proposal must be rejected for two obvious reasons:

1. Presentation of non-American materials will be hampered.

2. The Americas will not receive the attention demanded by their place in the world pattern.

It may thus be seen that addition of the Americas to the present overloaded one-year world history course will not solve the problem of placement.

**Expanded American History Course**

Considering the obstacles standing in the way of a radical reformation of secondary world history programs, it
appears that the expanded American history course offers the most practicable solution to the problem of placing the Americas in secondary history instruction. For this view the following reasons may be adduced:

1. Neither of the other two alternatives are satisfactory.

2. The expanded American history course would not further disunity as would a separate other-American history course. While the danger of overloading would not be absent, planners might well bear in mind that secondary American history courses can afford to reduce somewhat their emphasis on the United States in favor of inter-American understanding and in the interests of realizing stated objectives of history instruction.

3. The cooperation and inter-dependence of nations need more emphasis in the school, and the American hemisphere presents an admirable opportunity to perform this service.

4. The political divisions found in America are largely eliminated in thought when large social problems and forces are being considered. These social factors transcend all frontiers. This is significantly true of any land mass having a generally common history.

5. The idea that the United States of America is the only Western Hemisphere nation worth mentioning should be obliterated from history classrooms. The persistent habit
common to texts and curricular plans of considering the terms *Western Hemisphere* and *New World* as being equivalent to the phrase *United States of America*, must be broken. This can be done by bringing to the attention of secondary students the problems, prospects, and ideals of all of the American nations, including our own. By the time students reach the eleventh or twelfth grade they have generally received such a degree of instruction in United States history that a consideration of all of America is entirely in order.

The all-American history course is not a complete answer. It carries the danger of inculcating students with an attitude of hemispheric isolation. It hinders the social studies from drawing upon all historical sources in a coherent manner.

In view of the considerations presented in this discussion, however, it would seem that under present circumstances of curricular planning the all-American history course is to be preferred to any other presently possible alternative.

The chapter which follows will outline some problems involved in working out a new, expanded secondary American history curriculum.
CHAPTER VII

PROBLEMS IN PREPARING THE NEW CURRICULUM

Introduction

The foregoing discussion has pointed out that all the Americas should be included within the secondary history program. The preceding chapter has indicated the all-American history course as being probably the most desirable present solution to this problem.

Such a history course would have as its subject all the American nations, including the United States. The implication of Chapter VI was that such a program would replace the present so-called American (United States) history classes, and, coming near the end of secondary studies, would bring all the Americas into the student’s thinking, as well as refresh his memory on details of United States history.

A number of problems must be solved in the preparation of such a course. The present chapter will conclude the discussion of the Americas by introducing some of the problems involved. The final chapter of this paper will underline some general history problems which have grown out of this examination, in the thought that material for further research may thus be suggested.
The Problems

This chapter cannot pretend to cover all of the problems which will grow out of attempts at preparing an expanded American history course. It will point out a few that have naturally arisen in discussion and thinking on this subject, in the hope that the way may thus be partially cleared for development of such a program.

The matters to be given at least passing attention will include the following:

1. Problems of development: topical versus chronological development.
2. Problem of inclusion and exclusion of materials.
3. Minor suggestions.
4. Planning aids.

Problems of Development

Speaking broadly, one of two general developmental processes is ordinarily followed in any history course: the chronological approach or the topical approach.

Chronological Development

The plan of chronological development is the pattern most commonly found in history texts. In such an arrangement, some aggregation of events arranged in time sequence forms the core about which are grouped the materials of the text. A series of cross-sections, arranged according to time, may be presented the student, or, as is more commonly
the case, the text may be divided into epochs, arranged in chronological series, which are subdivided on a geographical, topical, or some other basis, with each subdivision in turn developed more or less chronologically.

This time-sequence pattern may have a number of variations. For example, the history instructor Christian Weise arranged events counter-chronologically, starting from present problems.

A book embodying such a plan may be easily identified by the fact that a student seeking information which he knows to be concerned with a given calendar period, may, by leafing through the pages of the text and noting the dates recorded here and there, easily find the desired data.

Were such a chronological approach to be used in treatment of the Americas, how would the course be arranged? A political history might be laid out along approximately the following lines:

I. Period of discovery and exploration.
   The exploits of the various conquerors, explorers, and settlers, throughout the Americas, arranged in time sequence.

II. The colonial period, closing generally about the turn of the eighteenth-nineteenth centuries.
   A. English, to the declaration of Canadian Dominion status.
   B. Spanish, to declaration of Cuban independence, but coming to an end throughout most of the Americas shortly after the opening of the nineteenth century.
   C. Portuguese, to 1822 - independence of Brazil.
   D. French, to declaration of Haitian independence.
Suspected no page 164.
III. The wars of independence, from 1775 to 1898, but centering around the close of the eighteenth and opening of the nineteenth centuries.

IV. First period of independence, to about 1860, considered according to the political divisions.

V. An overview, 1860.
   A. The United States civil war.
   B. Ferment in Mexico.
   C. Beginnings of Canadian independence.
   D. Pattern of internal struggles.

VI. Second period of independence, 1860-1910, considered according to political divisions.

VII. New awakenings and the first world war.

VIII. The inter-war period.
   A. Increasing unity.
   B. Economic developments.
   C. Strengthening political democracy.

IX. The second world war and the prospects for America.

This outline would form the basis for an essentially political history of the Americas. The chronological pattern has been found to be peculiarly adapted to the discussion of history whenever but one phase—such as the political phase—is under discussion. The reason why early histories had little difficulty in following the chronological pattern was chiefly that the content of these histories centered in the main about politics and war.

The dominantly chronological pattern, however modified, is ill-adapted to history instruction which aims to broaden the base of discussion. In other words, it is difficult if not impossible to discuss the situation respecting labor, international relations, social security, cooperatives, land reform, industrial development, transportation, constitutional framework, etc., in the year 1875, and then go over
the same ground, covering the same series of topics, as they had developed by the year 1885, and so on.

Some sort of topical arrangement is demanded. This plan will now be discussed.

**Topical Development**

To facilitate a broadening of historical treatment into fields other than those concerned with political struggles, and to do so within the framework of a feasible mechanical organization, the topical arrangement is used. The identifying feature of the topical, or strand, plan, is that it is dominated by topics rather than by chronology. Individual topics may, but need not, be considered in some sort of time-series arrangement. Just as a chronologically arranged text may be easily identified by the means used to seek material therein, so the topically arranged text may be easily identified by the impossibility of finding any item simply on the basis of its date of occurrence. What must be known in searching through a topically-arranged book is the general subject, or strand, under which an item naturally falls.

Were such a topical plan used in an all-American history program, how would such a course be arranged? A topical outline of an all-American history course might
include, among others, the following themes:

I. Labor.
   A. Development of labor practices.
      1. Comparatively unrestricted unionism: Mexico, Cuba, Colombia, Chile, Costa Rica, Panamá, Argentina.
      2. Restricted unionism: United States of America, Canada, Venezuela, Perú, Ecuador, Bolivia, Haiti, Nicaragua.
   B. Development of labor organizations: CIO, AFL, CTAL, etc.
   C. Development of labor legislation.
      1. Minimum wages.
      2. Maximum hours.
      3. Safety regulations.

II. Social security measures.

III. The cooperative movement.
   A. Beginnings of the coop movement in Chile.
   B. Characteristics of the coop movement in the Americas.

IV. The land tenure problem.
   A. Concentration of ownership over the years.
      1. Mason-Dixon line to Cape Horn.
      2. Mason-Dixon line to the fiftieth parallel.
      3. The fiftieth parallel to point Barrow.
   B. Attempts at reform.
      1. Break-up of estates under government pressure: Argentina, Ecuador, Mexico.
      2. Homesteading and colonization schemes: Brazil, United States, Dominican republic (colonies, including one Jewish).
      3. Farm credit schemes: Chile, Costa Rica.
      5. Areas of negligible reform.

---

1 George Soule and others, *Latin America in the Future World*, p. 93.

2 Ibid., pp. 230-240.
V. Trade and transportation.
   A. Building of the railroads.
   B. The Pan American Highway.
   C. Bases for development of closely integrated networks: The United States and Argentina.

VI. Industrial development.
   A. Bases for leading industrial developments: United States and Canada.
   B. Factors involved in slow industrial developments: Central America, Paraguay, Colombia, Honduras, Ecuador, etc.

VII. International relations.
   A. The Pan American Union.

VIII. Political development.
   A. Democratic governments and their foundations.
   B. Some areas of slow democratic development.
   C. Constitutional patterns and their bases.

The topical outline above does not present all the possible social science topics, or even, perhaps, a majority of them. It does not go outside the conventional field of the social sciences. It is injected into the discussion as an example of a partial topical outline about which planning may center its attention.

Choosing Between the Two Plans

It has been implied above that the topical, or strand, plan of history instruction is the better adapted to presentation of a broad history course, while the chronological plan may in some cases be better to chronicle events in a limited field, such as politics. The consideration has thus far been kept at the level of mechanics.

At this point a step into theory will be attempted in an effort at making a choice between the topical and the chronological methods of arrangement.
What is history? Is it past politics? Is it past economics? Is it past music, past art, past engineering?

It would seem that history is any one or all of these things.

Karl Müller had something of this thought in mind when he insisted that history instruction be run into all fields. H. T. Buckle made a point of including economic forces, not just men and events, while Green (1837-1883) depicted the people and only incidentally the political history of the State. Leopold von Ranke tried to present the entire picture of events, with their causes, relationships, consequences.

As early as mid-eighteenth century, history study was broadened by a few writers to include some social groups outside military or political categories. Voltaire worked on this. Nicholas Murray Butler made the point clear when he stated that: "History offers a third dimension...to our area of knowledge."

---

3 Ernest Scott, History and Historical Problems, p. 102.
5 Ibid.
7 Ibid., Introduction, p. vii.
What, then, is history? What are its purposes?

History has no purposes. History is simply what has happened. History instruction, or history study, or history writing, may have purposes, as has been shown in preceding chapters. History, like the constellation Orion, is there, and we can create the purposes that we wish in studying or teaching it.

To say that history is confined to any one subject is, of course, absurd. History is a part of all subjects. It is an expansion of all subjects. It is the third dimension of all subjects. History is only differentiated from other fields of which it is the expansion by the time element, which, when modern astronomical concepts are considered, is a rather flimsy distinguishing mark. The history of art is an expansion of art. The history of athletics is a broadening of athletics.

Taking a subject like, say, politics, we may draw a small circle to represent present politics. We may then draw a sweeping, surrounding circle to represent past politics. The history of politics thus becomes, in a sense, simply more politics.

History cannot be separated from the subject whose development is being traced. History cannot stand alone. Theoretically, there is no such thing as history, standing unattended on a sort of pinnacle or rostrum. When history
was simply story-telling, it could stand alone because it was narrative, not history. When history was simply the chronicling of political and military events, it was called history for short, but was actually the history of politics and wars. It thus had a subject of which it was the expansion, and so was not standing alone as a separate discipline.

It will be objected that the peculiarities of historical method make of history a separate discipline. It is true that the operations of historical research are in some ways distinctive from the operations of non-historical research. Such peculiarities in methodology, however, cannot be said to make historical content different from non-historical content. The sociologist is no less a sociologist because he uses historical method in gathering part of his material. The economist is as much an economist when he investigates past economics as when he investigates present economics. The secondary class will be chiefly concerned with content. Therefore the distinctions of methodology need not be a matter for dispute in this paper. But even where the methods of historical research are presented in the class, the field of study will not be thereby changed. Content, not method of gathering that content, is the stuff of which the disciplines are made.

History, then, is the expansion into past time of a
topic, or discipline, or problem. Its objectives must logically depend upon whatever objectives are cited as controlling the study of that topic, discipline, or problem. The objectives of history, unattended, alone, unassociated with any topic, cannot possibly be divined.

A confusion as to the nature of history has been exhibited by planners.

J. B. Black writes:

The intimate union between literature, philosophy, and history, so amply demonstrated in the writings of Voltaire and his 'school', is not merely an ideal of the eighteenth century, but one which bears a validity for all time. 8

Mr. Black is inclined to stress the need for a reintegration of history and philosophy, and sees a strong "relationship of history to the ethical universe." 9 Many feel that history and geography should be fused, as they sometimes are, while the Committee of Seven favored a union of history and civil government. 10 Various writers have tied history with such courses as sociology or biography. Finally, some groups have considered that history

9 Ibid., p. 114.
10 Ibid., p. 6.
11 Johnson, op. cit., p. 348.
12 Committee of Seven, The Study of History in Schools, pp. 81-85.
should form the center of any correlation. The whole question as to what subjects may be properly combined with history, and what subjects may not be so combined, has furnished material for much heated debate.

In all such discussion, history is thought of as being a separate subject, somehow quite different from some, but quite similar to others.

The nature of history and the place of history instruction become more clear when history is considered as it has been presented above - as a broadening of items, subjects, topics, problems, concepts, etc.

Another question which has disturbed the students of history instruction has been that of functional versus developmental history. Do we study history to understand what matters now, or to understand what mattered then? It would seem that the principal aim of civics, problems of democracy, economics, and so forth, is to determine what matters now. History, being an expansion of these subjects, must share in the same objective.

Henry Johnson points out that a difficulty with the topical plan is that it tends to be piece-meal, and to make the past rather unintelligible, which, he contends, may not be

13 Johnson, op. cit., p. 347.

14 Ibid., p. 351.
advisable if we want an intelligible present. The intelligibility of the past in terms of a topical development might be found to be more marked than its intelligibility in terms of a chronological development. The point that must be borne in mind is that there is not one past, but an infinity of pasts, in all times and in all branches of learning. To speak of making "the past" intelligible, therefore, is not quite meaningful.

It has been suggested in the paragraphs of this section that history may be a part of any topic - that it cannot stand alone. It has been suggested also that, as a part of a social studies pattern, its concern must be with social studies objectives - that is, with understanding the present in the sense of evaluation and action applied to socially significant problems.

Thus, on the basis of theoretical as well as mechanical considerations, it would appear that a plausible case can be made for the topical approach over the chronological plan. The writer finds this case convincing.

**Problem of Inclusion and Exclusion of Materials**

The problem of selection of materials is one of the most perplexing questions facing most writers and teachers of history. What shall be placed in the curriculum? What

---

should be omitted? Should the course include Washington's crossing of the Delaware? If so, to what degree should the details of this event be described? Should the history include a description of a day in the home of a Canadian frontiersman? Or should this be omitted in favor of other pressing matters, such as an analysis of the growth of the Aprista movement in Perú? If this latter choice is made, how much space should be given to Haya de la Torre?

Should the history writer or instructor emphasize the sensational romantic events of historical development, or should he confine himself to the more drab details of everyday change? James Harvey Robinson writes an entertaining passage on the dangers of citing only the unusual or peculiar in history texts, and indicates how life today would be presented very incorrectly if seen only through the eyes of a publication such as the Police Gazette or the Daily Mirror. 17

The problem of inclusion or exclusion of material includes the problem of dates. Which should be included? On what basis? Are dates necessary at all? It is felt by some that dates should be used to provide a means for showing comparative position— to tie together events occurring in any given period. Henry Johnson remarks simply that those

16 Leader of the Apra, or Alianza Popular Revolucionaria Americana.

dates may be included which mark the beginnings of phases of history commonly recognized as important.

As a general criterion for the inclusion or rejection of material, Robinson asks: "Is the fact or occurrence one which will aid the reader to grasp the meaning of any great period of human development or the true nature of any momentous institution?"

Agreement on the bases for selection has not been reached. One may be permitted, therefore, to examine the problem of inclusion or exclusion of material in the light of his own conception of the nature of history itself.

As was pointed out in the foregoing pages of this chapter, history is for the writer of this thesis but an extension, a broadening, of any topic, discipline, or problem. It was suggested that the history of politics may be described as being more politics, and that history cannot stand alone, that it is an integral part of any and all subjects or topics.

Probably, inclusion or exclusion of historical materials must be decided in the light of the problem under discussion.

---

18 Johnson, The Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools, p. 211.

19 Robinson, op. cit., p. 15.

20 See p. 170, above.
Is the history an expansion of politics? Then what are the objectives involved in instruction in politics? Is the history a broadening of the field of medicine? Then what are the objectives to be sought in pursuing the medical knowledge?

In earlier pages of this paper the concept was developed that history instruction in the social studies has as its chief goal the evaluation of present factors, forces, and institutions involved in significant social problems, for the creation of plans of action calculated to deal scientifically with the social problems under attack.

Such an objective is not an aim of history instruction per se. It is an aim of instruction in the history of government, of economics, of problems of democracy, or in topical subdivisions of the histories of these subjects. The goal of evaluation and action is a goal which history adopts when it becomes a part of the social studies. All history does not necessarily have such an aim. Instruction in the history of animal husbandry, for example, may have such an objective only incidentally, if at all.

The problem of selection of materials, while still difficult, becomes nevertheless somewhat simplified within such a pattern. Shall we include the episode of Washington

---

21 See pp. 52-57, above.
crossing the Delaware, or of Paul Revere's ride? What social force, factor, or institution, are we attempting to evaluate? Does the crossing of the Delaware offer lessons in military science? Then it should be included in classes on the history of that field. Does the event suggest efficient means for handling a boat? Then it should be included in lessons on the history of navigation. Does Paul Revere's ride present an example of masterly horsemanship? Then the item should be a part of a course in the history of equestrianship—a program which would be calculated to expand general information respecting the handling and riding of horses.

If, however, the events can be found to aid in evaluating no phase of any significant social problem or question, it would appear difficult to find a reason for their inclusion in a history supposed to broaden the field of the social sciences.

On the other hand, a description of the bases for early Spanish land grants has a definite evaluating function if the problem of land tenure is under discussion. Such a description therefore has a close bearing on the objectives of history instruction in the social sciences, and should undoubtedly be included within such a history course. The matter of details within such a description offers a new problem in selection of material, but it would seem that this matter, too, can be solved in large measure on the basis of the plan above outlined. Land ownership is a factor in
social problems throughout the Americas. Enough details should be included in a description of bases for this institution to enable the student to understand how it has generally come into being, and to evaluate its persistence in modern society.

With respect to dates, very much the same policy can be followed. Dates are but another type of material, like the crossing of the Delaware. In some cases they may aid the student in evaluating social phenomena. In others, they may be of no particular help, and may in fact provide obstacles to grasping other, more significant matters. Thus, for example, it is significant for the student to know that Brazil abolished slavery about a quarter-century after the United States officially did away with the institution. Such a fact, considered in the light of Brazil's brilliant success as compared with the United States' miserable failure in the field of race relations, may bring forcibly to the student's attention the strength of forces at work in Brazil to create racial understanding, and of those in the United States to create racial misunderstanding. Such knowledge may inspire him with a constructive attitude toward the problem in the United States.

On the other hand, the fact that both Thomas Jefferson and John Adams died on July 4, 1826, can hardly be said to be more than a curious coincidence, and would not seem to
merit a place in a history purporting to pursue the ends of the social sciences.

In the preceding pages the writer has set forth his conviction that the topical plan may be the most practicable solution to the problem of arrangement of materials; and some bases have been proposed for the inclusion and exclusion of historical materials.

A few suggestions will now be made for the handling of the expanded American history course, along with some hints as to guide materials for preparing the course.

**Minor Suggestions**

With particular reference to Latin America, the Committee on the Study of Teaching Material in Inter-American Subjects has listed the following as being practices which should be followed in the preparation of materials:

1. More graphic material must be provided. Visual materials, as well as a greater variety of books, are urgently needed.

2. Prejudices, which have so often crept into Latin American materials, must not be permitted to appear.

3. A correction must be made in the current over-emphasis on political, military, picturesque, and spectacular phases of Latin American development.

4. A greater stress must be laid on the similarities
found throughout the Americas.

With all care to avoid superficial entertainment, and with the greatest emphasis on rigidly following the goals set forth as guiding social studies instruction, the expanded American history course must not lose sight of the need to hold the student's attention, to make of his reading materials a body of prose which will command his interest and respect. If the student's interest in analyzing labor development, land tenure systems, racial problems, transportation questions, tax matters, etc., may be hindered by not chronicling Bolivar's dramatic crossing and re-crossing of the Andes, then it would seem that reason might be found for including some mention of that episode.

Some guide materials which might be of aid in preparing the suggested American history course will now be presented. The paper will then conclude with a brief chapter outlining problems for further research which have grown out of this study.

Planning Aids

Higher Level Models

Work has in recent years been done in preparing all-American history texts for higher level and adult education. These could serve as partial guides to creation of materials for the proposed American history course. A partial list
follows:


Baldwin, Leland Dewitt, Story of the Americas. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1943. This history of all the Americas is hemispheric in scope, but sharp division is made according to political frontiers. The narrative is given a degree of integration, however, through treatment of inter-American relations at various points in the book.


Navarro y Lamarca, Carlos, Historia General de América. Buenos Aires: Angel Estrada y Compañía, 1910. Two volumes. The book presents a topical-chronological-geographical combination plan, taking up each section in turn within each listed subject. The United States of America, while treated, is not stressed.

Secondary Texts in History of the Americas

Secondary texts on American history are, except in unusual instances, limited to consideration of a particular part of the hemisphere, such as Canada, the United States of America, or Latin America. Texts covering the history of the United States have already been listed. 23 Texts covering

23 See pp. 96-104, above.
Canadian or Latin American history are not common. Representative books, which could furnish some organizational aid, are listed below:

Brown, Harriett McCune, and Bailey, Helen Miller, Our Latin American Neighbors. New York: Houghton, Mifflin, and Company, 1945. A text for use in junior high classes. According to the introduction, the book is: "...designed for basal use in Latin American history courses. It can be used successfully also as a supplemental text in American history...." The contents are arranged in the following pattern:

I. Geography of Latin America.
II. Indian civilizations.
III. Spaniards - the colonial period.
IV-VIII. A history of the various Latin American nations, taken in turn.
IX. History of inter-American relations.


Cutright, Prudence, Charters, W. W., and Sánchez, George I., Twenty Friendly Nations. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1944. A text of history and description for use in lower junior high school classes. Parts I and III pursue a unified hemisphere study, while Part II separates the various nations for individual consideration. Material covered is as follows:

Part I. From the Past to the Present.
Part II. The Latin American Republics Today.
Part III. The Americas Learn to Work Together.

Inman, Samuel Guy, and Castañeda, C. E., A History of Latin America for Schools. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1944. This text, apparently for junior high classes, contains a rather complete treatment, for this level, of the Latin American republics. Many good maps are included, but few pictures are to be found. Contents include:

I. Preview of a Continent.
II. Background of a Continent.
III. International Life of a Continent.
IV. Expression of a Continent.
Rippy, J. Fred, and Perrigo, Lynn I., Latin America, Its History and Culture. New York: Ginn and Company, 1944. A compact volume of description and history, well supplied with photographs and maps, and with a thorough appendix containing lists of study guides, books, aids, etc. Early high school level. Contents are as follows:

I. General orientation.
II. Twenty Nations - descriptive.
III. Before Columbus.
IV. The Conquerors - colonial period and life.
V. Independence - the wars of independence.
VI. History of individual countries since independence.
VII. Relations with the United States.
VIII. Recent changes - social revolution, especially in Mexico.
IX. Developments in the recent Good Neighbor policy.


Research Materials

A few particularly interesting volumes which have come to the writer's attention are the following:


Bancroft, Hubert Howe, The Works of Hubert Howe Bancroft. San Francisco: The History Company, 1886. Thirty-nine volumes. A tremendous work with a mass of source material growing out of an almost lifelong investigation on the part of Mr. Bancroft and his associates.


Larson, Sofus, Ph.D., The Discovery of North America Twenty Years Before Columbus. Copenhagen: Levin and Munksgård, 1925.
Levene, Ricardo, Historia de América. Buenos Aires: W. M. Jackson, Inc., 1940. Fourteen volumes. Within the subjects listed below, the author takes up the various areas or countries individually:

1. The aborigines of Central and North America.
2. The aborigines of South America.
3. Discoveries.
5. Colonial Portuguese and English America.
6. Independence and constitutional organization.
7. Contemporary America.
8. Constitutional texts.
9. General index.

Pamphlets on the Norse Discovery of America, C. S. U., with compliments of Eben Norton Horsford.

Revista de Historia de América. Published quarterly, 1938-1944, by the Instituto Panamericano de Geografía e Historia, México, D.F. A mass of material, followed by a superb index in the eighteenth and last volume.


Conclusion

The discussion in this and preceding chapters has led to the thought that an expanded American history course, possibly arranged on a topical basis, should become a part
of the secondary history curriculum. The implication has been that such a course might well replace the traditional American (United States) history course. The physical significance of the other Americas, the unified development of the Americas, the existence of a growing inter-American system, and the objectives of history instruction in the social sciences, have been found entirely consistent with, and at some points favorable to, the idea of such an all-American history course. The writer has given his grounds for preferring a topical rather than a chronological arrangement for such a course. Finally, materials have been listed which might make a beginning possible in working out an all-American history program.

The chapter which follows will formulate some problems and questions which have grown out of this investigation, and which seem to the writer to warrant further inquiry.
CHAPTER VIII

LEADS FOR FURTHER STUDY

A study which leaves no unanswered questions must be a rarity indeed. Out of the theoretical questions raised in this paper, the following projects and problems have been suggested:

1. From the discussion of history as an expansion of understanding (pages 48-57, above), the writer has acquired:
   a. A desire for a more vigorous study of institutional origins.
   b. A feeling that the entire question of the inevitability of a collectivist society should be reopened.
   c. An incentive to examine more closely present-day aims in history instruction, to determine what, precisely, is involved in them.

2. From the examination of influences behind the present pattern of history instruction (pages 131-150), and from the survey of American history texts (pages 96-104), has arisen a wish to examine and evaluate the present United States history course, without reference to the other Americas.

3. From the discussion of history as an integral part of all studies (pages 168-174), have arisen these two
thoughts:

a. That a study might be made of the feasibility of abolishing history courses as such entirely, replacing them by specifically oriented historical studies in politics, economics, art, education, and so forth.

b. That further study should be made to determine whether any objectives can be attached to history instruction that are not a part of the particular subjects whose history is under examination as of a given moment.

4. On the matter of selection of materials (pages 174-180), much further work needs to be done.

Ramifications of each of the above questions will now be presented briefly.

1a. A more vigorous study of institutional origins.

The concept of the evaluating function of social history leads inevitably to an incentive to pursue a thorough study of many leading practices and institutions. Many highly venerable structures may be found to have begun in robbery, and to have acquired more desirable goals in an effort at self-perpetuation. Specific examination could be made of many bureaus, commissions, societies, etc. General bases for land and other titles could be brought to light - as for example, where many thousands of dollars have been acquired
by a host of title-holders through the grant of four thousand acres by the government to a soldier of the United States revolution.

1b. Reopening the question of the inevitability of collectivism.

The concept that a planned economy is an inevitable future development in societal evolution has of late been broached by many students of the subject. When seen in the light of the irregular, apparently unpredictable and erratic course thus far taken within the fabric of human affairs, has sufficient evidence been secured to assure the inevitability of some sort of collectivist society? How much of the scientific method and how much wishful thinking have entered into the predictions of inevitable collectivism? How much does the doctrine of inevitability owe to the already somewhat collectivist society against which the social collectivists direct their most vigorous attacks? What are the problems facing secondary social studies instruction if it be found that collectivism may not be entirely inevitable? Are educators considering this possibility?

---

1 See, especially, American Historical Association, A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools, and Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission.
lc. A closer examination of stated aims in history instruction.

In the discussion on history as an expansion of understanding (pages 48-57), three interpretations of the phrase "understanding the present" were offered: (1) Sympathizing with the present, (2) satisfying curiosity about backgrounds of present societal factors, and (3) doing something about the present. The implication of the discussion was that authorities are not entirely agreed, and in some cases are individually unclear as to what lies behind the statement about "understanding the present." The writer holds the view that a clarification of this matter is of the utmost urgency. In the present study, as much examination as could be accomplished was conducted on this question, resulting in a preference for the evaluation-action interpretation. Such an outcome has proved useful for the purposes of this paper; but it would seem that the problem demands greater attention than can be given here. Thinking must be clarified and crystallized on the oft-used and apparently little-understood phrase, "understanding the present." It has been found, even in this limited study, that much hinges on a solution to this problem. It is hard to conceive of any program of history instruction which would not need to decide precisely what it means when it speaks of "understanding the present." Further work on this question is therefore indicated.
2. Examination of present United States history courses.

It is not to be supposed that this paper will seriously affect programs of history instruction. Secondary history curricula will for many years to come continue to offer material having as its subject, in the main, only the United States and Europe. Mention of findings made by this study with respect to United States history courses is therefore in order at this point.

In the survey of "American" history texts (pages 96-104), a curious pattern was discovered. In the opening pages of most of the texts, it was found that mention is generally made of explorations and conquests in South and Central America and in Canada. However, with the lifting of the curtain on United States history, no further word (except in rare mention of contacts with our own country) is to be found on the other Americas. This pattern is substantially the one found in twenty-six American history texts, while two retain their narrative within confines of the present-day United States. Only one devotes enough space to the other Americas, after the colonization epoch, to approach in any degree the ideal of an all-American history text.

Two other findings associated with the American history texts should be mentioned: (1) They generally include mention of Pizarro in Perú, Cortés in México, and Columbus in the
West Indies, but (2) they invariably omit material on Spanish, Russian, and French settlement west of the Mississippi within what is now the United States, and seldom include any word of early Scandinavian activities in what is now the northeastern part of the United States.

Representative books, therefore, indicate that while United States history courses contain a substantial body of material on early colonization and exploration entirely outside of what is now the United States, they include practically nothing on the non-English backgrounds inside of present United States borders. This thesis has made the contention that secondary students are getting a bare minimum of material on the other Americas, at least as far as the history program is concerned. It now begins to appear that the space thus saved does not allow writers to provide them with United States history whose content can claim to be the result of more than arbitrary selection. In the interests of more intelligent reporting of United States history alone, an investigation should be made of practices in secondary United States history curricula.

2 For material on contributions of non-English colonizers west of the Mississippi, see Herbert E. Bolton, Wider Horizons of American History. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1939. For material on Scandinavian activities in early America, see references listed in bibliography.
3a. Abolition of history as an independent field of instruction.

If the view is correctly taken that history is but an expansion, a possible broadening, of any and all subjects, then the proposal could be seriously entertained that history be abolished as an independent discipline. Such, in fact, is the implication of many common practices. Most fields include courses, or at least a body of instruction, in their respective histories. Thus we have courses and instruction in the history of art, of music, of economics, of political thought, of education, etc. If history is to expand beyond the realm of mere political struggle, it must intrude into these fields. Yet, instruction is already being conducted in the histories of almost all subjects, and it would appear illogical that students should be subjected to an independent historical examination of fields about whose present development they may never learn anything. This suggests that there is a need to consider whether history as a separate field should be continued at all.

3b. Examination of separate history instruction objectives.

In thinking of history as an integral part of social and other studies, it may not be desired that the matter be pursued to the bitter end of abolishing the separate history courses. Whether or not this be done, it certainly seems
desirous that a re-examination of aims in history instruction be made to determine whether or not they can be in fact separated from the aims of subjects whose histories are being presented.


This writer is not entirely satisfied with the results of thinking and study done on selection of materials (pages 174-180). Particularly does it seem that an incomplete study was made of the problem of dates. The point was made that selection of materials, including dates, must depend upon aims of the subject whose history is under discussion. In the social studies, a principal objective would be that of intelligently and scientifically evaluating factors in the social fabric with a view to outlining courses of action. Application of such a process to selection of materials cannot be entirely validated until a wider analysis of various types of historical data, particularly dates, has been made.

Conclusion

The principal function of this paper has been to underline the urgency of bringing all of the Americas into the secondary history curriculum. An incidental function - one which could become a leading purpose of further studies - has been to break down the mythical barrier between past and present, to show that past knowledge is but a broadening of present knowledge, to associate the history of government
with government, the history of economics with economics, the history of problems of democracy with problems of democracy.

The distinction still held in many minds between present and past knowledge is revealed by the objection most commonly raised to the topical arrangement of history instruction, namely, that confusion might result from the over-lapping of border materials from the various fields. How great, then, must be the confusion in instruction in the field of present knowledge, which is almost invariably arranged on the topical plan! Repetition of various items in present materials, it would seem, is approved, but repetition of items in historical materials is disapproved.

This writer claims no monopoly on any problem posed by this chapter. The questions suggested are brought forward in the hope that of the few who chance to turn these pages, one or two may find a thought which will throw open to them an avenue of investigation.


"Chapultepec Triumph is Unity in Pan America," *Newsweek,* XXV (March 19, 1945), p. 70.


"Is Canada a Nation?" The Canadian Forum, XXVI (June, 1946), pp. 53-54.


Larson, Sofus, Ph.D. *The Discovery of North America Twenty Years Before Columbus.* Copenhagen: Levin and Munksgård, 1925.


Pamphlets on the Norse Discovery of America, Ohio State University. Compliments of Eben Norton Horsford.


