# A WAR-MODIFIED COURSE OF STUDY

FOR

## THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF COLORADO

THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

MARY C. C. BRADFORD, Superintendent

1918

VOLUME I



"No child should have less opportunity for education because of the war"

- Woodrow Wilson



PREPARED BY
MARY C. C. BRADFORD
AND CO-OPERATING EDUCATORS

1918 DENVER

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#### NOTICE

Teachers of Colorado:

This volume is public property and is not to be removed from the district when you leave.

The State of Colorado provides these books, paying for them from the State School Fund. They are ordered by your County Superintendent for use by any teacher who may be in charge of the school where you are now teaching.

War service demands conservation of books and all other school material. Therefore, as a matter of honor and an obligation of patriotism, please regard this book as public property, not for personal ownership.

Thay C.C. Bradford.



C 19 5-Im7 20:918 P136 6366 FOREWORD

The War-Modified Course of Study, here presented for the use of the Public Schools of Colorado, has been prepared with the assistance of the best pedagogical talent in the commonwealth. The co-operating educators have performed a labor of love for the children of the Centennial State, and the Department of Public Instruction offers this service as a contribution toward an enlightened and patriotic citizenship.

The form of this State Course of Study is different from any that has preceded it. Its issuance in a series of volumes affords convenience and ensures "up-to-dateness." The subject matter, of course, is correlated closely with war conditions, and standardization and the examination grades will be connected with the use of the material in these study helps, making an intellectual foundation for community, state and national service.

This installment of the Course of Study deals with the subjects of History, Civics and Patriotism. The History is treated from the basis of my definition of that study:

"History is the story of the struggle of humanity to conquer and develop nature and to conquer and develop itself."

The study of Civics is linked to community life and suggests training for community activities.

The course in Citizenship is so planned as to stimulate in the child his self-conscious relation to society and the sense of personal obligation toward his city, state and nation.

With warm gratitude for the efficient co-operation always accorded by the teachers of Colorado to the Department of Public Instruction, I offer this aid to the making of straight thinking, hard working and much loving citizens of our glorious Republic.

Thay C.C. Bradford.

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#### FLAG RITUAL

#### PREPARED BY DR. JOHN GRASSE

The following patriotic service is to be committed to memory and used daily:

First—Color-bearer enters room carrying the flag. The pupils all rise to their feet and remain standing until the flag leaves the room.

(It is suggested that as much form as possible be given to the matter of bringing the flag into the room and taking it out again. It is more impressive to have a color guard, properly drilled, accompany the color-bearer, and all enter the room to the tap of a drum or the music of a piano. If there is a drummer or a trumpeter among the pupils, the assembly may be sounded in the hall before the exercises begin. One color guard can be used to do the work for all the grammar- or high-school grades in the building.)

Second—Salute the flag: "We give our hands, our heads, and our hearts, to our country and to our flag."

(At the command "Salute the flag," the regular army flag salute is given by raising the right hand briskly to the forehead above the right eye, and then bringing the arm to the side.)

Third—Questions and Answers.

Q.: Why do we salute the flag?

A.: Because we desire to honor it.

Q.: Why do we honor it?

A.: Because it stands for liberty, justice and equal opportunities for all those who live under its folds.

Q.: How can we best show our devotion to the flag?

A.: By becoming law-abiding and honest citizens of our country.

Q.: Who are the enemies to our flag?

A.: Every person who strikes at our flag by force of arms or by breaking the laws that have been made to preserve our liberties. Those who violate a public trust are even more dangerous enemies than those who openly fire upon our flag.

#### OUR DUTY

Q.: What are our duties as citizens?

A.: Always to defend the honor of the flag at the ballot box; never to sell or buy votes, or permit the election laws to be

broken if we can prevent; not to remain silent if we know of dishonesty in public affairs; but to put forth every effort for the punishment of those who are guilty of such crimes.

Above all, to remember that we are American citizens, whose duty it is to place the welfare of our country above greed or ambition.

Fourth—Singing of the National Anthem: "The Star-Spangled Banner."

with intermed with the many of the first

#### THE STORY OF COLORADO

#### A Synoptical Study

Full of color and light is the story of Colorado. Starred with romance, thrilled with heroism, aflame with hope, are the acts of those who have made its history. Bedewed with the glamor and mystery of old Castile, running back to Puritan England through the descendants of the sturdy New Englanders who have sought and found a home in the shadow of the Rockies; a part of the soil of the Louisiana purchase, carrying with that transaction the magic of Napoleon's might, blazing in the white heat of pioneer devotion and self-sacrifice, Colorado—the red land.—stands for the passion and purpose of the American ideal.

Before the dawn of modern times we see the original Coloradoan dwelling in the cliff palaces devised by his architectural genius and executed with skill and strength. We see an art rich with color, beginning to express itself in form; we see the traces of religious aspiration among these, the first Coloradoans of whom we have any record, known to history as the Cliff Dwellers. Every foot of earth containing remains of this vanished eivilization appeals and stimulates and makes the first chapter in the history of this mighty commonwealth—this land of the Columbines—comparable in some measure, at least, to that of early Egypt.

Next, the shadow of the Spaniard falls across the land, bringing with him the religion, education and customs of an old and rich civilization, the influence of which persists to this day, and lends to life in certain portions of Colorado, the atmosphere of foreign lands.

In virile contrast to the grace and beauty that accompanied much of the Spanish settlement of Colorado, we find the pioneers of '58, drawn by the lure of gold, but fired with a sturdy determination to create real homes on the crest of the continent. The age of the prairie schooner in the Rocky Mountain States was an age of heroic proportions. It was a time when men and women stood the daily test with full measure of success. The days were winged with work worth while, and glorified by the faith and tenderness that none more than the pioneer has bestowed upon his fellows. The red man contested every inch of the soil of the "red land"

with the white man, and the possibility of American civilization was bought at the price of blood and tears, and hallowed by the self-sacrifice of men and women for the ideal of home.

The heroic figure of Lieutenant Pike looms large during this and the preceding period, and the Colorado pioneers from 1858 to 1865 emulated the virtues of those strong souls of the seventeenth century who founded Jamestown and consecrated Plymouth Rock by their arrival.

The next epoch of Colorado life may be termed that of industrial conquest, when mining camps became towns with homes instead of halting places, when agriculture took an ever-increasing place in the rapid development of the mighty commonwealth; when the fruit valleys of the Western Slope became world-famous and the plains of eastern Colorado the Mecca of the homesteaders. Schools flourished, libraries were established. People still spoke of "going back home," but notwithstanding had discovered that home was here on the heights, because here were found opportunities of financial freedom and joy in life.

The spirit of religion has from the earliest days expressed itself in churches in Colorado, and with the years they have grown in beauty and power of influence.

Libraries exist in every corner of the State, and there is an abundance of all that makes for the higher life, the life of thought, vision and purposeful deeds.

"Of old dwelt freedom on the heights," and on the tablelands and mighty mountain slopes of the Centennial State does freedom truly dwell, for side by side with the development of town and country, of church and school and library, is found the splendid fact of the political freedom of women.

From the beginning, this great commonwealth has been a torchbearer, a witness to the struggle of the human spirit to express itself in human institutions. To be a worthy citizen of Colorado. a worthy moulder of its destinies, calls out the highest powers of each individual, and requires a spirit of united endeavor to bring its possibilities to perfection.

#### PREHISTORIC COLORADO

Of all the many ruins of prehistoric cliff dwellings in the southwestern United States those in the side canyon of the Mancos on the Mesa Verde in Montezuma County, Colorado, are for many reasons the most remarkable. This is why Congress has set aside 48,966 acres of southwestern Colorado and called it the Mesa Verde National Park.

It appears strange that the greatest of American prehistoric ruins should have escaped discovery until 1888. Years before innumerable ancient ruins left in several other states by the ancestors of the Pueblo Indians had been described and pictured. They had been the subjects of popular lectures; they had been treated in books of science and books of travel; they had become a familiar American spectacle. Even the ruins in the Mancos Canyon in Colorado were explored as early as 1874. Mr. W. H. Jackson, who led the Government party, found there many small dwellings broken down by the weather. The next year he was followed by Prof. W. H. Holmes, later Chief of the Bureau of American Ethnology, who drew attention to the remarkable stone towers so characteristic of the region. But these discoveries attracted little attention because of their inferiority to the better-known ruins of Arizona and New Mexico. Had either of the explorers followed up the side canyon of the Mancos they would have then discovered ruins which are, in the words of Baron Gustav Nordenskiöld, the talented Swedish explorer, "so magnificent that they surpass anything of the kind known in the United States."

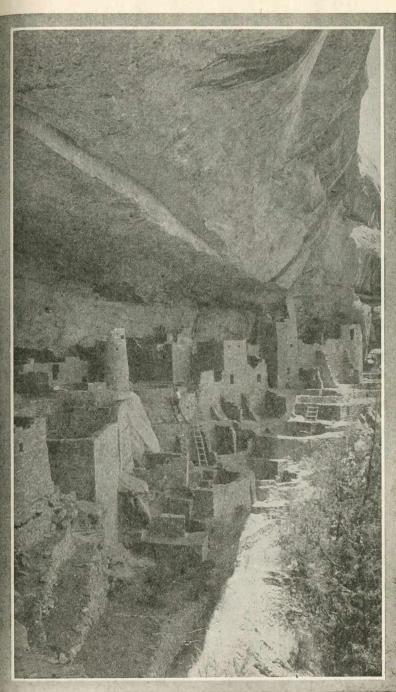
This explains why delvers in libraries find so little about the Mesa Verde. Most books and magazine articles were written when cliff dwellings were a novelty.

Baron Nordenskiöld thus describes in his book "The Cliff Dwellers of the Mesa Verde" (Stockholm, 1893) the discovery of the wonderful dwellings in this side canyon of the Mancos:

The honor of the discovery of these remarkable ruins belongs to Richard and Alfred Wetherill of Mancos. The family own large herds of cattle which wander about on the Mesa Verde. The care of these herds often calls for long rides on the mesa and in its labyrinth of canyons. During these long excursions, ruins, the one more magnificent than the other, have been discovered. The two largest were found by Richard Wetherill and Charley Mason one December day in 1888 as they were riding together through the pinyon wood on the mesa in search of a

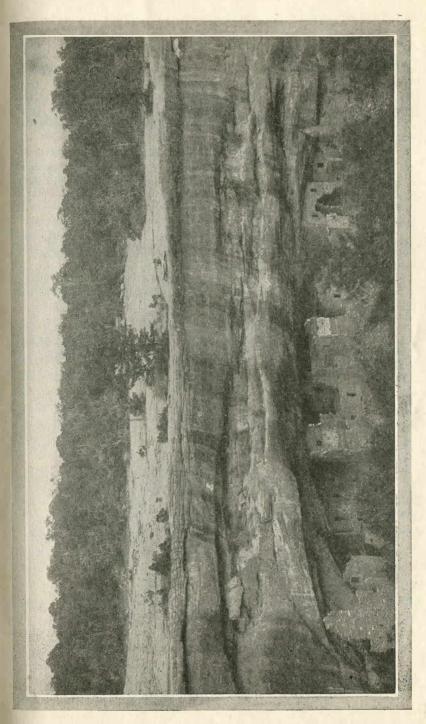
#### Portion of Cliff Palace, Mesa Verde National Park

Near view of a portion of Cliff Palace, the largest of the prehistoric ruins in Mesa Verde National Park, southwestern Colorado. Total length, approximately 300 feet; estimated number of rooms, 200. One of twenty-three kivas, or circular ceremonial rooms, is shown in foreground.



#### Spruce Tree House, Mesa Verde National Park

View of Spruce Tree House, from opposite side of canyon. Next to the Cliff Palace, this is the largest of the prehistoric Cliff Dwelling ruins in Mesa Verde National Park, southwestern Colorado. The new Government wagon road leads to this ruin, where an excellent camp has been established. The other Cliff Dwellings are but a short distance away.



stray herd. They had penetrated through the dense scrub to the edge of a deep canyon. In the opposite cliff, sheltered by a huge, massive vault of rock, there lay before their astonished eyes a whole town, with towers and walls, rising out of a heap of ruins. This grand monument of bygone ages seemed to them well deserving of the name of the Cliff Palace. Not far from this place, but in a different canyon, they discovered, on the same day, another very large cliff dwelling. To this they gave the name of Spruce Tree House, from a great spruce that jutted forth from the ruins.

During the course of years Richard and Alfred Wetherill have explored the mesa and its canyons in all directions. They have thus gained a more thorough knowledge of its ruins than anyone. Together with their brothers, John, Clayton, and Wynn, they have also carried out excavations, during which a number of extremely interesting finds have been made.

A: considerable collection of these objects, comprising skulls, pottery, implements of stone, bone, and wood, etc., has been sold to the Historical Society of Colorado.

A still larger collection is in the possession of the Wetherill family. A brief catalogue of this collection forms the first printed notice of the remarkable finds made during the excavations.

The ancient Pueblos built their homes in the side walls of great valleys, which prehistoric floods washed to the depth sometimes of thousands of feet in the great plateau of the American Southwest. Such a valley, for example, is the Grand Canyon of the Colorado, but the Grand Canyon was not frequented by the Cliff Dwellers. Under overhanging cliffs, protected alike from burning sun above and from human enemies below, they perched their villages and cities, approachable only by difficult trails and series of ladders.

In many cases the word "dwelling" is misleading, for most of these buildings were villages. Spruce Tree House, for instance, was undoubtedly a town of importance, harboring at least 350 inhabitants.

The arrangement of houses in a cliff dwelling of the size of Cliff Palace, for example, is characteristic and intimately associated with the distribution of the social divisions of the inhabitants. The population was composed of a number of units, possibly clans, each of which had its own social organization more or less distinct from others, a condition that appears in the arrangement of rooms. The rooms occupied by a clan were not necessarily connected, although generally neighboring rooms were distinguished from one another by their uses. Thus, each clan had its men's rooms, which were ceremonially called the "kivas." Here the men of the clan prac-

tically lived, engaged in their occupations. Each clan had also one or more rooms, which may be styled the living rooms, and other inclosures, for granaries or storage of corn. The corn was ground into meal in another room containing the *metate* set in a bin or stone box, and in some instances in fireplaces, although these were generally placed in the plazas or on the housetops. All these different rooms, taken together, constitute the houses that belonged to one clan.

The conviction that each kiva denotes a distinct social unit, as a clan or a family, is supported by a general similarity in the masonry of the kiva walls and that of adjacent houses ascribed to the same clan. From the number of these rooms it would appear that there were at least 23 social units or clans in Cliff Palace. The kivas were the rooms where the men spent most of the time devoted to ceremonies, councils, and other gatherings. In the social conditions prevalent at Cliff Palace the religious fraternity was limited to the men of the clan.

Apparently there is no uniformity in the distribution of the kivas. As it was prescribed that these rooms should be subterranean, the greatest number were placed in front of the rectangular buildings, where it was easiest to excavate them. But when necessary these structures were built far back in the cave and inclosed by a double wall, the intervals between whose sections were filled with earth or rubble to raise it to the level of the kiva roof. In that way they were artificially made subterranean, as the ritual required.

The highest part of the Mesa Verde National Park is Park Point, which is 8,574 feet above sea level, while Point Lookout, the most prominent point on the Mesa Verde, has an elevation of 8,428 feet above sea level. The northern edge of the mesa terminates in a precipitous bluff, averaging 2,000 feet above the floor of the Montezuma Valley. The general slope of the mesa is to the south, so that a person on the northern rim has a view in all directions. Looking north can be seen the Rico Mountains with the Montezuma Valley lying just below the observer, dotted with artificial lakes and fertile fields. To the west are the La Salle and Blue Mountains in Utah, with Ute Mountain in the immediate foreground. To the south can be seen the Tunitcha Mountains and Shiprock in Arizona and New Mexico, while immediately in front of the observer are the various canyons cutting through the mesa in which the most important of the cliff dwellings are found. To the east can

be seen the canyon of the Mancos River and the mesas lying to the east of it.

The new wagon road, now completed the entire distance and open to automobiles, ascends the mesa under the point of Point Lookout, and after a detour of some miles, to avoid a very narrow portion of the old road, comes back to the edge of the mesa; and all visitors to the park will be afforded this wonderful view many times, as the road, in heading many canyons, often returns to this vantage point.

The Mesa Verde is cut by numerous deep canyons, in which are found the cliff dwellings, the principal canyons being Ute, Horse, Rock, Long, Wickiup, Navajo, Spruce, Ruin, and Moccasion.

The park is placed under the exclusive control of the Secretary of the Interior, who is authorized to prescribe such rules and regulations and establish such service as he may deem necessary for the care and management of the park, and for the preservation from injury or spoliation of the ruins and other works and relies of prehistoric or primitive man within the limits of the reservation, and to grant permits for the examination, excavation, and other gathering of objects of antiquity by person or persons deemed properly qualified to conduct the same, provided they are undertaken only for the benefit of some reputable museum, university, college, or other recognized scientific or educational institution, with a view to increasing the knowledge of such objects and aiding the general advancement of archæological science.

The Secretary of the Interior is represented in the actual administration of the park by a superintendent, assisted by a limited number of park rangers who patrol the reservation. The superintendent's post-office address is Mancos, Colorado.

Within the park jurisdiction are many notable prehistoric ruins, the cliff dwellings comprising a group of great importance to the study of American archæology.

The principal and most accessible ruins are the Spruce Tree House. Cliff Palace, Balcony House, and Tunnel House. Spruce Tree House is located in the head of Spruce Tree Canyon, a branch of Navajo Canyon. It originally contained about 130 rooms, built of dressed stone laid in adobe mortar, with the outside tiers chinked with chips of rock and broken pottery. Cliff Palace is located about 2 miles east of Spruce Tree House, in a left branch of Cliff Canyon, and consists of a group of houses with ruins of 146 rooms, including 20 round kivas, or ceremonial rooms, and a tapering loopholed tower, forming a crescent of about 100 yards from horn to

horn, which is reputed to be one of the most famous works of prehistoric man in existence. Balcony House, a mile east of Cliff Palace, in Ruin Canyon, contains about 25 rooms, some of which are in almost perfect condition. Tunnel House, about 2 miles south of Spruce Tree House, contains about 20 rooms and 2 kivas connected by an elaborate system of underground passages and a burial ground of 5,000 square feet. In each of these villages is an elaborate system of fortification, with, in some cases, walls 2.3 feet thick and 20 feet high, watch towers 30 feet high, and blockhouses pierced with loopholes.

#### TRANSPORTATION AND CAMPS

Parties desiring to camp within the park may obtain suitable outfits and provisions in Mancos, Cortez, or Dolores at market rates, which are reasonable. Guides may be had either at Mancos or Cortez. Mancos is preferable as a starting point for the ruins, as it is on the line of the Rio Grande Southern Railroad. Cortez may be reached by stage from Dolores. The two towns are about equal in size.

Oddie L. Jeep, Mancos, Colorado, has a concession to maintain a tourist camp near Spruce Tree House. Rates, 75 cents for each meal and 75 cents for bed.

Kelly & French Auto Livery has a concession to transport tourists by automobiles through the park. Rates, \$25 for one or two passengers, and \$5 extra for each additional passenger to the limit of the car, for a one-day's trip; \$10 per day, per car, for extra time.

The main wagon road of the Mesa Verde National Park, which is now completed and open during the season to both horse-drawn vehicles and automobiles, may be reached from a point on the Mancos-Cortez road, about 8 miles from Mancos and 12 miles from Cortez. After leaving the county highway the Government road winds through the pinyon-covered hills at the base of Point Lookout and ascends to the top of the mesa on an average of 8 per cent grade. From the boundary of the park to station 64, at the head of Morefield Canyon, the road is well constructed, and was, during the last season, widened and many of the sharp curves straightened, but is still narrow, and it is the intention of the management as soon as available funds can be obtained, to widen this portion of the road to 20 feet, with a protection on the outer edge. However, the road at present, with careful driving, is perfectly safe, and turnouts have been provided along the grade.

The trip over the Government road should be taken only by parties who are experienced in the handling and controlling of horses and should not be attempted in seasons when rainfall in quantity occurs. The road is very narrow in places and makes sharp turns, which require great care in the management of a team. The topography of the country is such that washouts frequently occur and the outer edge of the wagon road is frequently weakened by washes which render passage in some places very dangerous. All strangers traversing this route should be accompanied by an experienced guide.

#### SPRUCE TREE HOUSE

#### GENERAL DESCRIPTION

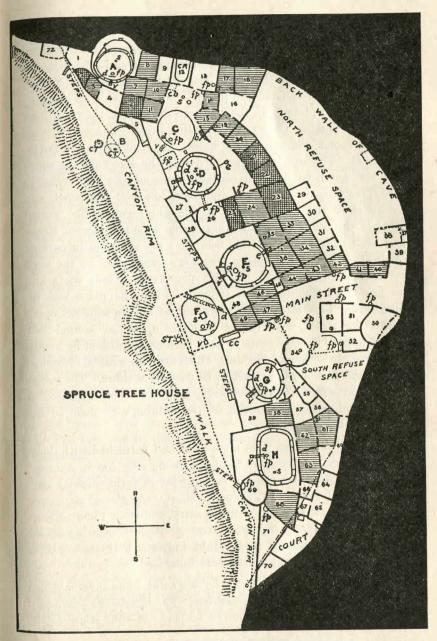
The total length of Spruce Tree House is 216 feet, its width at the widest part 89 feet. There were counted in the Spruce Tree House 114 rooms, the majority of which were secular, and 8 ceremonial chambers or kivas. Spruce Tree House was in places three stories high; the third-story rooms had no artificial roof, but the wall of the cave served that purpose. Several rooms, the walls of which are now two stories high, formerly had a third story above the second, but their walls have now fallen, leaving as the only indication of their former union with the cave lines destitute of smoke on the top of the cavern. Of the 114 rooms, at least 14 were uninhabited, being used as storage and mortuary chambers. If we eliminate these from the total number of rooms we have 100 inclosures which might have been dwellings. Allowing 4 inhabitants for each of these 100 rooms would give about 400 persons as an aboriginal population of Spruce Tree House. But it is probable that this estimate should be reduced, as not all the 100 rooms were inhabited at the same time, there being evidence that several of them had occupants long after others were deserted. Approximately Spruce Tree House had a population not far from 350 people, or about 100 more than that of Walpi, one of the bestknown Hopi pueblos.

#### CLASSIFICATION OF ROOMS

Visitors to Spruce Tree House will find that there are two or three types of rooms in the Mesa Verde cliff villages. One type is evidently a living room, rectangular or quadrilateral in shape, with

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>On the plan of Spruce Tree House, from a survey by Mr. S. G. Morley, the third story is indicated by crosshatching, the second by parallel lines, and the first has no markings.

well-plastered floor, in one corner of which is commonly a fireplace. Another type, called kiva, has a circular form, is subterranean,



Sketch Plan of Spruce Tree House

and, like all religious chambers, preserves ancient characters which are highly instructive.

#### SECULAR ROOMS

The rooms of Spruce Tree House are topographically divided into two groups by a court or street, running east and west, situated about midway between the north and south ends of the village. This street is entered from the plaza in which Kiva G is situated and has many fireplaces. In the northern division of the ruin there are five kivas1 and in the southern section three. The majority of the secular rooms, comprising the oldest, are situated in the northern division. The row of rooms bordering the street on the south end of the northern division contains some of the best walls in Spruce Tree House. The roofs and floors are well preserved, and the walls show the best masonry in the whole ruin. The varied coloring of the plaster indicates that it was done at different times. It may well have been that this was the most aristocratic part of the village; certainly the houses here were constructed by the most clever masons and are now the best preserved. Their roofs and floors are in as fine condition today as when the place was inhabited. They have lateral doorways and well-made windows opening into the street. Entrances through upper or second-floor doorways appear in some cases to have been accomplished by means of foot holes in the side of the wall, which are now visible. Notched logs were placed along the street to be used by visitors. The rooms are dark and were probably sleeping chambers, the fireplaces in the courts indicating that much of the cooking was done in the adjacent plaza and court.

The rooms of Spruce Tree House are well furnished with doorways, both lateral and vertical, the latter being very few in number. Some of the lateral openings are rectangular in form, slightly narrowed above; others are **T** shaped. Many examples of the latter have the lower part filled in with masonry, reducing them to rectangular openings, and a few are entirely walled in, shutting off all entrances, a circumstance that would indicate that these rooms were abandoned, while yet others were inhabited.

The sills of those doors which have a solid stone threshold are often much worn, showing frequent use. The lintels are commonly slabs of stone, but they may likewise be made of split sticks set in

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>There is a numerical relationship between the population and the number of kivas which has not yet been satisfactorily worked out.

mortar. Similar sticks are likewise sometimes let into the side of the doorways. The tops of many of the openings were partially arched over with mud, making a semi-circular jamb that holds in place the flat stone which closed the opening. To secure in place the stone slab which closed the entrance the inhabitants used a stick that was held in place by eyelets made of osiers, one on each side. One of these doors was restored in its original form.

The second tier of rooms of Plaza D, as shown by the projecting ends of rafters, had a balcony, a small section of which can still be seen at the north end. Long poles formerly extended above these projecting beams, which they connected, and these poles supported wattlings and cedar bark covered with adobe. Along this platform the dwellers in rooms in the second story passed from doorway to doorway, and by it they were enabled to enter their own rooms. The evidences are that there were two balconies, one above another, at this point, but all traces of the floor of the highest of these except a few ends of the rafters have disappeared. In a wall under this balcony, as was not uncommon in some cliff dwellings, there is found a stone projecting from its face, which served as a step to reach the lowest doorway.

In one corner of a room back of Plaza H there is a stone box or closet, the sides of which are formed of slabs set upright, on the upper edges of which is luted in place a cover having a square hole cut in one corner. This stone is not level, but inclines slightly outward from the wall. The use of this closet is unknown. A somewhat similar stone bin occurs in the northeast corner of Plaza C, but, unlike it, has no covering slab, and is situated in the corner of a plaza instead of a room. It seems natural to regard it as a corn bin. The meaning of the stone inclosure in one corner of Plaza G is unknown.

#### CIRCULAR ROOM

The most interesting room in the south division is circular and stands at the right of the visitor as he follows the street from Kiva G to the rear of the cave. It would at first sight seem from the shape of this room and the number and arrangement of holes in its wall that it was a bastion for defense. But these orifices admit of an explanation quite different from portholes. They may be the openings through which the sun priest watched the setting sun to determine the times for ceremonies. This room is somewhat isolated from the others and is furnished with rectangular openings

like windows in front and rear; but as these openings are small and not easily entered, the probability is that the entrance was from above.

The ground outline of another circular room, which may possibly have been a tower, the existence of which escaped all previous observers, was traced at the south end of the ruin just beyond Kiva H. From its position this room was believed to be a bastion for defense, so placed as to command the entrance of the village from its south end. The broken wall and fireplace of this room were repaired.

#### WARRIORS' ROOM

One of the problematical rooms of Spruce Tree House lies in the northern division back of Plaza C in the row east of its kiva. This small room has a lateral doorway, the sill, as are others, somewhat raised above the level of the plaza. The remarkable feature of this room is a banquette extending around its three sides, the remaining side, or that opposite the door, being the cliff or rear of the cave. This room resembles in certain particulars one in Cliff Palace, described by Nordenskiöld, but differs from his description in certain important details of structure. Its construction is so exceptional that one could hardly call it a living room, and it is too elaborately made for a storage chamber. There is a shallow vertical passageway in the south corner, near where the banquette joins the side of the cliff, which has some unknown meaning. Nordenskiöld, in discussing a similar room in the Cliff Palace, appears "to regard it as marking the transition to the rectangular estufa of the Moki Indians." As he points out, it differs "from the estufas in the absence of the characteristic passage and also of the 6 inches. Furthermore, they often contain several stories, and in every respect but the form resemble the rectangular rooms," It rarely happens that secular rooms are built above kivas; in fact, such a condition would be ceremonially an impossibility. The meeting places of warriors are exceptional in this regard, and from this and other reasons this chamber is considered to be a room of the warriors, or an assembly place for councils. This room adjoins that in which three child "mummies" are said to have been found. and from which the author exhumed the skeleton of an adult

#### DETAILS OF CONSTRUCTION

In the middle of Plaza C there is a rude war vase set in the floor with opening level with the surface. This is probably the

cavity where offerings were ceremonially deposited, and corresponds in a general way with shrines in the middle of the Hopi plazas, one of the best known of which is the so-called *sipapu* used in the Walpi snake dance. The rooms at the south end of the ruin follow a ledge slightly elevated above the general level. Here are also small inclosures or bins, constructed of stone, that remind one of storage cists. Below these on the horizontal surface of the cliff there are broad depressions worn in the rock by rubbing stone weapons, like axes, and narrow grooves showing the impression of pointed implements. Here are also several good fireplaces, from the smoke of which the top of the cave has been considerably blackened. It was necessary to repair one of the storage cists, which had been almost completely destroyed.

It was customary for the inhabitants of the cliff houses to lay an irregular wall, without mortar, on the top of other walls. One of the high walls at the south end of the ruin has a collection of these stones, the use of which has led to considerable speculation. These rude walls serve as wind or snow breaks.

#### CEREMONIAL ROOMS OR KIVAS

Spruce Tree House has eight kivas. These kivas are circular in form, subterranean in position, and in structure essentially alike. Their structure is characteristic of those elsewhere on the Mesa Verde, in the McElmo, San Juan and Chaco Canyons. All Spruce Tree House kivas lie in front of dwellings, except one (A), which fills an interval between the back wall of the cliff and building before it. On this and other accounts this kiva is believed to be one of the oldest in the village. As this kiva has double walls, evidently those first built did not please the builders. The present and latest constructed kiva is circular and lies inside an older one, which has an oval shape. Both of these structures were excavated and put in thorough repair.

#### CONSTRUCTION OF A KIVA

Each kiva has two sections, a lower and an upper. The lower part has walls about 3 feet high, ending in a bank, on which at intervals there are six square buttresses which separate corresponding recesses and support the beams of the roof. Between these buttresses are left recesses, formed by the outside wall, which rises to the height of the roof. This lower wall, like all others, was

plastered and shows marks of fire or smoke, but not of a general conflagration. In the lower wall were found niches or small cubbyholes a few inches square, which were receptacles for paint, meal or small objects. Each buttress has a peg on its top projecting into the kiva just under the roof; and in the surface of the banquette in Kiva C there is set a small, roughly made bowl, the rim of which is on the level of the bank.

The floor of the kiva is generally plastered, but in Kiva E the solid surface of a rock was cut down on the west side several inches as a part of the floor. In the floor is a circular pit, F, filled with wood ashes, which served as the fireplace. About half-way from this depression to the opposite wall of the room there is in the floor of every kiva a small hole, G. lined with a neck of a roughly made bowl. This opening, which is barely large enough to insert the hand, represents symbolically the ceremonial entrance to the underworld, and is the same as that which the Hopi call the sipapu. Around this hole, marking the place on the floor where altars were erected in ancient ceremonies, were performed archaic rites, and through it the priests addressed the gods of the underworld, even believing that they could communicate with the dead. The nature of ceremonies about the symbolic entrance to the underworld will be found by consulting the descriptions of the Hopi kiva rites elsewhere published by the author. All sipapus and other features of structure of the kiva floors were put in good condition.

Between the kiva fireplace and the adjacent side of the room there is set in the floor an upright slab of stone, e, about 2 feet high, which is often replaced by a rectangular wall. The side of the kiva facing this screen has a rectangular opening that communicates with a horizontal passageway and opens into a vertical flue, the external orifice of which is in the plaza or outside the outer wall of the kiva. The upright stone or wall served as a deflector, which distributed the fresh air supplied to the kiva from outside the room by the flue above mentioned. This air entered the kiva through the vertical and horizontal passageway and was deflected by the upright stone around the room on the level of the floor. The smoke rose from the fireplace and passed out the kiva through the hatch in the middle of the roof, fresh air being supplied to take the place of the heated air and smoke by the ventilator.

There are other openings in the circular wall of the kiva at the level of the floor, some of which are large enough to admit the

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$ This screen, d, in Spruce Tree House kiva is not curved, as shown in the diagram given by Nordenskiold of another kiva.

body and communicate with tunnels ample in size for passage. In the floor of one of these there are steps, and by means of these passageways one could pass under the plaza from the kiva to an adjacent room. A good illustration of these passageways, as shown in the accompanying plan, is found in e, Kiva E. A person can enter a vertical passage in the corner of room 35 and descend by use of steps to a short tunnel that takes him through the opening into the kiva. There is a similar passageway which opens externally in the middle of Plaza C. It cannot be that the openings and passage above described were the main entrances, but rather private doorways for priests on ceremonial or other occasions; the chief entrance was probably by means of a ladder through a hatchway in the middle of the roof.

The structure of Kiva A is most remarkable, differing from the other seven ceremonial rooms of the Spruce Tree House. When first seen it had the appearance of one kiva within another, the first or largest being of oblong shape with remnants of a banquette showing two pedestals on the north side; the second or inner kiva, being almost circular, was apparently the last occupied. In constructing the circular wall of that last mentioned the builders apparently utilized the southwest part of the larger room and those pedestals or buttresses that were situated in this section. Kiva A, as previously stated, is the only one built close under the overhanging rim rock, and is the only one with buildings in front of it. The roof of this kiva apparently formed a kind of plaza surrounded on three sides by houses, the wall of the cave forming the fourth.

There were never, apparently, any rooms above this kiva, but on one side a room of the second story is supported by a column, an exceptional feature in pueblo construction. The foundations of this wall are two logs curved to conform with the wall, and under the middle of these is the stone pillar.

#### CLIFF PALACE

#### GENERAL DESCRIPTION

Cliff Palace lies in an eastern spur of Cliff Canyon, under the roof of an enormous cave which arches 50 or 100 feet above it. The floor of this cavern is elevated several hundred feet above the bottom of the canyon. The entrance faces the west, looking across the canyon to the opposite side, in full view of a great promontory, on top of which stands the ruin of an ancient pueblo, now a pile of

fallen stones, partially concealed by a thick growth of cedar trees. The floor of the recess in which Cliff Palace is built is practically covered with buildings, some of which, especially those at each end, extend beyond the shelter of the cave roof. The total length of the Cliff Palace is approximately 300 feet.

The under side of the roof of rock arching over Cliff Palace is comparatively smooth, exhibiting horizontal cleavage and plane surfaces. A break in this cleavage extends approximately north and south, forming a ledge a few feet in breadth. On its edge the ancients constructed a long wall, thus making a passageway between it and the solid cliff. Although now inaccessible from the ruin below, in ancient times this passageway could have been entered from the roof of one of the houses (66) through a doorway which is still visible. Similar ledge rooms are common features in Mesa Verde ruins.

The floor of the cave in which Cliff Palace was built had practically one level, determined, no doubt, by a layer of comparatively hard rock, which resisted erosion more successfully than the softer strata above it. This floor was strewn with great angular bowlders that in the process of formation of the cave had fallen from the roof. These were too large to be moved by primitive man and must have presented to the ancient builders uninviting foundations upon which to erect their structures. The spaces between these rocks were better suited for their purpose. These were filled with smaller stones that could be removed, leaving cavities which could be utilized for the construction of subterranean rooms. The upper surfaces of the large rocks, even those which are angular, served as foundations for houses above ground and determined the levels of the plazas. From the bases of these rocks, which formed the outer edge of the level cave floor, a talus extended down the canvon side to the bottom. The rooms forming the front of the ancient village were constructed in this talus, and as their site was sloping they were necessarily situated at lower levels on terraces bounded by retaining walls which are marked features in this part of Cliff Palace. At least three different terraces indicating as many levels are recognized. These levels are indicated by the rows of kivas, or ceremonial rooms, which skirt the southern and middle sections of the ancient village. At the southern end, where the talus is less precipitous and where, on account of the absence of a cave roof, the fallen rocks are smaller, the terrace with its subterranean rooms is on the level of the floor of the cave, having the same height as the foundations built thereon. At the western extremity the buildings were erected on the tops of huge rocks fallen from the roof of the cave. Here the talus is narrow or wanting, and no rooms were constructed in front of these rocks. Thus the terrace rooms on the lowest level are found along the middle section of the cave, where the floor is highest and where the great fallen rocks still remain in sheltered places.

Fortunately, the configuration of the cliffs above the ruins makes it possible to get a fine bird's-eye view of Cliff Palace from the rim of the mesa. Views obtained from the heads of the two trails are most striking and should be enjoyed before closer examination and detailed study of the rooms in Cliff Palace. To obtain the best general view of the whole ruin from the front, one may cross the canyon and climb a promontory whence Cliff Palace appears to be set among trees in a rocky frame, the lower side being the precipice beneath, and the upper the roof above.

#### ANCIENT ENTRANCE

Deep under the débris which covered the lower terrace of Cliff Palace there was brought to light by excavation an ancient way, hitherto unknown, which leads by a gradual slope to the center of the village. This pathway extends parallel with the high front wall of Kiva O, and, passing to a large rock in which foot-rests were cut, enters Cliff Palace through a narrow court between high walls. From this court ascent to the level of the cave floor was accomplished by means of a ladder, which could be drawn in when danger necessitated. The floor of the main entrance was hardened adobe, the outer edge of which was held by a roughly laid retaining wall resting at the lower end on logs still well preserved. This main entrance may have led formerly to the village spring in the canyon below, now dry, and along it no doubt in ancient times toiled the weary women with jars of water on their heads.

#### GROUND PLAN OF REPAIRED CLIFF PALACE

An examination of the correct ground plan of Cliff Palace shows that the houses were arranged in crescent, the northern extension of rooms corresponding roughly to one point. The curve of the village follows, generally speaking, that of the rear of the cave in which it was constructed. There is little regularity in the arrangement of the rooms, which, as a rule, are not crowded together; most of the subterranean chambers are situated on terraces in front of the secular rooms. There is one passageway that may be designated a street; this is bordered by high walls over which a passer-by could not look. No open space of considerable size is destitute of a ceremonial chamber, and the largest court contains five of these rooms. It is not possible to count the exact number of rooms that Cliff Palace formerly had, as many upper stories have fallen and a considerable number of terraced rooms along the front are indicated only by fragments of walls. Roughly speaking, 200 is a fair estimate.

It is instructive to note that although Cliff Palace is about three times as large as Spruce Tree House, judging from ceremonial chambers, it has no more than double the number of secular rooms.

#### CLIFF PALACE SUBDIVISIONS

In order to facilitate the description of Cliff Palace it is here arbitrarily divided into certain quarters or sections. The front entrance, being situated about midway of the length of the village, is naturally a point of division of the ruin into halves.<sup>2</sup>

Four different regions may be distinguished in the ruin, two north of a line drawn from the front entrance to the rear of the cave and two south of that line. While structurally there appear to be no essential differences in these quarters, they present certain characteristic archæological features which are worthy of consideration.

The part of Cliff Palace extending northward from the main entrance to the point where the ruin turns westward lies in the deepest part of the cave and may be called the "Old Quarter." Its northern end is formed by a castellated building three stories high constructed of the finest masonry and perched on a huge fallen rock. This building contains several rooms, story above story, the uppermost reaching to the roof of the cave. It may be called the "Speaker Chief's House" from a banquette on one side overlooking the whole southern end of the ruin.

The extension of Cliff Palace westward from the Speaker Chief's House to the end of the ruin may be designated the

being drawn from several clans.

The quarters into which Cliff Palace is divided were possibly sociologically different.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This is explained on the theory that Cliff Palace is more ancient than Spruce Tree House, the kivas being the older rooms and probably more strictly limited to the use of clans, while at Spruce Tree House they are more in the nature of fraternity rooms, the membership of the priesthood occupying them being drawn from several clans.

"Northern Quarter." About 50 feet beyond the extreme western end stands above ground a solitary building, or ceremonial room, of singular construction. The part of the ruin from the main entrance to the Round Tower contains five ceremonial rooms huddled together. Their roofs and the intervening spaces formerly constituted the most extensive plaza in the village, and it seems appropriate to call this the "Plaza Quarter."

The part of the ruin from the Round Tower to the extreme southern end is divided into halves by the Square Tower, a four-storied room with painted walls.

To recapitulate, there are here recognized in Cliff Palace the following quarters:

- 1. Northern Quarter, from Speaker Chief's House to west end.
- 2. Old Quarter, from Speaker Chief's House to entrance to ruin.
  - 3. Plaza Quarter, from village entrance to Round Tower.
  - 4. Tower Quarter, from Round Tower to southern end.

#### NORTHERN QUARTER

This quarter contains four ceremonial rooms and accompanying secular inclosures. On the western end it has a room fitted up with four corn-grinding bins (metates), a second room with one metate and two cooking rooms.

This quarter is built on two levels, the lower adjoining the Old Quarter having fine masonry, composed of well dressed building stones. The higher level has two kivas, the more western of which shows in its floor the most extensive example of excavation in solid rock known in Cliff Palace. For more than two-thirds of its area the floor is here cut down on one side about 2 feet. The whole western section was considerably mutilated and was covered with small building stones and debris when the excavation and repair work began. This is obscurely indicated on previously published ground plans in which its rooms are not accurately represented.

#### OLD QUARTER

The region northward from the main entrance of the Cliff Palace, including the lofty castellated building called "Speaker

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Probably belonging to the second type of ceremonial rooms later described.

Chief's House," may be known as the "Old Quarter." This contains many secular rooms, some of which are round and others rectangular, and three fine ceremonial rooms, one of which is of a type rare in cliff dwellings. The Old Quarter falls naturally into two regions, the Speaker Chief's House and the section adjoining the main entrance. A street extending north and south divides this quarter into a front and a rear section.

It seems probable that the Old Quarter was inhabited by the oldest and most influential clans of the pueblo. The masonry of the Speaker Chief's building is not only the finest in Cliff Palace, but compares well with that laid by white masons. The walls throughout were built of hewn stones, ground plane, carefully laid and smoothly plastered. The main building was erected on the inclined face of a very high, angular rock, unfortunately cracked, by which the foundations are raised above neighboring buildings and terraces. The castellated part extends to the roof of the cave and is three stories high. On the north side the wall of this part is curved, but on the south side there is a banquette or platform to which one mounts by a single step. The whole central and southern parts of Cliff Palace lie in full sight of this platform, and we may suppose that a Speaker Chief stood upon it every morning when he announced the events of the day.

In addition to the three-storied castellated building there are included in the Old Quarter four fine ceremonial rooms and two circular rooms that lie deep in the cave.

The southern part of the Old Quarter, that adjoining the entrance to the village, has one ceremonial room and several secular inclosures. The "street" lies almost wholly in this section.

#### PLAZA QUARTER

Almost the whole of this quarter is occupied by a large open space containing five kivas. These subterranean rooms are so close to one another and are so arranged that their roofs must have formed an almost level plaza, which was the central and largest open place of Cliff Palace. Two kivas, I and H, on the lower terraces, likewise belong to this quarter. In addition to the subterranean rooms on the upper level, there extends from it into the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>It is sometimes stated that the cliff dwellers rarely dressed or smoothed the stones out of which they constructed walls. While this may be true of some cliff dwellings, it is not true of those on Mesa Verde.

Old Quarter a court into which opens the "street." It may well be supposed that the Plaza Quarter was one of the most frequented breathing places in this cliff dwelling when inhabited. Here we find a broad, open place fitted for ceremonial dances, into which opened the only large court and street of the village. The main entrance to Cliff Palace was situated at its northwest corner. It was well protected in all seasons of the year by the overhanging roof of the cave and the massive walls surrounding it on three sides. The outlook from its western side across Cliff Canyon is one of the finest. Situated midway between the two ends of the village, near the center of population, the Plaza Quarter must have been a much frequented place when Cliff Palace was inhabited, and may well be called the Chief Quarter.

#### TOWER QUARTER

The Round Tower section includes the ceremonial rooms E to G and the secular buildings 13 to 33. Of the former, F and G lie at lower levels in front of the foundations of the Round Tower. Kiva J is situated on a high level, and E is built near the cliff in the rear of the village.

The most striking architectural feature of this quarter is, of course, the picturesque Round Tower, a symmetrical structure perched on top of a huge rock. The use of this tower is unknown, but we can hardly suppose so important a building was built in this commanding position for purely secular purposes.

The southern end of Cliff Palace, including rooms 1 and 10, and the subterranean chambers A to D, is somewhat exposed to the weather, and therefore much worn. Kivas A to C lie in the open in front of the rooms and outside the rim of the roof. The walls of Kiva D, among the finest known in cliff dwellings, are painted yellow and have the superficial plastering well preserved. The Square Tower (11) is four stories high and has fine mural decoration in white and red on the inner walls of the third story. The whole northwest angle of this tower had to be rebuilt to support the walls of this story.

#### CEREMONIAL ROOMS

The majority of the ceremonial rooms in Cliff Palace are accompanied by rectangular chambers, but one of the former, situated about 50 feet from the western end, has no rooms near it.

The ceremonial rooms naturally fall into two types: (1) subterranean kivas having banquettes around their sides, separated by roof supports called pedestals; (2) kivas destitute of banquettes or pedestals, probably roofless, their roofs being replaced by high surrounding walls. Twenty ceremonial rooms have been referred to the first type, two or three to the second. The isolated kiva resembles in many particulars the other examples of the second type. The shape of the kivas varies from circular to square, with rounded corners. Their architecture varies somewhat, and their depth is not uniform. The walls are well constructed and generally show signs of plastering often blackened with smoke. One of the kivas is painted yellow; the lower part of another is red, with triangular decorations on the upper border.

#### KIVAS OF THE FIRST TYPE

The Cliff Palace kivas, provided with pedestals or roof supports, furnish examples of some of the finest masonry in prehistoric buildings of our Southwest. Owing to their subterranean position it was often necessary for the builders to excavate the floors in solid rock, and the curves of the sides were obtained in many instances by removing projecting ends of huge rocks. The number of pedestals varies in different kivas. In the majority there are six of these roof supports; the kiva in the Speaker Chief's section has eight, others four, and one has but two. The number of banquettes necessarily varies with the number of pedestals; one called the altar banquette is commonly larger than the remainder. This large shelf may be the place where ceremonial paraphernalia were placed. In most cases it is situated in the same side as the air shaft or ventilator. Every kiva of the first type has a ventilator, firehole and deflector.

Although these structures are represented in every kiva, the configuration of the walls of many kivas made it difficult to introduce the ventilator on the same side or in the same form. In one case the passage turns at right angles before it joins the vertical so-called ventilator. In another instance this vertical passage is

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Similar decorations occur likewise on the pedestals of Kiva A of Spruce Tree House and on the inner walls of the third story of the Square Tower.

situated like a chimney at one angle of the outside wall, and in still another it opens through a roof support.

Deflectors in Cliff Palace kivas have four modifications: (1) a slab of stone placed upright; (2) a low stone wall; (3) a curved wall joining the wall of the kiva on each side of the lateral entrance into the ventilator; (4) a row of upright sticks having twigs woven between them, the whole being covered and hidden with clay mortar. Thus, all varieties of deflectors discovered in Mesa Verde ruins are represented at Cliff Palace.

Every kiva of the first type has a fireplace near the center of the room, which is generally found to be packed solid with wood ashes. In some cases the sides are rimmed with flat stones, one stone smaller than the rest sometimes projecting slightly above the level of the floor. The symbolic opening (sipapu) in the floor is not found in all Cliff Palace kivas, but it is rarely absent; usually it is situated slightly to one side of the middle of the floor. In one kiva the opening is double and in another room this hole lies near the wall. Even when necessary to drill into solid rock the ancients did not hesitate to make this ceremonial opening, which, in some instances, was lined with a burnt-clay tube. For the reception of small objects diminutive niches were constructed in the walls of almost every kiva, and vases are now found inserted in the banquettes of a few of these chambers.

Each kiva possesses special characters, notwithstanding that all the kivas have a general similarity.

#### KIVAS OF SECOND TYPE

There are two, possibly three, ceremonial rooms that show no signs of roof supports or pedestals, no evidences of fireplaces, deflectors or ventilators. It would appear that these rooms were used for the same purpose as kivas of the first type<sup>2</sup>. They have banquettes on the side wall, quite wide at each end, and generally a lateral passageway at the floor level.

The existence of two types of ceremonial rooms in Cliff Palace may indicate a division of the ritual into two distinct parts performed by the summer and the winter people, respectively, a

a doorway occupies the position of the lateral entrance of the ventilator into the kiva. These kivas are rectangular and are exceptional in having entrances opening laterally instead of vertically.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>A similar room in Spruce Tree House was called, in my report on Spruce Tree House, a "warrior room," without sufficient reason.

specialization still perpetuated among some modern pueblos. The best example of the second type is Kiva R, situated in the Old Quarter of the ruin in the neighborhood of the Speaker Chief's House. No signs of pedestals are to be found, but broad banquettes occupy the northern and southern ends, connected on the other sides by a narrow shelf. In the side walls below the banquettes are several recesses or cubby-holes, and there is a lateral entrance on the floor level in the southern side which sends off side branches under the banquette, but no indication was discovered of a vertically placed ventilator.

The walls above this kiva were built high, as if to prevent observation by outsiders. There was probably no roof.

#### SECULAR ROOMS

Secular rooms in Cliff Palace may be classified as follows: (1) Living rooms; (2) storage rooms; (3) mill rooms; (4) granaries; (5) dark rooms of unknown use; (6) towers, round and square; (7) round rooms not towers. The highest rooms have four stories. There are several of three stories, many of two, but the majority have only one. Walls projecting at right angles to the foundations in front of the ruin on a level below the cave floor indicate that in this part Cliff Palace was terraced, consisting of several-storied houses and terraces at different levels. There is little uniformity in size, shape or character of the walls of secular rooms. In rare instances they extend to the roof of the cave, a feature sometimes shown by markings or fragments of masonry on the rock surface.

#### LIVING ROOMS

Several rooms show such marked evidences that they were inhabited and used as sleeping places that they are called living rooms. One or two of these have each a banquette extending across one side and several have fireplaces in the floor in one corner. The inner walls of these rooms are generally smoothly plastered, sometimes painted. They contain small niches, and in one case pegs on the walls on which blankets or kilts could be hung. These chambers are supposed to have been the sleeping rooms for women and children, and, although not living rooms in one sense, they are the nearest approach to them in Cliff Palace. Much of the daily work—

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Nordenskiold's comments on this chamber as a connecting link between circular and square kivas are not convincing. In origin square kivas were independent of circular kivas, and the indications are that in some cases the former had lateral openings or doorways.

pottery making, cooking, etc.—was done on housetops or in open places adjoining the living rooms.

#### MILL ROOMS

Several special rooms set apart for mills in which corn was ground were discovered in different quarters of Cliff Palace. These differed from some other rooms only in being smaller. Almost the whole space was occupied by rude stone mills of characteristic forms. These consist of boxes made of slabs of rock set upright. in each of which was placed an inclined stone, the mealstone (metate). In front of this, at the bottom of the mill, is a receptacle into which the meal fell after it had been ground by hand by means of a slab of stone called the mano. The women or girls who ground the corn knelt on the side of the mill at the top of the metate and rubbed the mano over the metate (mealstone) until the corn between was ground. In one of these mill rooms there were two and in another four of these mills set in a row side by side. The surfaces of the metates in this series are graded in roughness, so as to grind the meal finer and finer as it was passed from one to another. The mills were so well preserved that even the fragments of pottery in the angles of the receptacles in which the meal collected after grinding were still in place and the upright stones on which the girls braced their feet had not been moved. The brushes with which the meal was brushed into baskets after grinding had been left in the mills and were still in good condition.

#### STORAGE ROOMS

The smaller rooms and the back chambers, many of them darkened by their position in the rear of other rooms, were probably used for storage of corn. These diminutive rooms, many having the form of cists, are carefully built; many are erected on flat rocks, but have doorways. Every crevice and hole in the corners of these granaries was carefully stopped with clay, no doubt to prevent rats or squirrels from entering. The impression prevalent in some places that the inhabitants of Cliff Palace and of other cliff dwellings were of diminutive size is supported by the erroneous belief that these rooms were used as dwellings. If we had visited Cliff Palace when inhabited, we should probably have found in these storage rooms corn on the cob stacked in piles, from which the daily consumption was drawn. The living rooms were often small, but they were unencumbered with furniture or even with

food in great quantities, and were ample for people of small stature. The cliff dwellers were not pigmies.

### ROUND TOWER AND ROUND ROOMS

The most prominent and picturesque building in Cliff Palace is the Round Tower, situated about midway in its length on a high angular rock, which raises it in full view above all the terraces. This tower is not the only round room in the ruin, for there are foundations and walls of two other circular rooms not far from the Speaker Chief's House at the north end of the "street." These are inconspicuous because hidden far back in the cave behind more lofty walls.

The Round Tower, formerly two stories high, was entered from the north side. It was little damaged during the centuries elapsing since Cliff Palace was abandoned and needed little repair. The walls show most beautiful examples of aboriginal masonry, perhaps the finest north of Mexico. Almost perfectly symmetrical in form, the stones that compose the walls are skillfully dressed, fitted to one another, and carefully laid. This tower was evidently ceremonial in function, or it may have served as an observatory, for which purpose it is well situated. The presence of small peepholes through which one can look far down the canyon supports the theory that the tower was a lookout, to which theory its resemblance to other towers in the Mesa Verde region likewise contributes.

#### SQUARE TOWER

This building also is one of the picturesque and prominent structures at the southern end of Cliff Palace. It is four stories high, the walls reaching from the floor to the roof of the cave. The walls of the third story are painted white and red with decorative symbols, as triangles, zigzag lines, and parallel lines, perhaps representing feathers. When work began on this tower the whole northwestern angle had fallen and the wall of the "painted room" was tottering and in great danger of falling. The repair of this section was dangerous as well as difficult, one whole corner having to be rebuilt from the botton of an adjacent kiva.

#### LEDGE ROOMS

A projecting ledge in the cave roof, about 20 feet above the top of the highest wall, served as the foundation of a marginal wall and accompanying rooms. This wall is pierced by doorways, win-

dows, and peepholes. One of the doorways, probably an entrance situated near the northern end, was apparently on the former level of the roof of one of the round rooms of the Old Quarter of the pueblo. The outer surface of the marginal wall is decorated with a white terraced figure, suggesting the white figure overlooking Plaza C in Spruce Tree House. The ledge rooms, which occur in several Mesa Verde ruins, were probably used for storage or for protection.

# RULES AND REGULATIONS

# REGULATIONS APPROVED MARCH 30, 1912

Pursuant to authority conferred by the act of Congress approved June 29, 1906, the following rules and regulations for the government of the Mesa Verde National Park, in Colorado, are hereby established and made public and extended, as far as applicable, to all prehistoric ruins situated within 5 miles of the boundaries thereof on Indian and public lands not alienated by patent from the ownership of the United States:

- 1. It is forbidden to injure or disturb, except as herein provided, any of the mineral deposits, natural curiosities, wonders, ruins and other works and relies of prehistoric or primitive man on Government lands within the park, or the ruins and other works or relies of prehistoric man, on Government lands within 5 miles of the boundaries of the park.
- 2. Permits for the examination of ruins, the excavation of archæological sites, and the gathering of objects of antiquity will, upon application to the Secretary of the Interior through the superintendent of the park, be granted to accredited representatives of reputable museums, universities, colleges, or other recognized scientific or educational institutions, with a view to increasing the knowledge of such objects and aiding the general advancement of archæological science, under the conditions and restrictions contained in present or future regulations promulgated by the Secretary of the Interior to carry out the provisions of the act of Congress approved June 8, 1906, entitled, "An act for the preservation of American antiquities."
- 3. Persons bearing archæological permits from the department may be permitted to enter the ruins unaccompanied after presenting their credentials to the superintendent or other park officer. Persons without archæological permits who wish to visit and enter the ruins shall in all cases be accompanied by a park ranger or other person duly authorized by the superintendent.

- 4. The superintendent is authorized, in his discretion, to close any ruin on Government lands within the park on the 5-mile limit to visitors when it shall appear to him that entrance thereto would be dangerous to visitors or might result in injury to walls or other insecure portions thereof, or during repairs.
- 5. The superintendent is authorized, in his discretion, to designate the place or places to be used by campers in the park, and where firewood can be obtained by them. All garbage and refuse must be deposited in places where it will not be offensive to the eye or contaminate any water supply on the park lands.
- 6. It is forbidden to cut or injure any timber growing on the park lands, except as provided in paragraph 5 of these regulations; but dead or fallen timber may be taken by campers for fuel without obtaining permission therefor.
- 7. Fires should be lighted only when necessary and completely extinguished when not longer required. The utmost care must be taken at all times to avoid setting fire to the timber and grass.
- 8. Hunting or killing, wounding, or capturing any bird or wild animal on the park lands, except dangerous animals when necessary to prevent them from destroying life or inflicting an injury, is prohibited. The outfits, including guns, traps, teams, horses, or means of transportation used by persons engaged in hunting, killing, trapping, ensnaring, or capturing such birds or wild animals, or in possession of game killed on the park lands under other circumstances than those prescribed above, will be taken up by the superintendent and held subject to the order of the Secretary of the Interior, except in cases where it is shown by satisfactory evidence that the outfit is not the property of the person or persons violating this regulation and the actual owner thereof was not a party to such violation. Firearms will be permitted in the park only on written permission from the superintendent.
- 9. No person shall be permitted to reside permanently, or to engage in any business on the Government lands in the park without permission, in writing, from the Secretary of the Interior. The superintendent may grant authority to competent persons to act as guides and revoke the same in his discretion, and no pack trains will be allowed in the park unless in charge of a duly registered guide.
- 10. Owners of patented lands within the park limits are entitled to the full use and enjoyment thereof; the boundaries of

such lands, however, must be determined and marked and defined so that they may be readily distinguished from the park lands. While no limitations or conditions are imposed upon the use of such private lands so long as such use does not interfere with or injure the park, private owners must provide against trespass by their stock or cattle, or otherwise, upon the park lands, and all trespasses committed will be punished to the full extent of the law. Stock may be taken over the park lands to patented private lands with the written permission and under the supervision of the superintendent, but such permission and supervision are not required when access to such private lands is had wholly over roads or lands not owned or controlled by the United States.

- 11. Allowing the running at large, herding, or grazing of cattle or stock of any kind on the Government lands in the park, as well as the driving of such stock or cattle over same, is strictly forbidden, except where authority therefor has been granted by the superintendent. All cattle or stock found trespassing in the park lands will be impounded and disposed of as directed in regulations approved March 30, 1912.
- 12. The sale of intoxicating liquors on the Government lands in the park is strictly forbidden.
- 13. Private notices or advertisements shall not be posted or displayed on the Government lands within the park nor upon or about ruins on Government lands within the 5-mile strip surrounding the same, except such as may be necessary for the convenience and guidance of the public.
- 14. Persons who render themselves obnoxious by disorderly conduct or bad behavior, or who may violate any of the foregoing rules, will be summarily removed from the park and will not be allowed to return without permission, in writing, from the Secretary of the Interior or the superintendent of the park.
- 15. The act creating the park provides that any person or persons who may, without having secured proper permission from the Secretary of the Interior, wilfully remove, disturb, destroy, or molest any of the ruins, mounds, buildings, graves, relics, or other evidences of an ancient civilization or other property in said park shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction before any court having jurisdiction of such offenses, shall be fined not more than \$1,000 or imprisoned not more than 12 months, or such person or persons may be fined and imprisoned, at the discretion of the court, and shall be required to restore the property destroyed if possible.

Any person or persons guilty of such vandalism upon Government lands within the 5-mile strip will be liable to a penalty of \$500, or imprisonment of not more than 90 days, or both, in the discretion of the court, as provided in the act of Congress approved June 8, 1906, entitled "An act for the preservation of American antiquities."

16. The superintendent designated by the Secretary of the Interior is hereby authorized and directed to remove all trespassers from the Government lands in the park and to enforce these rules and regulations and all the provisions of the act of Congress creating the same.

The Indian police and field employees of the General Land Office are required to co-operate with the superintendent in the enforcement of these regulations as regards the 5-mile strip surrounding the park.

# INSTRUCTIONS OF DECEMBER 11, 1913

Visitors to the Mesa Verde National Park are hereby notified that when dogs are taken through the park they must be prevented from chasing the animals and birds or annoying passers-by. To this end they must be carried in the wagons or led behind them while traveling and kept within the limits of the camps when halted. Any dog found at large in disregard of these instructions will be killed.

# REGULATIONS APPROVED MAY 18, 1914, GOVERNING AUTOMOBILES AND MOTOR CYCLES

Pursuant to authority conferred by the act of June 29, 1906, setting aside certain lands in the State of Colorado as a public park, the following regulations governing the admission of automobiles and motor cycles into the Mesa Verde National Park are hereby established and made public:

- 1. No automobile or motor cycle will be permitted within the metes and bounds of Mesa Verde National Park unless the owners thereof secure a written permit from the superintendent or his representative. Permits may be secured at the superintendent's office at Mancos, Colorado.
- 2. Applications for permit must show: (a) Name of owner, (b) number of machine, (c) name of driver, and (d) inclusive dates for which permit is desired, and be accompanied by a fee of \$1 for a single trip, or \$5 for the season. Permits must be presented to the superintendent or his representative at Spruce

Tree Camp. The permittee will not be allowed to do a commercial or transportation business in the park without a special license therefor from the Secretary of the Interior. All permits will expire on the 1st day of November of the year of issue.

- 3. The use of automobiles and cycle cars will be permitted on all roads in Mesa Verde National Park, except that portion of the Mill's Survey between station 64 and station 327, not earlier than 6 a. m. nor later than 7 p. m. No machine will leave Spruce Tree Camp to make the trip to the northern boundary of the park later than 5 p. m.
- 4. When teams approach, motor vehicles will take position on the outer edge of the roadway, regardless of the direction in which they are going, taking care that sufficient room is left on the inside for the passage of teams.
- 5. Motors will stop when teams approach and remain at rest until teams have passed or until teamsters are satisfied regarding the safety of their teams.
- 6. All machines will be limited to a speed of 6 miles per hour in making the ascent of the mesa or in making the descent therefrom, between stations 0 and 62, and on all roads beyond station 62 speed will be limited to 8 miles per hour, except on straight stretches where approaching teams will be visible, when, if no teams are in sight, this speed may be increased; but in no event, however, shall it exceed 15 miles per hour.
- 7. Signal with horn will be given at or near bend of the road to announce to approaching teams the proximity of the motors. At all turnouts between station 0 and station 62, and wherever signboards shall so announce, motors will stop on the outer edge of the turn and wait for three minutes to allow any vehicle time to become visible around the turns.
- 8. Teams have the right of way, and machines will be backed or otherwise handled, as necessary, so as to enable teams to pass with safety.
- 9. All persons when entering the park with machines are required to report at Spruce Tree Camp and register their names.
- 10. Violation of any of the foregoing rules, or the general regulations for the government of the park, will cause revocation of permit; will subject the owner of the machine to any damages occasioned thereby, and to ejectment from the reservation; and be cause for refusal to issue a new permit to the owner without prior sanction in writing from the Secretary of the Interior.

### MAP

The map may be obtained from the Director of the United States Geological Survey, Washington, D. C. Remittances should be by money order or in cash.

Map of Mesa Verde National Park; 43 by 28 inches; scale, ½ mile to the inch. Price, 40 cents.

The roads, trails, and names are printed in black, the streams in blue, and the relief is indicated by brown contour lines.

### LITERATURE

### GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

#### DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR

The following publications may be obtained from the Secretary of the Interior:

Annual Report of the Superintendent of the Mesa Verde National Park.

Annual administrative report. Contains no descriptive matter.

#### BUREAU OF AMERICAN ETHNOLOGY

The following publications may be obtained from the Bureau of American Ethnology, Washington, D. C.:

Bulletin 41. Antiquities of the Mesa Verde National Park; Spruce Tree House, by J. W. Fewkes. 1909. 57 pages, illustrated.

Bulletin 51. Antiquities of the Mesa Verde National Park: Cliff Palace, by J. W. Fewkes. 1911. 82 pages, illustrated.

#### SUPERINTENDENT OF DOCUMENTS

The following publication may be purchased from the superintendent of documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., at the rate stated:

Report on ancient ruins in southwestern Colorado, examined during summers of 1875 and 1876, by William H. Holmes. (Geological and Geographical Survey of the Territories (Hayden), Tenth Report, 1876, pp. 381 to 408, illustrated.) ...Cloth, \$1.80.

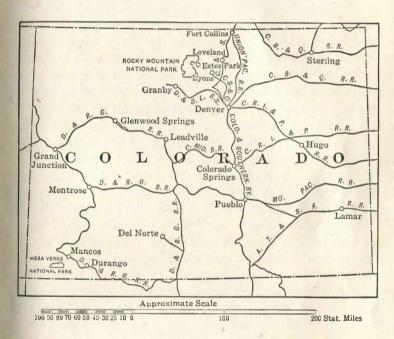
Note—The same volume contains papers entitled Report on ancient ruins examined in 1875 and 1877.—Report on the Chaco Cranium.

#### BOOKS

ALLEN, E. F. A guide to the national parks of America. 1915. 286 pages. BRYCE, JAMES. University and historical addresses. 1913. 433 pages. National Parks: The need of the future, on pages 389-406.

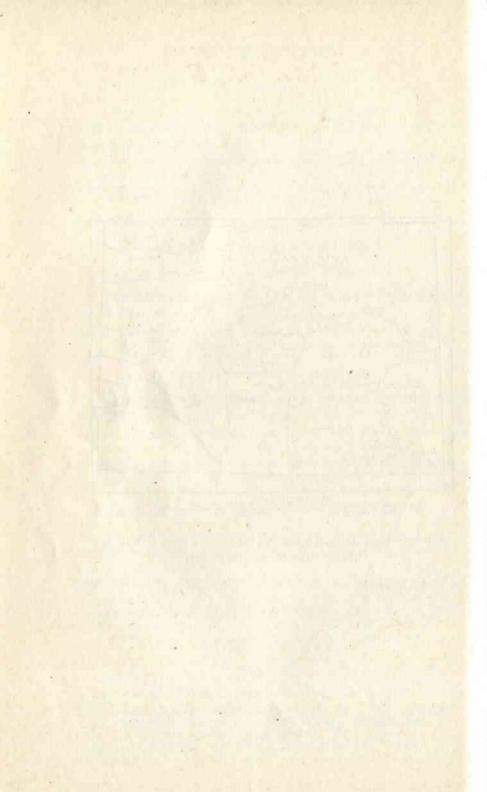
CHAPIN, F. H. The land of the cliff dwellers. 1892. 187 pp.

NORDENSKIOLD, G. The cliff dwellers of the Mesa Verde. 1903. 171 pp., illustrated.



MAP SHOWING RAILROAD ROUTES TO MESA VERDE AND ROCKY
MOUNTAIN NATIONAL PARKS

By permission of U.S. Dept. of Interior—Washington: Government Printing Office: 1915.



The purpose of history-teaching in these grades is to awaken interest, encourage supplementary reading, and present worthy ideals; it is not to prepare for any kind of examination. As the same characters will be presented in chronologic sequence in the seventh and eighth grades, no time in the fifth and sixth grades should be spent in general reviews. Text-books written from the biographic point of view may be used very sparingly in the fifth grade, more profitably in the sixth, but the great value of the work for these years will depend on the teacher's power of story-telling.

These stories should impress the fact that our civilization had its beginning far back in the history of another continent: that we are all emigrants to this country, and that the history of the country in which our forefathers lived is a part of our history; that England, Holland, Spain and France have a vital part in the story of our civilization. Tell of the ancient cities that still exist; how the ancients lived. Tell of Hercules and his labors, search for the Golden Fleece, siege of Troy, wanderings of Ulysses, etc.; how the Greeks lived; Greek colonies in Italy, Gaul and Spain; Roman conquest of Gaul, Spain and Britain; Viking voyages to Greenland and Vinland; Venetian trade with the East and Venetian voyages to London; Marco Polo's travels to China and the East; Portuguese voyages down the coast of Africa and about the Cape of Good Hope; and thus lead up to the discovery of America.

In the child-mind place precedes time; therefore it is proper to introduce map- or globe-work as a part of each lesson. Picture-study, whenever possible, should receive ample attention and should be skilfully directed by the teacher. Often a picture will prove the best introduction for the story.

These story-lessons should be reproduced by the pupils orally in the fifth grade, and written in the sixth grade; that is, if the children have acquired a vivid interest.

Ample time should be allowed to each life. One or two lessons may suffice for less important characters, but the greatest Americans should be presented in a series of biographic pictures. The moral value of history is so generally appreciated that a word of caution seems imperative. History skilfully and truthfully

told is its own preacher. It is advised that rural schools begin this work about October, and continue it to completion with two lessons a week.

#### FIRST YEAR

This outline is written by years rather than by terms. The order of work chosen for the first year is: first, primitive life as represented in Longfellow's story of Hiawatha; second, primitive life as represented in (a) old Aryan shepherd life, (b) Colorado shepherd life.

For the first part of this work teachers are advised to use the outline given in Scott's "Organic Education," if possible. However, with or without the above book, the teacher can use Holbrook's "Hiawatha Primer" and Longfellow's "Hiawatha."

Use only such stories as pertain to the childhood of Hiawatha. Place your emphasis on the home life of the child, and also what he learned from nature, the flowers, trees, water, birds, animals—in short, unite nature-study as much as possible with these stories. If the teacher has no other books than Longfellow's "Hiawatha," it will be advisable to transcribe the stories into prose, using only occasionally short quotations from the poem.

In all teaching tell the stories to the children. Don't read. Each story should be brief and within the child's ability to reproduce.

For the second part of this work use outline in Scott's "Organic Education" or Kemp's "History for Graded and District Schools." The outlines in the above books are sufficient for one-half a school year. If teachers wish to continue the work on Colorado shepherd life, Austin's "The Flock" is an excellent book.

### SECOND YEAR

The order of work is: first, Persian child life and Bible stories; second, old Greek home life and mythology.

For the first part of the work use Scott's "Organic Education." For the Bible stories any of the following books are good: Herbst, "Tales and Customs of the Ancient Hebrews"; Guerber, "Story of the Chosen People;" Baldwin, "Old Stories of the East." If the teacher does not wish to use the work on the

Persian life, it is entirely possible to use only the Bible stories.

In the second part of the work Scott's "Organic Education" may be used as a guide. Kuck, "Milo, the Greek Boy" (C. W. Bardeen, Syracuse, N. Y.), is an excellent book of stories written expressly for this kind of work.

It is possible to use only Greek mythology stories, if the teacher so prefers. In such cases any of the following books are recommended: Burt, "Herakles" (Scribner's); Perry, "The Boys' Odyssey"; Church, "Pictures from Greek Life and Story."

Again the teacher is urged to tell stories rather than read them to the children. And, further, your purpose is not simply to tell the stories, but to tell them so well that their reproduction by the children shall aid both children and teacher in language and reading work.

#### THIRD YEAR

The general plan for this year is as follows: first, Greek history stories; second, stories of Roman home life and mythology. The last part of the previous year was devoted to Greek child life and mythology. The children will now readily take simple stories from Greek history.

For the first part of this year's work any of the following books are useful: Baldwin, "Old Greek Stories;" Guerber, "Story of the Greeks;" Yonge, "Young Folks' History of Greece."

For the second part of the year's work Scott's "Organic Education" and Andrews "Ten Boys" are both useful. The first of the above books gives a full outline of work. The following are, any of them, excellent for this period of history: "Roman Life in the Days of Cicero"; Church, "Two Thousand Years Ago."

If the teacher so desires, she may confine this period to Roman mythology. If this is done, the following book will furnish material: Brooks, "Story of the Aeneid."

By this time children ought to be able to do some written story work; but the teacher is cautioned to tell all stories and require oral reproduction before asking for written work. These written stories ought also to be part of your spelling, language, and reading work.

#### FOURTH YEAR

The plan for this year is suggested as follows: first, Roman history stories; second, Germanic life and mythology. The first part of this work ties closely to the last work of the previous year. If previous teaching has been good, the children will be well prepared for the Roman history stories. There are many good books published on this period. Any good Roman history may be used, but if it is written for adults, the teacher should simplify and rewrite the stories.

All the following books are written for children, and any one of them will furnish ample material for this part of the year's work: Guerber, "Story of the Romans"; Yonge, "Young Folks' History of Rome"; Beesley, "Stories from the History of Rome"; Butterworth, "Little Arthur's History of Rome."

The second part of the year's work can be found fully outlined in Scott's "Organic Education."

However, if the teacher prefers, work can be done by using Germanic mythology only, in which case either of the following books will furnish sufficient material: Baldwin, "Story of Siegfried"; Holbrook, "Northland Heroes." Stories of Viking life can be used in this grade. Hall's "Viking Tales" is an interesting series of stories.

The outline for fifth grade in Kemp's "Outline of History for the Grades" or in Kemp's "History for Graded and District Schools" may be used for this year of work, at the option of the teacher.

### FIFTH YEAR

The general topic for the year is chivalry and knighthood. It easily divides into two parts, as follows: first, the training of a knight; second, stories of the Crusades.

In the first part one book is specially recommended, viz., Pyle, "Men of Iron" (Harper's). This is a story of the training of an English boy for knighthood. It contains plenty of material for this part of the work.

The Arthurian legends are also excellent material for this grade. They may be used instead of the above work, if the teacher wishes. In this case any one of the following books is recom-

mended: Brooks, "Story of King Arthur"; Lannier, "The Boys' King Arthur" (Scribner's); Frost, "The Knights of the Round Table" (Scribner's); "Greene's Legend of King Arthur and His Court."

Material for part two of the work of this year may be obtained from any good history of the Crusades, but most teachers will save time by obtaining Crusade stories written specially for children. Either of the following books will furnish material ready for use in this grade: Douglas, "Heroes of the Crusaders." Teachers will find excellent suggestions in Scott, Tennyson, or either of Kemp's books, already mentioned several times.

#### SIXTH YEAR

The subject for this year is concerned with, first, a study of English history and literature stories; secondly, the period of exploration and discovery in America.

The children have already studied chivalry, knighthood, and the Crusades, and all this has been taught from the viewpoint of English history. Hence the work concerned with the study of the English nation divides itself into two sections, viz., what preceded and what followed the Crusade period. What followed the Crusades is, of course, the more important of these two sections. Teachers are advised to use Wright's "Children's Stories from English Literature," Volumes I and II, in connection with any of the histories mentioned in the list of this period. Lamb's "Tales from Shakespeare" will also give some help. As to the English history, any of the following books are suitable for this grade: Harding, "Story of the English"; Mowry, "First Steps in the History of England"; Dale, "Landmarks of English History."

#### UNITED STATES HISTORY

# General Suggestions

NATURE OF HISTORY.—History is often superficially presented as a mere "record of events." Such teachers look upon the text as the subject, which is to be mastered through the various processes of verbal memory. The result is that history appears to the student as a thing without life; it is hard to learn, uninteresting, and often positively distasteful. But history lies beyond events. It deals with the life of a people in the process of growth.

Hence, events as recorded in books are to be viewed as manifestations of *ideas* which have a *living*, progressive existence. Nor does history repeat itself, "except in minor details," and move in a circle, as it were; but it moves forward in one grand sweep toward institutional freedom.

INSTITUTIONAL GROWTH.—The growth, change, or movement in the thoughts and feelings of a people manifests itself through institutions. Hence we speak of the *institutional life* of a people, of which there are five phases; namely, the political, the industrial, the social, the educational, and the religious. To present history in such light is to organize the facts, to make it more intelligible, more interesting, and thereby easier to learn.

Interpretation of History.—Interpretation in history may be defined as reading meaning or content into individual facts or events. By this process we discover the growth in institutional life, which, be it remembered, is the central principle in history. For example, the Non-Importation Act may be viewed as a result of the passage of the Stamp Act. So it was, but a larger meaning may be found in it; namely, a struggle of the colonists for the rights of Englishmen; or it may properly be viewed as a manifestation of their struggle toward union and independence. Students should be encouraged to express their individual judgment and draw their own conclusions, but they should be cautioned about using present-day standards as a measure of what was right or wrong in past centuries. Present conditions and tendencies of our institutions should be connected with past events to vitalize the subject and to show the progress of humanity.

The Categories of History.—The chief catagories are time, place, cause and effect, purpose and means. Dates are important mainly as landmarks or as marking the change from one epoch to that of another. Only important dates, therefore, should be learned, but they should be thoroughly learned, with all of their significance. Many teachers neglect the place relation in history. The following illustration will show its valuable aid to the memory: Suppose you strive to remember a supposed familiar face. Instantly the mind seeks to recall the place where the face was seen, and when it succeeds in doing so a whole train of circumstances are vividly brought to mind and the name or identity of the person is established. Hence much attention should be given to map study. The maps of the text should be supplemented by



wall maps, and their use insisted upon until the student acquires the habit of referring to them as he would to a dictionary. Outline maps may be used most profitably, and may be secured from various publishing houses at a nominal cost. The cause and effect relation in history is all-important. Without it history is a series of disconnected facts. Events must be viewed as manifesting a result of something and as being a cause of something. The purpose and means relation in history is largely concerned with the actions of individuals, and is highly essential in stimulating the growth of character in the student.

THE BIOGRAPHICAL ELEMENT in history has been emphasized in the lower grades and should not be lost sight of in the seventh and eighth grades. Events, when related to great personages, have a living, personal significance. In this phase of the work we pass from the study of causes to the study of purpose and motives. Jefferson's broad-mindedness in the Louisiana Purchase may be contrasted with his narrow-mindedness in his plan of coast defense. When threatened by the Writs of Assistance, James Otis' high moral courage may be observed in his resigning a lucrative royal position to plead before the bar of justice the legal and commercial rights of the colonists. The attitude of Samuel Adams toward his domestic duties may be contrasted with his attitude toward public duties. Arnold's services at Saratoga may be contrasted with his overtures with the British; Burr's conspiracy. with those of certain sugar-trust magnates; etc., etc. In this way the ethical nature of the student can be strongly stimulated, and his judgment is developed by taking various points of view.

THE CHIEF AIM IN HISTORY.—The chief aim in teaching history is to give to pupils who study it strong moral characters and civic righteousness. They should be led to see how men and women have sacrificed their own interests to promote better institutions for humanity, and unconsciously these pupils should be brought to give what is best in them to their community, their state, and their nation for the good of all.

THE STUDY OF TYPES.—In the seventh and eighth grades in history the teacher should aim, whenever possible, to present masses of details or conditions through type lessons. In exploration a few men should be studied in detail, so as to lead the pupil to project himself into the life of these men. Typical colonies should be studied for the same reason, likewise typical battles in each war,

and treaties, etc. Three objects are gained by such method of presentation: (1) the subject is made more real and interesting; (2) the student learns a method of investigation; (3) much time is saved.

# Period of Discovery and Exploration, 1492-1588

Two central ideas are the dominating features of this period, and serve therefore as a guide to the teacher in grouping her facts. They are (1) the maintenance of trade relations between Europe and the Orient, and (2) the new land and its people. This period of American history, therefore, and indeed that of our later colonial history, should be presented mainly as a part of a larger whole; viz., the institutional life of European nations.

- A. CONDITIONS IN EUROPE.—An age of general awakening in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.
  - 1. The Renaissance; the new learning; how related to the Crusades.
    - a. An age of personal activity; of conscious individualism.
    - b. New standards of duty being applied toward institutions—church, state, guilds, etc.
    - e. An age of invention and discovery.
      - (1) In astronomy; in other sciences.
      - (2) Invention of gunpowder; overthrow of feudalism and chivalry; stimulus to democracy.
      - (3) Invention of printing—a new force for democracy.
      - (4) Invention of the mariner's compass (direction); of the astrolabe (position); navigation made safer.
    - d. Knowledge of geography.
      - (1) Journeys of Marco Polo; Prince Henry the Navigator and his school.
      - (2) Belief as to size and shape of the earth.
      - (3) Map-making, nautical tables, etc.
  - 2. Trade with the East.
    - a. Controlled by Venice and Genoa.

- b. Routes to East by way of Alexandria, Constantinople, etc.
- c. Routes through Europe by way of France; also over the Alps and down the Rhine.
- d. Robber barons from their castles collected tolls from merchant princes, who held fairs near them.
- e. Articles of commerce; spices to cover up bad cooking; rich fabrics and ornaments for the church, etc.
- f. European life dominated by these trade relations.
- g. The Crusades a commercial and religious movement designed to hold these trade routes and Jerusalem.
- h. Fall of Constantinople, 1453.
- i. Improved ship-building, safer navigation, and the discovery of rich minerals in England and Germany tended to create trade centers—the Hanscatic League—in western Europe, and likewise to cause commercial Europe to face westward.
- j. Western sea routes to India meant the decline of Italian eities and the growth of Spain, France. Portugal, and England. Why did Genoa refuse to aid Columbus?

# B. PHYSICAL FEATURES OF NORTH AMERICA-

- 1. Eastern highland system.
  - a. Average height.
  - b. The three eastern gateways to the interior of our continent: Mississippi River, Hudson-Mohawk valley, St. Lawrence-Great Lake system. Compare their relative advantages, remembering that the Iroquois Indians were a barrier to the second. Other less important gateways.
- 2. Western highland system.
  - a. Average height.
  - b. Its gateways—not well defined.
- 3. The great interior region.
  - a. Its natural waterways.
  - b. Its climate, soil, prairies, rainfall.

- 4. Atlantic coast plain.
  - a. Gradually widens from the north to the south.
  - b. Average width, 150 miles.
  - c. Navigable rivers; coast line.
  - d. Varieties of soil, temperature, rainfall.
- 5. Pacific coast region.
- 6. The West Indian islands.
- 7. Material resources.
  - a. Forest regions—then and now.
  - b. Mineral wealth. We lead the world in coal, iron, zinc, copper, lead, borax. Location of these fields.
  - c. Fur-bearing animals in relation to American history (important).
  - d. The fisheries in relation to trade and international law.
  - e. The buffalo and the deer.
- 8. Commercial advantages.
  - a. Our leading harbors.
  - b. Our waterways to the interior have no equals; cheap and easy communication.
  - c. Chief Indian portages, e. g.
  - d. Accessibility to Europe.

# C. EXPLORATION—

- 1. Reasons for: new route to Indies; economic interests; love of adventure; to spread the gospel of Christ; northwest passage.
- 2. Discoveries and explorations of the Northmen in the tenth century; why seemingly forgotten.
- Columbus: his early life; his knowledge of navigation; his search for aid; his first voyage, discovery (1492), and return; his other voyages, disgrace, and death.
- 4. Pope Alexander VI's line of demarcation, 1493.

Note.—Study the explorers in groups as to time, place, purpose, means, and results. Being guided largely by materials at hand, select one or two explorers as types for each group, and make such investigations as real as possible, from the child's point of view, through incidents, details, the use of pictures, maps, etc. Give brief notice to the work of the other explorers of the group, but noting carefully the results. Summarize the work of the group by having pupils draw maps for the year 1600, also for the year 1700, copying the names of the explorers in the places associated with them, and indicating the claims of European nations by various colors.

- 5. International rules governing rights to new territory.
  - a. To discover and explore the new territory.
  - b. Plant a settlement at the mouth of the river system draining the territory.
- 6. Spanish explorers in the footsteps of Columbus.
  - a. Ponce de Leon in Florida.
  - b. Balboa in Panama.
  - c. Magellan verified the rotundity of the earth.
  - d. Cortez in Mexico.
  - e. Pizarro in Peru.
  - f. De Soto discovered the Mississippi.
  - g. Coronado in Texas and the southwest.
  - h. Spain's position in the world in the first half of the sixteenth century.
  - i. Spain's twofold object in seeking gold: (1) to carry on the Inquisition; (2) to expel the Jews and the Moors from her realm.
- 7. The rivalry of nations. (James and Sanford's "American History," pp. 27-36, exceptionally good.)
  - a. English explorations.
    - (1) John Cabot, 1497 and 1498. For a half-century England failed to follow up his work because she was a weak nation and dared not oppose Spain; she was a Catholic nation and dared not oppose the papal bull of 1493; the Renaissance had not yet spread to her shores, etc. (James and Sanford, pp. 30-31.)
    - (2) Drake, Davis, Frobisher. Why these buccaneers became so active in the third quarter of the sixteenth century. (James and Sanford, pp. 31-32.)
    - (3) Sir John Hawkins and the slave trade; the writings of Hakluyt stirred the minds of Englishmen.
  - b. Dutch explorations.
    - (1) Henry Hudson, 1609.
    - (2) The aim of Holland—the commerce of the world, not colonial empire.
    - (3) Why hated by England? by Spain?

- c. French explorations.
  - (1) Francis I, king of France, ignored the papal bull of 1493. Why?
  - (2) Cartier on the St. Lawrence, 1534.
  - (3) Period of little activity for the rest of the century, due to a civil religious war and to a war with Spain.
  - (4) Champlain, 1603-1608. Activity interrupted again by the Thirty Years' War (1618-1648), etc.
  - (5) La Salle.
  - (6) Joliet; Marquette.
- 8. Spain and England in deadly embrace.
  - a. Causes: religious, political, and commercial.
  - b. Spain's attitude toward wealth led her people to speculating, to industrial neglect, and hence to national dependence and decay. In 1560 only one-twentieth of her exports to America was produced by her. Contrast with England's condition. (Tyler's "England in America," pp. 3-6.)
  - c. Spain's versus England's attitude toward religion.

    Contrast other causes of the conflict similarly.

    (Channing's "Students" History of the United States," pp. 51-53; Tyler, chap. I.)
  - d. The Spanish Armada, 1588. (This conveniently marks the close of the period of discovery.)
- For more than a century Asia, not America, had been the goal; Da Gama, 1498, had found a sea route to Asia for Portugal.
- D. THE INDIANS OF NORTH AMERICA-
  - 1. Lived in tribes.
  - 2. Number and distribution.
  - 3. Lived principally by hunting and fishing.
  - 4. Their knowledge of agriculture.
    - a. Clearing forests.
    - b. Tobacco, maize, use of herbs, etc.
    - c. Fish used as a fertilizer.

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- 5. Unsuited to slavery.
- 6. Their home life, manners, and customs.
- 7. Their character; their stage of civilization.

- 8. What we have learned from them.
- 9. How we have generally treated them.
- 10. Champlain's experience with the Iroquois; results.

# E. References.

# SEVENTH YEAR

\*ALTERNATION.—In rural schools pupils of the seventh and eighth years may be put together for the study of United States history. They should have begun the eighth year's work in September, 1917, and each alternate year thereafter; and the seventh year's work in September, 1918, and each alternate year thereafter.

#### Period of Colonization

This period reaches back into the period of discovery and exploration, and has three organizing ideas. They are: (A) rivalry between the papacy and various groups of European peoples who were seeking nationality and religious freedom; (B) rivalry between nations for colonial empires; (C) America—a place for the oppressed, the fortune-hunter, the adventurer, and the missionary.

- A. The Reformation.—A series of revolutions, manifesting deliberate and rational *individualism*, and opposing, therefore, outside interference with conscience and self-government.
  - 1. A consequence of the Renaissance and other forces.
  - 2. Its leaders-Luther, Zwingli, Calvin, Knox, Loyola.
  - 3. Charles V and Philip II of Spain—powerful sovereigns on the side of the Pope.
  - 4. In England during the reign of the Tudors.
    - a. Henry VIII versus the Pope; confiscation of church property; Mary Tudor and Philip H; Elizabeth harmonized both factions; not so bitter as on the continent. Why? England a Protestant refuge; effects.
    - b. Social, industrial, and political effects.
  - 5. The Inquisition and Holland's struggle for independence from Spain.
  - 6. The Inquisition in Spain, and her expulsion of the Jews and the Moors. Effects on Spanish character, on national prosperity, etc.

<sup>\*</sup>This is merely a suggestion.

- 7. In France the struggle of the Huguenots for religious freedom was fused with the struggle of the House of Guiso against the House of Bourbon for royal supremacy (1559-1610). The renewal of persecution in 1685 was a political rather than a religious movement, but it led to a large emigration to America.
- 8. In Germany Lutheranism and its preliminary movement; how checked by the counter-Reformation of the Catholic church.
  - a. The Thirty Years' War, 1618-1648. Causes; its horrors, effects on emigration to America.
  - b. Treaty of Westphalia (1648) marked the close of the Reformation, the end of papal supremacy in polities, and consequently the introduction of the new theory of the "Balance of Power among nations."

# B. COLONIZATION IN AMERICA AND NATIONAL RIVALRY—

- 1. Spanish colonization: Spain's motives (Thwaite's "Colonies," pp. 47-48) and policy (West, p. 121).
  - a. For two centuries after Coronado's expedition her colonizing efforts were directed south of the thirty-first parallel. Why? (Coman, pp. 8-10.)
  - b. National: directed through monopolies; effects.

    (Bogart, p. 20.)
  - c. Her efforts confined largely to the sixteenth century; why? Internal decay; Spanish sea power destroyed, 1588; etc.
  - d. Extent of her acquisitions in America. (Draw a map of her American claims in 1600, locating Santa Fe and St. Augustine.)
  - e. Ethical lessons drawn from her colonial policies and failure.
- 2. French colonization: mostly in the seventeenth century.
  - a. France's motives: patriotic, religious, economic. (West, p. 9.)
  - b. Largely a national movement.
  - c. Her commercial policy.
  - d. Her efforts turned northward through the fate of the Huguenot colony in South Carolina. Settlements determined mainly by considerations of water transportation.

- e. Draw a map of her claims in 1750, locating Quebec, Montreal, New Orleans, St. Xavier, Fort Duquesne, and five other leading posts or settlements.
- f. Stories of Champlain, La Salle; life of the fur-traders and Jesuit priests; fisheries on the northeast coast; relations with the Indians.
- g. External and internal causes of her failure. (Thwaite, pp. 48-50; West, pp. 9-13, most excellent.) She, like Spain, planted none but mediæval institutions in America.

# 3. Dutch colonization.

- a. Holland's motives and policy.
- b. New York merely a trading post.
- c. Internal and external causes of her failure. (Bogart, p. 28; Coman, pp. 17-19; Thwaite, pp. 50-51.)
- 4. English colonization, 1607-1682.
  - a. French to their north, Spanish to their south; conflicting claims.
  - b. Policy of the crown (important). (West, p. 20.)
  - c. Preliminary attempts by Gilbert and Raleigh, the fathers of English colonization. Motives of the promoters and how a reflection of national feeling. The lost colony; cost of the enterprise; how success came from this failure.
  - d. Initiated by chartered commercial companies, by incorporated associations, or by individuals. Contrast with Spanish and French efforts. Effects upon the growth of American institutions and character.
  - e. Wide range of American settlements—thirty or more (Andrews, pp. 13-18.)
- C. England's Two Periods of Colonization and the Characteristics of Each (Andrews, pp. 42-44; West, p. 118)—
  - I. First Period of English Colonization, 1607-1640—
    - Its English background: religious ferment and the "Reformation of the Reformation;" social and economic conditions—overpopulation, quest for new markets, spirit of adventure, etc.; arbitrary rule of the Stuarts and political conflicts with the people. Summarize motives for colonization. Attitude of

- sovereigns toward America. (Bogart, pp. 29-34; West, pp. 15-19; Thwaite, pp. 51-54, 65.)
- 2. England for the first time an independent commercial nation; hence the formation of several trading companies.
- 3. The London and Plymouth Companies—grantees, settlers' rights, territory, government (important). (West, pp. 21-24.)
- 4. Settlement of Virginia, 1607. (Study this colony in detail as a type of the southern group. Give its neighboring colonies brief treatment.)
  - a. Soil, climate, coast line, rivers, forests, etc.
  - b. Motives and character of settlers.
  - c. The starving time; John Smith.
  - d. Jamestown not a settlement; working for the company.
  - e. Governor Dale and the new system of landownership; effects (important). (Bogart, pp. 48-50; Coman, pp. 32-38.)
  - f. Their system of labor—indentured servants; introduction of slavery, 1619. Why necessary? (Coman, pp. 41-46.)
  - g. Importation of wives; a representatives assembly (very important). (West, pp. 31-32.)
- h. Tobacco—the chief export up to the time of the Revolution. This valuable product and self-government the two basic conditions of Virginia's permanency.
  - Dissolution of the company (1624); Virginia a royal province; growth of the colony; Virginia and the Commonwealth—immigration of royalists. (West, pp. 34-40.)
- 5. Settlement of Massachusetts, 1620. (To be studied as a type of the northern colonies and contrasted in detail with the settlement of Virginia.)
  - a. Soil, climate, coast line, fisheries, forests, Indians.
  - b. Political and religious differences between Puritans and Separatists. (West, pp. 52-53.)
  - c. Motives and character of the settlers.
  - d. The Pilgrims in voluntary exile. (Re-think the exile of the Israelites; also Holland's recent

- change to Protestantism. Make this a lesson in ethics.) Negotiations for a new location and the settlement of Plymouth. The "Mayflower" compact; the Indians; economic and political changes; growth of the settlement. (West, pp. 53-66.)
- The Massachusetts Bay colony, 1628. Review. political troubles in England. Boston settled by an incorporated association; character of the emigration 1630-1640; home life and self-government guaranteed by a charter: who could vote? Governor Winthrop; their first winter; their economic life; settlements made in groups—why? The Puritans became Congregationalists. Maine and New Hampshire settled by Massachusetts; their later separation under a royal charter. Struggle for representative government (West, pp. 77-102); religious intolerance (West, pp. 102-109). Rev. Hooker and his congregation for economic, political, and religious reasons settle in Connecticut, 1633-1634 (West, pp. 111-114); their written constitution; their charter; their troubles with the Dutch and the Pequot Indians; growth of the colony. Roger Williams and his religious and political doctrines; his banishment and the founding of Rhode Island, 1636 (make this a lesson in ethics); his charter; a Baptist colony with religious freedom; growth of the colony; its economic life and development.
- 6. The New England Confederation—purpose; its lesson in national government.
- 7. Massachusetts becomes antagonistic to English government.
- 8. Education in New England; Harvard College.
- 9. Settlement of Maryland, 1634.
  - a. Roman Catholics in England.
  - b. Lord Baltimore and his proprietary rights; how the colonists were ruled; contrast with feudalism.

- c. Maryland and Virginia.
- d. A representative assembly; religious toleration.
- 10. Settlement of Bermuda. (A fruitful study can well be made of the settlement and growth of the West Indies, since they bore an important economic relation to the continental colonies.) (Andrews, pp. 17-19.)
- 11. Summary of this period. (Andrews, pp. 28-40.)

# II. Second Period of English Colonization, 1655-1682-

- Its European background: France succeeds Spain as dictator of European politics; Louis XIV of France and his persecution of the Huguenots; religious motives give way to personal power, territorial aggrandizement and commercial interests. England, as in the days of Elizabeth, faces outward. The Navigation Act of 1651 and war with Holland for commercial supremacy, 1652-1653: Cromwell's foreign policy; the Restoration, 1660.
- England's change of policy toward colonization, and characteristics of this period. (West, p. 118; Andrews, pp. 43-44.) Carefully elaborate England's mercantile policy (important). (Bogart, pp. 90-94.) How it compared with other nations.
- 3. Establishment of the Carolinas, 1663; proprietary colonies. The promoters—their motives and conditions of their grant. North Carolina an offshoot of Virginia, 1653; other settlements. Separation of the two colonies, 1729. Culture of rice and indigo; growth of self-government.
- 4. Georgia founded, 1733; an isolated movement.

  Motives of the proprietor and the English government. His land grant and the plan of government.

  Silk culture. Failure of Oglethorpe's scheme of colonization. Why?
- 5. Process of uniting the scattered fringe of English settlements.
  - a. Review of New Amsterdam as a Dutch trading post—not a colony, but a huge plantation till 1626; the patroon system of agriculture and government; religious toleration; Stuy-

vesant and popular discontent; England conquers New Amsterdam and it becomes New York, 1664.

- b. New Jersey founded by proprietors, 1665; their motives and plan of government; land grants a bone of contention; the Quakers settle in West Jersey; surrender of the charter, 1688.
- c. Pennsylvania founded, 1682. English Quakers and the Clarendon code. Penn and his grant of land from the king, also from the Indians; settlement of Philadelphia; self-government and religious toleration; growth of the colony.
- d. Delaware founded by the Swedes, 1638. Conquered by the Dutch in New York; then by the English, 1664; under the rule of Penn, 1682-1703; independence.
- 6. English rivalry in the West Indies.
- 7. Summary of the political and social characteristics of the colonies down to the Glorious Revolution, 1688. (Andrews, pp. 62-89.)
- 8. England formulated a colonial policy in harmony with her mercantile system, and for colonial protection. (Bogart, pp. 90-100; West, pp. 119-124; Andrews, pp. 107-127.) Organization of a colonial department; the Navigation Acts of 1660, 1663, 1672.
- 9. Political tendencies in the colonies; liberal charters in Connecticut and Rhode Island; continued friction with Massachusetts; King Philip's War; attacks upon colonial charters; Governor Andros—England's purpose, and how received by the colonists; large influx of Cavaliers to Virginia, 1649-1670; their part in Bacon's Rebellion and attempts to overthrow popular government. (West, pp. 124-138.)

# Development of the Colonies, and the Struggle for a Continent, 1689-1763

In this period we must be guided by the following viewpoints:

- (1) an isolated but conscious struggle in America for self-control;
- (2) Parliament began to usurp the king's power and to substitute

an organized control of the colonies for his former "let alone" policy; (3) the beginnings of a common colonial life; French and English struggle for supremacy in America.

### A. ENGLAND AND THE COLONIES-

- 1. Review England's mercantile policy, and constantly relate the actions of the colonists, the king, and Parliament to it. The English Revolution of 1688.
- 2. Material prosperity; non-English immigration, its causes and distribution (Louis XIV's persecution of the French Huguenots and his wars with the Dutch, famine in Ireland, etc.); population in 1690, in 1760; disputes as to colonial boundaries. (West, pp. 143-146.)
- 3. Our trade with the West Indies; rum the basis of New England's prosperity, as was tobacco in the South.
- 4. New England's products in competition with England's
- 5. Parliamentary acts as to commerce; as to colonial manufacturing; as to the slave trade. (Bogart, pp. 90-101: West, pp. 147-148; Andrews, pp. 185-204.)
- 6. English Lords of Trade and Plantations established, 1695; their duties.
- 7. England attempted to reorganize and direct our religious affairs in the interest of her established church.
- 8. Charter and proprietary colonies were changed into royal provinces. (West, pp. 149-150.)
- 9. Conflicts between the assemblies and the royal and proprietary governors. Who had the right of taxation in the colonies? The royal veto, and how avoided by the colonists. (West, pp. 151-152; Andrews, pp. 155-185.)
- 10. Parliament's authority denied by the colonists, asserting that their charters made them answerable to the king (West, 152-155.)
- 11. England's restrictions upon colonial paper money issues.

  Why? How it affected our balance of trade. (Bogar's p. 92.)
- 12. Growth of ship building, the fisheries, shipping; our exports and imports.
- 13. How England fostered our industries. (Bogart, p. 101.)

- 14. Smuggling. Were English commercial restrictions really harmful to the colonists? (Bogart, pp. 102-103.)
- 15. Attempts at colonial union. (Andrews, pp. 205-228.)
- 16. Summarize conditions in each of the three groups of colonies—northern, middle and southern—as to land tenure, their system of labor, education, religion, local government, industries and social life.
- B. ENGLAND AND FRANCE—their rivalry in Europe and other parts of the world—
  - 1. Westward movement of our frontiers—in 1690 only fifty miles from the coast and roughly parallel with it from Maine to Georgia. (West, p. 143.)
  - 2. Review French claims.
  - 3. French and English clashed in the Ohio valley.
  - 4. Summarize the earlier French wars: King William's War, 1689-1697; Queen Anne's War, 1702-1713; King George's War, 1744-1748.
  - 5. The French and Indian War, 1754-1763. Strength of the parties; the theater of the war; its leaders—Washington, Wolfe, William Pitt, Braddock, Louis XIV, Montcalm. Campaigns and events; the decisive battle; the Peace of Paris, 1763.
  - 6. Why France failed in America.
  - 7. Draw maps of North America, showing the geographical results of this war.
  - 8. Royal proclamation of 1763 forbidding settlement west of the Alleghenies; how received by the colonists.
  - 9. Pontiac's war revealed a weakness in colonial self-protection.
  - 10. General results of the war: less need of English protection, military experience, etc.

# Period of the American Revolution, 1763-1783

To interpret this period we must constantly hold in mind: (1) that England had outgrown her constitution through her territorial and commercial expansion dating from 1651; (2) that in England as well as in America there was a struggle for civil rights, and hence this was really a civil war; (3) that the struggle was peaceful in England, but it divides itself into two phases here, namely, a period of constitutional discussion and resistance (1763-1775), and a period of actual warfare (1775-1783).

- A. Fundamental Causes of the War. (West, pp. 182-196; Bogart, pp. 110-111; Fiske's "American Revolution," Vol. I, pp. 32-45)—
  - 1. Economic causes. Review England's mercantile policy and its effects on the colonies, noting especially the controversy over the Sugar Act of 1733, the prohibition of manufactures, interference with the West Indian trade, the prohibition of paper money issues, the king's proclamation of 1763.
  - 2. Social causes: distance from England, and influence of a new country on character; effects of the early Stuarts "let alone" policy and a later non-enforcement of English laws; America had been settled by "progressives" and undesirables.
  - 3. Political causes: conflict between English and colonial theories of (1) representation and (2) the powers of Parliament; France no longer a menace to us.
- B. CONSTITUTIONAL DISCUSSION AND RESISTANCE, 1763-1775—
  - 1. Colonial defense based on "the rights of Englishmen," as defined by our charters and established by custom.
  - 2. England's new colonial policy: the character and policy of George III; enforcement of the navigation acts; the new Sugar Act of 1764; a standing army for America; English bishops to be sent to America; revision of the revenue system. (Bogart, pp. 105-106.)
  - 3. England's real needs for increased revenues, and how the colonies looked upon her taxation of the colonies.
  - 4. The Parson's Cause in Virginia.
  - 5. Smuggling and the Writs of Assistance.
  - 6. The Stamp Act, 1765—purposes, provisions, colonial opposition, claiming it to be an *internal* tax, etc.; riots, intimidation and various forms of united action. Its repeal. Why? (Bogart, p. 106.)
  - 7. The Townshend Acts, 1767 (an external tax)—purpose, provisions. How a serious attack upon popular government. Opposition: New York's assembly refused to grant supplies; Dickinson's "Letters of a Farmer;" Massachusetts Circular Letter; non-importation agreement (the first step in revolutionary

organization), etc. Partial repeal. The colonists now shifted their argument from "no taxation without representation," which they really did not want, to "no control by Parliament;" troops in Boston; the Boston Massacre; the burning of the "Gaspee;" the Committees of Correspondence—the second step in Revolutionary organization (important). (West, p. 203; Channing, pp. 179-181; Bogart, p. 107.) The Boston Tea Party; reception of the tea ships in New York, Charleston, etc.

- 8. The four Intolerable Acts of 1774.
- 9. The First Continental Congress, 1774—the third step in revolutionary organization (a congress only in name); colonies represented; its work, noting particularly the organization of "The Association" for enforcing the non-importation and non-exportation agreement. (Bogart, pp. 108-109.)
- 10. Provincial congresses and conventions took the place of assemblies and governors (1775)—the fourth step in revolutionary organization; Massachusetts organized a provisional government. (West, pp. 205-213.)
- 11. Whigs and Tories, or Patriots and Loyalists in America.
  Who constituted the Loyalists? Their number; treatment during the war. (West, pp. 219-220.)
- 12. The Second Continental Congress, May, 1775. Its organization, membership, immediate purpose, later functions. (West, p. 215.)

# C. Civil War in America, 1775-1783—

- 1. Preparations for war by the colonies; Silas Deane, Arthur Lee and Franklin as "Friends Abroad;" influence and secret aid of France; preparations by England; strength of the parties; Burke, Fox and Pitt in Parliament; position of the English masses.
- 2. Campaign in the North.
  - a. Around Boston; why? Lexington and Concord, Bunker Hill; Washington in command; character of his army; siege and evacuation of Boston.
  - b. In Canada; why? Ticonderoga and Crown Point;
    Arnold and Montgomery at Montreal and
    Quebec.

- 3. Movements toward independence. Discussions turned now upon the Rights of Man. Formation of state constitutions, 1775-1776 (West, pp. 221-235); organization of a general government; Paine's "Common Sense;" Jefferson's "Summary View;" the Declaration of Independence (really in the nature of a campaign document); its author, and how it acted on the colonists. (Channing, pp. 198-206.)
- 4. Struggle for the center.
  - a. Why the English made this movement.
  - b. New York captured; retreat of Washington down the Hudson and across New Jersey; Hessian soldiers, and why used by England; Washington's victory at Trenton and Princeton; Washington at Morristown Heights; weakness of Congress; noted volunteers from Europe.
  - c. Capture of Philadelphia; how this affected Burgoyne's campaign on the Hudson; Valley Forge.
  - d. Burgoyne's campaign; its object; his plan; his difficulties; his allies; Arnold at Saratoga; why Burgoyne failed (very instructive when carefully traced). (Fiske's "American Revolution," Vol. I, pp. 260-344.)
  - e. England offered conciliation.
  - f. Our alliance with France, and later through her with Holland and Spain; her objects; effects. (Fiske, Vol. II.)
  - g. Evacuation of Philadelphia and Howe's resignation; reason in each instance. Battle of Monmouth and Lee's treachery.
  - h. New York sheltered a large British army until the close of the war with Washington and his forces near-by in a semi-circle "watchfully waiting."
  - i. Improved conditions of our army due to Steuben's training, to longer enlistments, etc.
- 5. How the war was being financed by us: by foreign loans paper money issues, confiscations, gifts of public land, private loans, state aid; the services of Robert Morris (afterwards permitted to die in a debtor's prison) Washington's gratuitous services. (Channing, pp. 223-224; West, p. 241; Hart, pp. 89-92; Bogart, pp. 111-118.)

- 6. War in the West: our frontier was pushed beyond the Alleghenies into the Northwest and the Southwest; Indian outrages; the work of George Rogers Clark (important). (West, pp. 248-257; Spark's "Expansion of American People.")
- 7. The treason of Arnold. His services in the field had been second only to those of Washington. Review carefully his many deeds of unselfish valor; his slights and humiliations by Congress. (Make this a lesson in ethics and let pupils arrive at their own conclusions.) (Arnold's "Life of Arnold;" Fiske's "American Revolution.")
- 8. The war carried into the South by the British; why?
  Henceforth a war of devastation. New British generals. Campaigns in Georgia and South Carolina.
  If possible, read a full account of the battle of King's Mountain (Fiske's "American Revolution"). Cornwallis in Virginia and his capture at Yorktown.
- 9 War on the sea.
  - a. American privateers.
  - b. John Paul Jones.
  - c. The French fleet, and why it made no better showing.
- 10 Reasons for American success. (Hart's "Formation of the Union," p. 89.)
- 11. The treaty of peace; its terms as to: (a) American independence; (b) boundaries; (c) the fisheries; (d) commercial concessions; (e) the surrender of western posts; (f) our treatment of loyalists, etc. Map drawing. (Channing, pp. 225-232; West, pp. 243-247.)
- 12. The army disbanded; the Newburg Addresses, 1783; our attitude toward a standing army.

#### The Confederation and the Constitution, 1781-1789

This period has two dominating ideas underlying it: (1) a struggle for union (1781-1787) on the basis of state sovereignty; and (2) a struggle for union (1787-1789) on the basis of national sovereignty. (Channing, pp. 236-237; Gordy, Vol. I, pp. 75-117—excellent.)

- A. Union on the Basis of State Sovereignty-
  - 1. Formation and adoption of the "Articles;" their leading provisions. (Hart, pp. 104-105; Channing, pp. 236-240; West, pp. 278-282.)
    - a. Their defects. (West, pp. 288-293.)
      - (1) In organization: equal representation; limitation as to term of service; salary paid by states.
      - (2) In powers of Congress: as to foreign commerce, taxation, treaties, lack of control over individuals and states, divisions of labor.
        - (3) In impossibility of amendment.
    - b. Their value.
    - c. Why Maryland refused so long to accept the "Articles."
  - 2. State governments.
    - a. Review their transition from provincial congresses and conventions, 1774-1776, to their adoption of state constitutions.
    - b. Their characteristics: strongly individualistic; why? Little confidence in governors, but trusted legislatures; why? Jealous of the central government; why? Their laws and court system based on those of England. (Channing, pp. 249-250.)
- 3. Forces fostering state sovereignty. (Gordy, Vol. I, chap. iv.)
- a. Jealousy of the central government.
- b. Interstate jealousy.
  - c. Boundary disputes.
    - d. Weakness of Congress.
    - e. The financial situation.
    - f. Influence of foreign affairs.
    - g. Insubordination and lawlessness incident to the war and a long period of freedom from restraint.
    - h. Prevalent political theories, viz.: that liberty means license, etc.
    - i. Thousands of loyalists, the conservative element, were in exile.
    - j. Most people but dimly conscious of a national feeling.

# 4. Financial difficulties.

- a. The paper money advocates; debtors versus creditors in New Hampshire, in Rhode Island; Shay's Rebellion; seeds of anarchy. (Gordy's "Political History of the United States," Vol. I, chap. iv.)
- b. National and state debts, and how they were being liquidated.
- c. Sources of national revenues.
- d. Work of Robert Morris. (West, pp. 283-288; Hart, pp. 109-111.)
- 5. Slavery (1777-1788). (Hart, pp. 113-115.)
  - a. Anti-slavery sentiment.
  - b. Emancipation acts.
  - c. Its economic significance.
- 6. Foreign relations. (Hart, pp. 115-117; Bogart, pp. 114-119.)
  - a. Powers of Congress as to treaties and foreign commerce.
  - b. England's commercial restrictions, and how we met them; compare with colonial times.
  - e. How Spain, Portugal and France treated us as to trade.
  - d. Condition of our trade with the West Indies, particularly.
  - e. Holland's attitude.
  - f. Efforts to amend the "Articles."
  - g. Growth of the West; settlements; threats of secession in the Southwest. (West, pp. 248-259, 274-277.)
  - h. Efforts at treaty making.

# B. Union on the Basis of National Sovereignty—

- 1. Forces tending to foster nationalism.
  - a. Review Clark's conquest in the Northwest. (West, pp. 260-267.)
  - b. Cession of western land claims.
  - c. Our scheme of western land surveys, 1785. (West, pp. 270-274.)
  - d. Influence of leaders like Washington, Madison, etc.
  - e. The Ordinance of 1787; its antecedents; its valuable provisions for intestate estates, for free schools, freedom of religion, personal liberty, for expan-

sion into states. (West, pp. 267-270; Channing, pp. 246-249.)

- Failure of the revenue amendments (Hart, pp. 118-119.) 2.
- 3. The Constitutional Convention, 1787.
  - Its membership. (West, pp. 293-304.)
  - Its distrust of democracy; why? (West, pp. 295-300: Smith's "Spirit of American ment.")
  - Factional parties: creditors versus debtors; smallstate men versus large-state men; slavery versus anti-slavery; agricultural interests versus commercial interests; the North versus the South, etc. (Hart, pp. 122-123.)
  - Its object; plans submitted, and the merits of each. d.
  - The Connecticut compromise; other compromises. e. (West, pp. 304-312.)
  - f. Undemocratic features of the Constitution.
    - Our autocratic judiciary. (1)
    - (2)The system of checks and balances.
    - (3)Protection given to property rather than to men.
    - (4)Indirect election of the president. (West, pp. 312-322.)
- Ratification of the Constitution. (Hart, pp. 128-131.)
  - Who opposed it, and why? (Channing, pp. 270-275.)
  - Its final adoption. (West, pp. 323-332.)
- 5. The Constitution.
  - Powers given to the states; to the general government; shared by both; denied to each. What of those not mentioned?
  - Organization of the functions of government under it-legislative, judicial and executive.
  - Chief powers of Congress. c.
  - d. The elastic clause.
  - How it may be amended; number of amendments and character of each.
  - f. Its merits; memorize its preamble, the elastic clause. the first amendment.
  - Our unwritten constitution.
  - Contrast with leading provisions of the "Articles."

Note.—The teacher may make a more detailed study of the constitution here, if time permits, following the plan, say, of Andrews' "Manual of the Constitution."

### Period of Conscious Nationality and Foreign Relations, 1789-1800

This period is pre-eminently concerned with political and administrative problems, both foreign and domestic. The industrial revolution had not reached us. We were prone to follow our colonial habits of trade, though we appeared to the world as a commercial outcast. The principles of the revolution of 1787 were being expanded and established by men strong in the faith of federalism.

# A. REORGANIZATION AND ESTABLISHMENT OF NATIONAL GOVERNMENT—

- 1. Its undemocratic spirit. (West, pp. 333-336.)
- 2. Inauguration ceremonies.
- 3. Evolution of a "cabinet" from colonial days to the present. (West, pp. 338-339.) The lesson learned from Washington's "mixed" cabinet.
- 4. Organization of our judicial department; its assumed control over state courts and legislatures; the eleventh amendment. (West, pp. 341-343.)
- 5. Its bill of rights, the first ten amendments. Why adopted?
- 6. Hamilton's financial measures. (West, p. 343.)
  - a. His two-fold object.
  - b. Funding and assumption of national and state debts.
  - c. Revenue measures—tariff and excise.
  - d. The National Bank.
  - e. Government mint established, 1790.
  - f. Effects of.
  - g. Why our capital was placed in the South.
- 7. The rise of new political parties. (West, pp. 351-358.)
  - a. Review of earlier parties.
  - b. Federalists and Republicans: how they differed; their leaders and party spirit.
  - c. Steps in party organization.
- 8. Sectional disputes (important). (West, pp. 348-351.)
  - a. Economic basis of these disputes—conflicting economic systems.
    - (1) In the North: Shipping; its importance; favorable legislation. Manufactures—Hamilton's report of; patent laws; favorable legislation; in the domestic stage; the labor system. The

- fisheries, etc. (Coman, pp. 132-154; Bogart, pp. 120-122, 148-159.)
- (2) In the South: Agriculture—the system of labor, mainly hand labor; crops; methods; live stock, exports and imports. (Bogart, pp. 133-147.)
- (3) In the West: Need of transportation facilities; frontier life; the cradle of democracy; constantly drained the East of its labor and surplus population, and hence a cause of high wages; its development 1789-1800; new states; threats of secession; Indian troubles. The growth of the West intensified sectional differences, culminating in our Civil War. (West, pp. 348-351.)
- 9. Status of slavery at this time.
- 10. The Whiskey Rebellion—a test of nationalism.

## B. Foreign Relations, 1789-1800 (West, pp. 358-366)—

- 1. The Industrial Revolution in England, and how we were affected by it. (Cheyney's "Industrial History of England," pp. 199-239.)
- 2. The French Revolution (important): its causes, excesses, ambitions; Napoleon and his work. (Dale's "Landmarks of English History," pp. 185-205; excellent.)
- 3. Relations with England as to our treaty of 1783; commercial privileges and the rights of neutrals on the high seas; Jay's treaty.
- 4. Relations with Spain: western claims; right of deposit; the treaty of 1795, and what New England thought of it.
- 5. Relations with France: concerning our treaty of 1778; Citizen Genet; our proclamation of neutrality; France angered over Jay's treaty; she seized our merchant ships; how she received our ministers, and our preparations for war 1798; our treaty of 1800. (Bogart, pp. 120-122.)
- 6. Why the Federalists favored England, and the Republicans favored France.
- 7. Campaign and election of 1792; of 1796; partisan politics.

- 8. Fall of the Federalists, 1797-1801.
  - a. Causes: Factional fights in the party; unpopular taxes, etc., incident to the French war; the Alien and Sedition Acts (memorize the first amendment of our Constitution); the Naturalization Act; their enlargement of an unpopular court system, etc. In general, their theory of a federal government not suited to the time. (West, pp. 366-372.)
  - b. The Kentucky and Virginia resolutions, a protest against federalism. Their authors, doctrine and precedent for evil.
  - c. Perpetuation of Federalism through the Judicial Act of 1801 and the appointment of John Marshall as chief justice of the federal court. (West, 372-377.)
- 9. The triumph of democracy in 1800; the election of Jefferson and the adoption of the twelfth amendment.
- 10. The Hamilton-Burr duel.

### Democracy and Nationality, 1800-1876

This period of political adjustment between state and nation falls into three natural divisions: (A) nationality and democracy under Jefferson's influence, 1800-1829; (B) under Jackson's influence, 1829-1860; and (C) under Lincoln's influence, 1860-1876.

Industrially the period may be subdivided as follows: (1) fall of the domestic system and the rise of the factory system, 1808-1830; (2) the industrial revolution in America, 1830-1860; (3) the Civil War period, 1860-1870; (4) the period of "large-scale" production, 1870 to the present time. (Bogart, pp. 262-289.)

#### PRELIMINARY SURVEY-

- 1. America in 1800, and its six lines of development during this period.
- 2. How our territorial growth made us truly American. (West, pp. 378-379.)
- 3. Physical conditions; population and its distribution; communication; occupation; wages and frugality; moral and intellectual conditions. (West, pp. 379-395; Bogart, pp. 148-161; Channing, pp. 317-330.)

- A. Under the Jeffersonian System, 1800-1829-
  - L. Jefferson's biography; his views of government versus those of John Adams; versus those of Hamilton. (West, pp. 396-400.)
  - 2. In what sense was Jefferson's election in 1800 a revolution?
  - 3. Reform measures. (West, pp. 400-408.)
  - 4. Who had the right to vote? Contrast with present conditions in Colorado.
  - 5. Jefferson's interest in agriculture; causes of its progress, etc. (Bogart, pp. 133-147.)
  - 6. Purchase of Louisiana—demanded by the West, opposed by New England; why? Advantages to us; Jefferson and "strict construction;" Lewis and Clarke expedition; the boundary question. (West, pp. 408-419.)
  - 7. Growth of the West, 1800-1810; settlements; admission of Ohio, 1802; explorations of Zebulon Pike, 1805-1807. (Spark's "Expansion of the American People," chapters 12-19.)
  - 8. Foreign relations: England and France at war, 1803-1814; attacks on neutral trade; the enforcement by England of the Rule of 1756; how the world regarded impressment; decrees and orders in council, 1806-1810; the outrage on the Chesapeake, 1807; the embargo—its effects on the United States, on England, on France; the Non-Intercourse Act, 1809; the Erskine Treaty, 1809. (Channing, pp. 343-352.)
  - 9. The election of Madison.

#### EIGHTH YEAR

Democracy and Nationality, 1800-1876-Continued

- A. Under the Jeffersonian System, 1800-1829—
  - 1. The War of 1812: Review its causes; Madison's efforts to keep peace; war with the Indians; Henry Clay and other "War hawks;" causes of the war in their order of importance—blockade, right of search, impressment, Indian troubles; why we went to war with England instead of with France; strength of the contestants; English plans of war; American plans of war, and how a

- lack of good roads frustrated our plans; war on the land; war on the sea; privateers; treaty of peace, 1814.
- 2. Our lack of preparations for the war (Channing, p. 358); how a war of paradoxes (Simon's "Social Forces in American History," p. 143).
- 3. How a war for commercial independence? (Important.)
  - a. Primarily through domestic changes in our industrial life—the shifting of capital, the birth of the factory system, etc. (Coman, pp. 175-189.)
  - b. Secondarily through the growth of foreign respect for us incident to the war. (Bogart, pp. 162-165.)
- 4. Other results of the war. (Channing, pp. 367-370.)
- 5. New England and the Union, 1803-1815.
  - a. The "plots" of 1803 and of 1809.
  - b. Her treasonable attitude, 1812-1815, as to the president's use of her militia, her trade, purchase of British securities, swearing allegiance to England's king, the Hartford Convention, etc. (West, pp. 428-435.)
- 6. How the war was financed.
- 7. How the war stimulated the growth of nationality. (West, pp. 436-437.)
- 8. Election of Monroe.
- 9. Growth of the West, 1815-1829; emigration from the East and from Europe; why? The quieting of Indian titles and our improved public land policy; the improved means of communication—the steamboat, canals, the Cumberland road and other turnpikes; Clay's "American System;" new frontiers and new states; the Missouri Compromise. (West, pp. 437-446.)
- 10. Foreign relations: purchase of Florida, and our treaty with Spain as to the boundaries of Texas and Oregon; the "Convention of 1818" with England as to disarmament on our lake frontier, the northwestern fisheries, and boundary lines; the Triple Alliance; our claims on Oregon; Spanish colonies in America in revolt; the Monroe Doctrine. (West, pp. 447-452.)
- 11. National policies as to internal improvements, as to protective tariffs. (Study the acts of 1816, 1824 and 1828, and how the various sections supported these measures.) (West, pp. 452-460.)

- 12. Judicial decisions and nationality. (West, pp. 460-463.)
- 13. Break-up of the era; factions and party politics; election of John Adams; reaction against the exalted power of the judiciary, of "King Caucus" and nationalism (West, pp. 463-469.)

## B. JACKSONIAN DEMOCRACY AND NATIONALISM, 1830-1860—

- 1. Andrew Jackson: his biography; his political views; his election; the "spoils system" an offshoot from New York politics.
- 2. Sectional divergence: number and distribution of population in 1830; social, political and industrial differences among the sections. (West, pp. 470-472; Coman, pp. 193-198.) New political parties.
- 3. The new democracy: who could vote, and the extension of suffrage; the growth of the West and its influence upon democracy; revision of old state constitutions; the awakening of labor and its new demands for shorter working hours, for free schools, etc.; literary progress and moral reforms. (West, pp. 473-506.)
- 4. Nullification in 1832: Review the course of this theory from the adoption of the Constitution; Jackson's views of the presidency (Muzzy's "American History," p. 277); the protective tariff act of 1832; how the tariff hurt the interests of the South; the Webster-Hayne debate; Jackson and South Carolina (Muzzy, pp. 277-282.)
- 5. Treaties with foreign countries; Jackson's admirable foreign policy. (Channing, p. 427.)
- 6. The government and the bank: Review its history since 1789 (Bogart, chap. 16); political character of banking interests then; the election of 1832; withdrawal of deposits; distribution of the surplus; the specie circular and the panic of 1837 (West, pp. 512-516; Muzzy, pp. 282-289); the Independent Treasury System, 1840.

## 7. Slavery.

a. To 1829: on the defensive; state emancipation; general decline of pro-slavery sentiment; the foreign slave trade; emancipation by England and France; plans for negro colonization; the invention of the cotton gin and the growth of slavery; the Missouri

Compromise; scarcity of any other kind of labor in the South; views of men like Washington, Jefferson, Clay, on slavery. (West, pp. 533-536; Muzzy, pp. 303-316.)

From 1829-1860: on the aggressive; Lloyd Garrison b. and a free press; John Q. Adams and the right of petition: how abolitionists and anti-slavery men differed; Nat Turner's Insurrection; demands of the South, 1835-1838, as voiced by Calhoun; the Liberty party and the election of 1844; new cotton fields in the Southwest; northern business interests demanded no anti-slavery discussion; how slavery was adapted to cotton growing and not to other crops (Bogart, chap. 21); King Cotton and its profits; annexation of Texas not an organized scheme of southern slave holders (West, pp. 533-547); war with Mexico and its justification (Muzzy, pp. 338-347); the Wilmot Proviso, 1846; the Mexican cession: the Oregon Territory; gold in California; the Compromise of 1850; demands of each section: speeches of Webster, Calhoun, Chase—all for the sake of union, etc.; the underground railroad: personal liberty laws (note the idea of nullification) and the failure of sectional compromise policy; "Uncle Tom's Cabin;" Cuba and the extension of slavery; the Ostend Manifesto, 1854; the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty (1850) and the proposal of a Panama Canal: the Know-Nothing party of 1852; Stephen A. Douglas and the repeal of the Missouri Compromise; his probable motive; the struggle for Kansas; the Republican party, 1854-1858; the Dred Scott decision; Helper's "The Impending Crisis: '' Lincoln-Douglas debates, 1858: John Brown's raid; and the election of 1860. (West, pp. 549-572; Channing, chap. 11.)

#### 8. Problem.

- a. "William Jackson was born of a slave mother in Worcester, Mass., 1778.
- b. "In 1785 he was taken by his mother's owner, Richard Jones, to Albany, N. Y.
- c. "In 1786 he spent six months trapping with Jones on the western shores of Lake Michigan.

- d. "From 1786 to 1817 he lived with Jones at Princeton,
   N. J.
- e. "In 1817, and again in 1821, he went with Jones on hunting trips up the Dakota River.
- f. "Returning to St. Louis in 1822, he was sold by Jones down the river to New Orleans.
- g. "In 1840 his new master, Smart, took him to Texas.
- h. "In 1844 Jackson ran away to Mexico.
- i. "He was recaptured by Smart during the Mexican War, and was taken to a place near Topeka, Kan, where he lived with Smart till his death in 1870, "What changes in Jackson's legal status—slave or free—took place during his lifetime?"
- 9. Industrial expansion, 1815-1860.
  - a. The frontier in 1820, 1830, 1850; emigration from Europe (Bogart, chap. 18); when and why they came, and where they settled; the frontier settled by Americans.
  - b. Agriculture: its character prior to 1840 in the North and the South (Bogart, chap. 19); the substitution of horse-power for hand-power, about 1840 (Bogart, chap. 20); our inventive genius and results; improvements in live stock, seed selection, crop rotation; its character in 1860 in the South and the West; our public land system, and how it affected wages and the growth of democracy.
  - c. Manufacturing: the domestic system gives way to the factory system by 1830 (Bogart, chapters 12-13); growth of cities; development of the textile industries (Brook's "The Story of Cotton"—excellent for pupils); of the iron industry; compared with England in 1860; exports and imports; the use of woman labor, etc.; inventions. (Bogart, chap. 11.)
  - d. Shipping in 1790, in 1810, in 1850, in 1860, and reasons for its development. (Bogart, pp. 222-230.)
  - e. Communication: our long coast line and interior lake and river systems; internal improvements at national expense (Bogart, chap. 15); constitutional limitations; state aid and bankruptcy; the western steamboat and its great service (Bogart, chap. 14); the era of canal building, 1815-1850; the era of railroad building, 1830-1860 (Bogart, pp. 230-235);

turnpikes and routes of travel (Spark's "Expansion of the American People"); rival cities and ports of entry; the invention of the telegraph (Coman, chap. 8). Our domestic triangular trade in 1860 compared with our foreign triangular trade in 1760. (Interesting and profitable investigation.)

- C. LINCOLN AND THE TRIUMPH OF NATIONALISM, 1860-1876-
  - 1. Biography of Lincoln—his mental, moral and physical characteristics as a basis of his great work.
  - 2. The eve of our irrepressible conflict.
    - a. National prosperity: commercial fortunes and combinations; changes in domestic commercial routes and centers; how the railroads welded the East and the West into a North (1850-1860), thereby undermining the alliance of the West and the South through the use of the steamboat (West, pp. 577-578); new foreign markets and our foreign trade; our national debt; the panic of 1857 and the return to prosperity.
    - The "states rights" theory as held by Jefferson, Calhoun, Douglas, Taney, Greeley and Davis. Review of principal state and federal relations (1789-1860); the tenth amendment; the Judiciary Act of 1789; Kentucky and Virginia resolutions (1798-1799); contest over the control of state militia in the War of 1812: the Hartford Convention, 1814; McCulloch vs. Maryland as to taxation, 1819; Georgia vs. the War Department, 1825-1827; the Webster-Hayne debate, 1830; nullification, 1832; personal liberty laws passed in fourteen states following the Compromise of 1850; the Dred Scott decision and Lincoln's view of it: Lincoln's attitude toward slavery; why the South feared Lincoln; secession of South Carolina; the secession of other southern states; the Confederate government founded on slavery; the proposed division of federal property; Buchanan's attitude; Fort Sumter and the Star of the West; hesitation in the border states; how the creation of new states had transformed the "old union" into a "new union." (Channing, pp. 497-504; West, pp. 587-598.)

- c. The causes of our conflict—social, economic, political.

  (To answer this question is to call out the highest discriminating historic sense of the student.)

  (Wright's "The Industrial Evolution of the United States," pp. 143-158; Channing, p. 501; Muzzy, p. 419; Coman, pp. 269-285; Wilson's "Division and Reunion," pp. 208-220.)
- d. Proposed policies relative to seceding states: (1) compromise, as advocated by Crittenden and others; (2) to "let them go in peace," as advocated by Greeley and others; (3) resistance, as advocated by the "war governors." The South had a definite plan, the North had none.
- 3. The War of Secession (not truly a civil war.)
  - a. The strength of the parties: population, cities, industries; military resources; attitude of foreign nations (West, pp. 610-614); their soldiery (Dodge's "A Bird's View of the Civil War," chap. viii); northern finances, 1861-1865, and our national banking system; southern finances, 1861-1865; the theater of the war. (Channing, pp. 513-523; Muzzy, pp. 430-436; West, pp. 579-586, 604-606; Wilson, chap. x.)
  - b. The call to arms; southern plans for the war—mainly defensive; northern plans—mainly offensive, and consisting of (1) the blockade of southern ports, (2) the opening of the Mississippi River, (3) the capture of Richmond, and (4) the cutting of the Confederacy into two parts, after which a large army was to march to the sea.

Note.—The teacher may conveniently follow her text in the military campaigns. The movement of armies must be constantly related to these plans in order to avoid confusion in the details. For further convenience, the war may be divided into four periods of one year each, beginning April, 1861, and closing April, 1865. The battles of the "Merrimac" and the "Monitor," of Vicksburg and of Gettysburg, may be worked out fully. Constant use of the map should be made.

## (West, pp. 598-602.)

c. Slavery and the war: Lincoln's first inaugural address; General Butler's seizure of negroes as contraband of war; Lincoln suggests (1862) gradual emancipation by the states, with national compensation to the slave-owners and the colonization of

the negroes; abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia; the Emancipation Proclamation—effects in the North, in the South and abroad; negro regiments enrolled; the thirteenth amendment. Name four ways by which slavery was abolished in the United States.

- d. The war and personal liberty: northern sympathizers; the writ of habeas corpus suspended; the Vallandingham case; draft riots. (West, pp. 614-616; Wilson, pp. 227-228.)
- e. The cost of the war in men, in money, in future burdens, in physical decline of manhood, in higher level of taxation and expenditures, in the assassination of Lincoln—a real blow to the South.
- 4. Political reconstruction of the South, 1865-1877. (West, pp. 618-638; Channing, pp. 560-570.)
  - a. Position of the seceding states after the war.
  - b. Lincoln's theory and policy.
  - c. Johnson's theory and policy.
  - d. The quarrel between Johnson and Congress; causes; the Freedmen's Bureau Act; the Civil Rights Act; the Tenure of Office Act.
  - e. Congressional reconstruction as led by Thaddeus Stevens, Charles Sumner, and Henry Wilson.
  - f. The impeachment of Johnson.
  - g. The election of Grant.
  - h. Reconstruction completed: adoption of the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments; military rule in the South; carpet-bag government; the Ku-Klux Klan; restoration of white control in the South by 1878.

    (Muzzy, pp. 477-489.)
- 5. Foreign relations: the French in Mexico; the Alabama claims; the purchase of Alaska. (West, pp. 639-640; Channing, pp. 567-570.)
- 6. The election of 1876.

## Period of Special Privilege vs. the People, 1876-1914

- 1. Characteristics of the period. (West, pp. 642-643.)
- Economic and industrial reconstruction (1860-1914): how the war created an industrial revolution. (Bogart, pp. 306, 407; Wright, chap 12—most excellent.)

- a. The Homestead Act of 1862 and the growth of the Northwest; agriculture as a business; the "benanza" grain fields; agricultural machinery for large-scale production; the breaking-down of the plantation system in the South following the war; the era of small farms; irrigation and reclamation; improvement of live stock; agricultural education; the Department of Agriculture. (Bogart, chaps. 22-23.)
- b. Transportation and communication: the transcontinental railroads-how and why aided by our national government; the Credit Mobilier; railroad combinations and the pooling of interests; the Granger movement; freight rates and Interstate Commerce Act of 1887 (important); the attitude of the people toward railroads and other large corporations; the growth of railroad-building; interurban lines. Water routes: our coastwise shipping; the Panama Canal; the Cape Cod Canal; the value of our lake and coastwise shipping; our foreign shipping-how the war and our high tariffs ruined it; its revival since the European war began (1914); our foreign markets. The telephone; wireless telegraphy and its special value to ocean traffic: automobiles; airships; subways; compressed-air tubes, etc. (Have pupils make a series of maps showing commercial routes.) (Bogart, chaps. 24-25, 32; West, pp. 643-652.)
- c. Manufacturing: how the high war tariff affected this industry; factors favorable to its growth—our vast resources, our inventive genius, our flexibility of labor, our cheap means of communication, our high tariffs, large-scale production—advantages and disadvantages; the textile industries; iron and steel; labor-saving machinery; the standardization of machinery and of parts (wagons of the same width, bolts, hats, shoes, lumber, etc., of fixed sizes); trusts and monopolies—how they have been favored; the Sherman Anti-Trust Law; the United States as a manufacturing nation; the industrial changes in the South; its changing attitude toward the tariff; what the future promises for manufacturing in New England, for the South, for the West. (Bogart, chaps. 27-29; West, pp. 652-670; Wright, chaps. 13-14.)
- d. The labor problem: how the Civil War affected labor both north and south; source, character, and extent of immi-

gration, 1860-1885—since that time; the growth of population and of cities; employment of women and children; labor unions, strikes, boycotts, and lockouts since 1885; the Department of Labor; wages and the cost of living; our unequal distribution of labor and proposed remedies (special report). (Bogart, chaps. 30-31; Devine's "Misery and Its Causes;" West, pp. 701-720; Wright, chaps. 16, 21-26.)

3. Financial reconstruction: the national debt in 1866 and its rapid payment; the high level of the war tariff and of public expenditures retained; internal taxes largely abolished by 1883; the greenback controversy; the demonetization of silver, 1873; the panic of 1873; the Bland-Allison Act of 1878; the Sherman Act (1890); the panic of 1893; the free-silver campaign of 1896; the discovery of gold in Alaska and the adoption of the gold standard, 1900; the panic of 1907; banking reform, 1914. (Bogart, chap. 25; West, pp. 682-688.)

## 4. Political outline, 1876-1914.

Characteristics (West, p. 671); the low moral tone exhibited in Grant's administration; the Civil Service Act of 1871; the contested election of 1876; Garfield's election, 1880-the "Star Route" scandal; the assassination of the president; the election of Cleveland and the advancement of civil service; the accumulation of large surplus revenues; tariff agitation, 1884-1888; the pension bill and the beginning of other large expenditures, 1886: how our political life has been corrupted by such means; the presidential succession act, 1886; the tariff act of 1890; the election of 1892; tariff reform, 1894, and the panic of 1893-1896; the income tax declared unconstitutional, 1895; the election of 1896; the Dingley tariff law, 1897; "billion-dollar" Congresses; the high cost of living; war with Spain; the United States becomes a world-power; Hawaii and other new possessions; the election of 1900; South American complications and our revised Monroe Doctrine; the election of 1904; the people demand greater publicity from corporations; the pure-food and drug acts; the election of 1908; the outrageous tariff act of 1909; the progressive movement; the election of 1912; the adop-

tion of two constitutional amendments; the income-tax law; currency and tariff reform acts, 1914; the Mexican situation; the European war and our struggle for neutrality. (West, pp. 671-749.)

#### HISTORY OF COLORADO

#### Early Inhabitants-the Cliff-Dwellers

Note.—The following facts are hard to obtain; few text-books contain them. The information given regarding the cliff-dwellers is from personal knowledge and research. No attempt has been made to give facts contained in the text-books in use.

The claim is often made that "America has no past;" but this is not true, for thickly scattered over the West are footprints of a vanished people, and southern Colorado is rich in ruins of laboriously built dwellings, which are of cut stone, with roofs, doors and windows. These ruins are found in groups in isolated and barren places, along ridges and knolls, and in the fertile valleys. A visit to these ruined homes tells a tale of Colorado in the prehistoric period, and no story is more interesting than that told by the bones of an extinct race, by their rude garments, tools and weapons. Hence we cannot truthfully say that "America has no past."

The Mesa Verde, the Montezuma and Mancos valleys, all located in southern Colorado—that Southwest that is said to be "beloved of the sun and bereft of rain" are literally covered with bits of broken pottery, while all about are mounds, the sites of ancient villages and cemeteries. Ruins are also found in San Juan County, and as far north as the Shavano valley near Montrose. The area of the prehistoric ruins of the Southwest covers a tract of 6,000 square miles.

Visitors to the historic Southwest travel many miles without seeing a living thing, save a buzzard or coyote; and then in a land of tradition and perpetual sunshine, where broad acres dip away between towering cliffs, they find a city of a bygone time and people, and realize that American history did not begin in 1492; that there were people—who, we have reason to believe, were white-living in our country before the great explorer landed upon our shores.

Little is known of these early inhabitants of Colorado. They left no records, no literature, and the hieroglyphics found, though deciphered by archæologists to the best of their ability, give little of their history. Indeed, the rude drawings of weapons, animals,

and strange-looking men and women found can only be interpreted as stories of hunters, of journeys once made; and we are obliged to piece together, as we can, the story of a people who lived, loved and suffered when the cliffs echoed with human voices; for infinite days and nights have passed, peopled only by the silence, and the first white inhabitants of Colorado passed away, leaving only their ruined homes, and a few rude weapons and tools, as the legacy of a semi-civilized people.

The Mesa Verde is a canyon made by the waters of the Rio Mancos, which winds its intricate way through the mesa at a depth of from 600 to 1,500 feet. Its sides are barren cliffs, jagged rocks and perpendicular walls of sandstone; and on these cliffs, high up among the rocks, in seemingly inaccessible places, we find the ruined homes of the cliff-dwellers, as these early Coloradoans are now called. The Cliff Palace—so named by its discoverers, "the Wetherill boys," cowboys then living at Mancosthe most remarkable group of cliff houses found, is there. palace consists of a group of houses, containing 127 rooms upon the ground floor, and 350 in all, with the remains of twenty round and square towers. It occupies 500 feet of space, and is built beneath a grand overhanging crag or cliff in Cliff Canyon. shelving cliffs, which are studded with the ruins of human habitations, resemble cells in a honeycomb, and prove that Colorado's early inhabitants were wonderfully skilful in turning to practical use the protection offered by the cliffs and rocks. The houses are built in rows, one above the other. Each compartment has one opening, either a door or window, which is some thirty inches in height, and two or three feet from the floor. Some of these windows have lintels of cedar, round and unhewn, while others are of stone. The rooms are small, some are plastered, and there are still signs of primitive frescoing in dull red and black. The outer walls, which are from twelve to sixteen inches thick, are of sandstone, with mortar of a grayish white cunningly built to imitate the cliffs themselves, and it is possible to travel up and down the canyon many times without detecting them. Upon the Mesa Verde, a green tableland principally located upon what was once the Ute Indian reservation, there are from 400 to 500 cliff houses, and these ruins, with those of Acowitz Canyon, have Fielded many wonderful relics, such as pottery of unique design, straw and rush matting, fragments of cotton cloth, feather cloth (the feathers are supposed to be those of the wild turkey), cord, moccasins, balls of salt carefully wrapped in corn husks and hung

out of harm's way, and primitive implements of agriculture and warfare. The pottery found is earthenware of a rough gray, of which there is an endless variety, coiled ware, also gray, and the ware resembling wicker-ware. Water jugs are often found, and little lamps, with sometimes a bit of wick that has defied the ages. These little lamps are the rarest bits remaining. Besides the pottery found, there are a great many utensils; but there is not a trace of any metal, all the implements and utensils of this lost people being fashioned of clay, rock, wood or bone. Pieces of turquoise have been picked up among the ruins, but it is evident that the great bodies of gold, silver and copper that abound in the West were a sealed book to the early inhabitants.

It is due to the fact that the sun shines perpetually, and that nature has little time for tears in the Southwest, that we find these precious relies in such a perfect state of preservation. Little wood was used in or about the cliff houses, as it is a comparatively woodless country; yet, notwithstanding that fact, there are timbers upon which the ruins still rest, which once were the floor supports, forty feet in length. These timbers must have been brought from the distant mountains by the people themselves, and at terrible cost; for there is not a suggestion of a pack animal or horse. These beams must have been felled with stone axes, the ends looking as if they had been worn through. Corn cobs are frequently found, even primitive corn cribs, on whose contents the tooth of time has not alone been busy; and there are other evidences that the lost race was given to agriculture and peaceful living.

In these cliff homes the dead were laid to rest in the rear of the dwellings, in a space made by the floor and roof coming together within some four feet. A stone wall is always found as the dividing line, and there, covered by the dust of ages, are the bones of this lost race. Well-preserved mummies are found with an outer wrapping of matting and an inner wrapping of feather cloth, but some have been found without such careful burial, and some in a position that speaks of sudden and possibly violent death.

Just why it has been taken for granted that these early settlers were a dark race, it is hard to say, but even archeologists were agreed upon that point until several mummies laughed their theory to scorn with their red hair.

Near by the cliffs are the valley ruins, and many graves are found there over which a stone slab rests, and upon that slab,

when it is uncovered, are nearly always found the remains of charcoal and burnt corn-mute testimony that the dead were speeded on their way with refreshments. When these valley graves are opened, they are usually found to contain pottery, war clubs and flint trinkets; for few members of this historic race went to their long rest without at least a single piece of choice nottery. As to the skeletons found, there is probably as great a variety as a cemetery of today would yield; but the skulls of these first Americans, though there are "long heads," "flat heads" and "short heads," tell no story. They are sightless and voiceless, and the question confronts us: Who were these people? Of what race? What was their relation to the Toltecs, the Aztecs, to Mokis or Zunis? It is generally held that the cliff-dwellers were related to the Aztecs, and it is a well-established fact that they were fire-worshipers; for there is always an immense inner room in a cliff village with a place that at one time contained the sacred fire, which, without doubt, was kept burning until their extinction. They also worshiped the sun as God, and on many cliffs rude pictures of sun-gods are found.

An inner chamber, which is usually circular in shape, and which is called by the Spaniards an estufa, is taken as evidence that this strange people had a place of worship, though it may have been merely a council chamber. However that may be, savages never built the stone houses in the cliffs. They never made pottery in so many shapes without the aid of a potter's wheel. They never wove cloth from wild cotton, flax and yucca, and they never made feather cloth from the down of birds, laid out roads of uniform grade, and made reservoirs for the storage of water. Yet all these things were done among the cliffs of southern Colorado, though "the memory of man runneth not back" to that time. How long ago was it? A great spruce tree, fully a hundred feet high and nearly, if not quite, ten feet in circumference, grows from one of the ruined homes and echoes the question: "How long ago?"

The mound-builders sleep in the valleys; the strong cities of the cliffs are leveled; the tribes are extinct and their language lost; but the dead-and-gone tribes of valley and cliff were the first settlers of Colorado. They lived centuries before Cortez beheld the snow-capped mountains, and the Southwest of Colorado was the cradle of primeval humanity.

There is a legend that tells us that the Toltees, with a civilization older than the pyramids, came from a remote country to our

own; that theirs was followed by an Aztec dynasty, which, in turn, was overthrown by a fairer, larger people, the overthrow occurring about A. D. 900, when a primitive civilization, extending from the lakes of the North to the Gulf, was wiped out, and the stricken survivors fled to establish homes and defenses among the cliffs. This may be the story of the lost people who were making American history before the coming of the great explorer; but we can not break the silence of the ages, and, year by year, sage brush, pinon and scrub oak creep over the ruins, and spreading their green skirts try to hide the ruined homes from curious eyes.

The Indians who lived at one time in this section, and who still wander over their old hunting-ground, were never a menace to these ruins, as their superstition forbids them to molest the ruined homes of their remote predecessors. Ignacio, chief of the Utes, has always claimed these homes and graves as a legacy left by his ancestors, and urges that they be not disturbed by "the pale-face."

In the years since the discovery of these ruins there has been much exploring and digging in the cliff dwellings, but science has not animated the hand of the digger. Explorers have all been led on by the desire for relics, and scientific knowledge has been forgotten. Already treasures from these prehistoric homes have gone out to the world in large consignments; yet even the celebrated Swede, Nordenskiöld, who was first to arouse scientific interest in these ruins, and who carried away a priceless collection failed to do any thorough or scientific work when digging and exploring, many relics being found later in the houses where he had excavated.

Appreciating that the slow-moving machinery of state and nation might eventually result in reserving a tract of land on which there was nothing to reserve, the club women of Colorado formed a society for the preservation of the ruins, and for a time were their custodian. But the ruins are now set apart as Mesa Verde National Park by act of Congress approved June 29, 1906. This park is placed under the control of the secretary of the interior, who is responsible for the care and management of it; also for the preservation from injury or spoliation of all ruins and relics within the limits of the reservation.—H. M. W.

## The Coming of the White Man-the Early Pioneers

Looking back into Colorado's early history, we see little save mountain ranges and stretches of desert. But a misty column of

human beings is moving westward. They tread the dusty plains and wind through the mountains. From the south came brave, visionary Spanish pioneers, who blazed their way with fire and blood, and raised their crosses and established their faith on Colorado soil under the Castilian flag.

Cautiously the French followed, and the native Americans kept tireless vigil as their territory was invaded.

Priests, savages and Christian knights! They are but phantoms to us, as they flit from mountain fastness to valley and plain, and are lost at last in the mighty shadow; yet they opened a trail across the western border that skirted the eastern base of the Rocky Mountains seventy-nine years before the Pilgrims landed on Plymouth Rock.

According to many authorities, the first white men to penetrate the wilds of Colorado were some 800 Spaniards and Mexicans under command of Francisco Casquade Coronado. This was in 1540, and they sought the "Seven Cities of Cibola." These men were sent northward from Mexico by the Spanish viceroy in search of gold, and, failing to find it, returned, leaving Colorado again in undisputed possession of buffaloes and red men.

France, with little idea of the magnitude of her claim, once claimed the western region as far west as the Pacific Ocean, calling it the "Province of Louisiana," and in the same indefinite manner Spain set up ownership as far north as the southern boundary of Colorado. The history of this vast region, once known as the "Province of Louisiana," then as the "Territory of Louisiana," and last as the "Louisiana Purchase," began shortly after the death of Christopher Columbus.

There are few events in the history of American progress so important as the purchase of Louisiana, although Thomas Jefferson said of the territory involved: "It is a barren sand, individuals will not buy. We gain nothing but peace."

After many history-making years as the Louisiana Purchase, the vast area was split into twelve states and one territory, Colorado falling heir in this way to two-fifths of her territory. At the close of the Mexican War, another large tract of country, consisting of the broad acres south of the Arkansas River, which, up to that time, had been claimed by Texas, was turned over to Colorado: but the greater part of Colorado's territory was ceded to the United States by Mexico at the close of the war of 1846-48.

Following the purchase of Louisiana, our government, decid-

ing to investigate its new possessions, sent out an expedition of twenty-three men, under Lieutenant Zebulon Pike, to explore the region, and it was in 1806 that he caught his first glimpse of the towering peak that bears his name today. Resting under the sun of a November day, the Rocky Mountains seemed to that little band of hungry, weary men "Blue Mountains" indeed, and so they named them. The great peak, rearing its head so high in the clouds, was pronounced quite "inaccessible" by the explorers—one of the Almighty's "no thoroughfares." But that was a hundred years ago. Thousands have since wended their way to its summit, and but a few years ago a centennial celebration was held in honor of the intrepid explorer, Zebulon Pike, who with his little detachment, was said to have been the first white visitor to the territory over which he traveled.

For many years after Zebulon Pike first saw the peak which bears his name, it was called "James Peak;" the name being given it in 1820 and continued until 1849—the year of the rush to the California gold fields. Then the pioneers, who had never liked the name, declared it should be "Pike's Peak;" and Pike's Peak it has since been, and will so carry the name of the great explorer down the stream of time. It was Zebulon Pike who first broke ground for a settlement where Pueblo now stands, raising there, for the first time on Colorado soil, the American flag. It was Zebulon Pike who first looked down from Music Pass upon the San Luis valley, calling it a "terrestrial paradise" shut in from the sight of man; and it was Zebulon Pike who said of our plains that they might in time "become as celebrated as the deserts of Africa"

Thirteen years later, in 1819, a second expedition was sent out by our government under Major Stephen H. Long of the United States army. After much toilsome travel, this expedition struck the South Platte early in the year of 1820, and, footsore and weary, followed westward until in sight of a mountain range, where they halted, camped and named the highest peak in sight for their leader, Major Long.

John C. Fremont made a visit to what is now Colorado in 1843, reaching Fort St. Vrain on Independence Day. He made his third trip in 1845. At that time he came to explore and learn if a railroad could be built through the Rocky Mountains, such an enterprise being under serious consideration. Fremont's campacalled "Camp Starvation," was situated near Wagon Wheel Gapand the first federal military post on Colorado soil was located

at Fort Massachusetts, on Ute Creek, just at the western base of the Sangre de Cristo Mountains in 1852. Captain John W. Gunnison, who gave up his life in the exploration of the West, entered Colorado in 1853.

In our histories these early explorers are given credit to an extent that is hardly fair; for the great, impenetrable West was known to many trappers and other white men before the time of Fremont, Pike or Long. But it was the gold discovery, with its hope of speedy wealth, that drove thousands across the dreary ocean of dust and into the solitude of our mountains—some to reach the promised land of plenty, others to die of "hope deferred."

In 1821 the embargo upon trade with Mexico was lifted, and the old Santa Fe Trail, which for years had been only a trace across the desert, over which pack trains traveled, became a busy highway of commerce. Three years later the first wheels cut ruts in the Old Trail that threatened the lonely desert, and with the close of the Mexican War the old highway was thrown open to an enormous pilgrimage, and hundreds of white-topped wagous crept ceaselessly back and forth. On the original trail, leading through the Taos valley, Pueblo was located.

The old coaches and the men who handled the "ribbons" are gone these many years, but the Daughters of the American Revolution of Kansas, Colorado and New Mexico have marked with granite slabs the old trail that in the early day made possible the "commerce of the prairies."

The first party of men to reach the vicinity of Cherry Creek is said to have been a party of nine sturdy sons of Georgia. They arrived with the spring of 1858, but close upon their heels came a second party, who chose a camp near what is Pueblo today. They set up their camp of twenty or thirty cabins, and promptly christened it "Montana City." Settlements began to spring up in many places at this time, and soon after the establishment of "Montana City" a settlement was formed near the present site of Boulder, and in September the first permanent settlers arrived at what is now called Denver, though at that time it was St. Charles, Arapahoe County, Kansas Territory. St. Charles was situated upon the east side of Cherry Creek, in what is now East Denver, and at once on the west side of the creek a rival camp sprang up. The new settlement boasted one hundred incorporators, and there was fierce rivalry between the two camps, the West side camp, which was called Auraria City, usually being in

the lead. The boom of St. Charles blew away one gusty November day, but the abandoned site was soon taken possession of by General William Larimer and a party of forty, who organized the Denver Town Company, ignored the old name of St. Charles, and christened the new town Denver, in honor of James W. Denver, then governor of Kansas.

At this time the Territory of Kansas, to which Colorado was attached, extended as far west as the Rocky Mountain range, and the entire district was known as "the Pike's Peak region." Adventurers were flocking in from every quarter of the globe to take up a residence upon one or the other side of Cherry Creek, in order to prospect the adjoining country, and from that early day to the present time Denver has been the point of arrival and departure for the multitudes that have followed.

The panic of 1857 left many men facing poverty. In the East was the spirit of unrest born of such a financial upheaval, and it was natural that new fields should be sought. The reports of gold discoveries in Colorado spreading, a continuous stream of humanity traveled westward from the Missouri River, the hope of a golden reward leading them to face the terrors of savage foes. And so the march of progress, that gave "the Domain of Gold to the World," began.

These early pathbreakers were made of stuff that could suffer hardship unflinchingly, and few less desirable followed in their wake. Fifty thousand men are said to have journeyed to the land of gold at that time. It was, in that day, "Pike's Peak or bust," and, as has been said, the fact that the one hundredth anniversary of the discovery of Pike's Peak has been celebrated proves that many reached their destination without "busting."

The first election held in Colorado was November 6, 1858. There were less than two hundred voters in all the broad expanse of country, and some were citizens by only a few weeks' residence; but upon the founding of Arapahoe County political enthusiasm began.

There was not a large amount of formality at that first election, and the election judges were not obliged to sit long after the sun went down to count the ballots, as there were but thirteen ballots east and but one precinct. No doubt, however, caucuses were held and a vigorous fight made at Colorado's first election. The result was that H. J. Graham was elected delegate to Congress, and A. J. Smith representative to the Kansas legislature. Two days after the election was held, Mr. Graham was on his way to

Washington to urge that a new territory, to be called "Jefferson Territory," be formed; but Congress failed to take Mr. Graham very seriously, and he was not successful. Smith was more so. and succeeded in having Arapahoe County officially established by the Kansas legislature, the new county including the entire region extending to the western limit of Kansas. When the Thirty-sixth Congress met in 1860, Arapahoe County was not popular, and the self-constituted "Territory of Jefferson," of which Robert W. Steele was governor, was in a dying condition. The delegate to Congress—Williams by name—was leading a strenuous life endeavoring to be recognized as such, and the edict had gone forth from his constituents that a new territory must be formed, "the home-made territory," as Historian Smiley has styled it, being little better than no government, and the jurisdiction of Kansas more a theory than a fact. A bill was presented to Congress setting forth the situation; but feeling ran high at the time between North and South, and rather than constitute a new territory pledged for or against slavery, all such bills were tabled. Nothing daunted, Delegate Williams, with several representatives from Colorado, was on hand at the opening of the following session to renew the battle; and upon February 1, 1861, the Senate called up the bill organizing the "Territory of Idaho," which was the name decided upon. After several minor amendments, one at the request of Delegate Williams, striking out the word "Idaho" and substituting the Spanish word "Colorado," the name suggested by Governor Gilpin, the bill passed the Senate. There was an effort made to reconsider, as there had been no declaration upon the slavery question, but the motion was lost, and on February 9th the bill passed the House. February 28, 1861, President Buchanan signed the bill that created Colorado Territory. The bill went through easily at last. Any number of territories as far away might have been constituted during that tragic session, for senators and representatives alike were looking with tense faces and tenser nerves at the nearer problem that threatened the Union, and were hearing the sound of guns. The smoke of battle was upon them, and no man could foretell the end.

The different names proposed for the Territory of Colorado were Idaho, Montana, San Juan, Columbus, Lulu, Lafayette and Jefferson.

The good news that the bill had passed and become a law was six days in reaching Colorado, and was not generally known until March 4th. Colorado Territory was created in the last days of

the Buchanan administration, but President Lincoln made the first territorial appointments, and on March 22nd he sent to the Senate for confirmation the name of William Gilpin, of Missouri, for governor; Lewis L. Weld, of Colorado, for secretary; William L. Stoughton, of Illinois, for attorney general; Francis M. Chase, of Ohio, for surveyor general; Copeland Townsend, of Colorado, for marshal, and B. F. Hall and S. F. Pettis for the Supreme Court.

The joy over the new territory soon dimmed, and Denver became the central point for the wrangling of territorial politics, and territorial mis-government was soon found to be an intolerable burden, which, however, was borne for fifteen years. In that time there were eight administrations, two being under Governor McCook.

Governor John Evans, one of the great captains of civil life, was the second territorial governor, and Alexander Cummings, who gave an illustration of territorial politics, and of whom there is little good to be chronicled, followed him as the third governor. Then followed A. C. Hunt, Edward McCook, Samuel Elbert, McCook for his second term, and John L. Routt.

The second term of McCook was so offensive to the people that it was largely instrumental in determining them to throw off the territorial yoke, and John L. Routt took office with the clear understanding at Washington that statehood was to be obtained as quickly as possible.

During the lifetime of Colorado Territory five delegates were sent to Congress, Senator T. M. Patterson being the last to serve in that capacity, his second election being for the regular term of member of Congress. The first territorial legislature consisted of nine members of the Council and thirteen members—for they were not superstitious—in the House.

For a time the location of the territorial capital was uncertain, there being three different locations in seven years. These were Denver, Colorado City, and Golden. Colorado City was decided upon as the first capital November 5, 1861, but it took only four days to change the minds of the locators, and the capital was transferred to Golden for the following session, and not until 1867 was it moved to Denver. In 1874 the legislature came near making Pueblo the seat of territorial government, such a bill passing the House. In the midst of unrest and dissatisfaction with the existing government, a State Constitution Convention was called October. 1875, and by March of the following year had completed its work.

It was voted upon July 1, 1876, and carried by an overwhelming majority, the vote in Denver alone being 5,591 to 37; and on August 1st came General Grant's proclamation declaring Colorado a state of the Union.

In this brief space it is impossible to speak of the many history-making details, or of the splendid heroism of the early pioneers who made it possible for this state to witness the most magnificent development of civilization and human progress that the world has ever known.

There was a time when Colorado was just a vague spot upon the United States map; when bounding it was like bounding a foreign land. Today the very name of Colorado, the world over, stands for splendid energy and progress. For this we must thank the men and women who triumphed over every obstacle; who made the desert "to blossom like the rose." And high on the honor roll of Colorado are the name of William Gilpin and John Evans, men of ability, lofty purpose and great integrity; Jerome B. Chaffee, George M. Chilcott, John L. Routt, William N. Byers, who established the Rocky Mountain News in 1859; John M. Chivington, Jacob Downing, Bela Hughes, E. O. Wolcott, James B. Grant, the first Democratic governor of Colorado; D. H. Moffat, N. P. Hill, James B. Belford, H. A. Tabor, Amos Steck and Rev. Father Machebeuf, who dared the hardship and peril of frontier life in order that his people might have the consolation of their religion. There are still in Colorado at this time men who lived through the years that lie between, and whose names will be added to the honor roll in days to come.

Physical Characteristics of Colorado.—Situation, size, surface, altitude, soil, minerals, climate.

The Louisiana Purchase.

Land ceded Colorado at close of Mexican war.

Land ceded by Mexico in 1846-48.

Early Inhabitants.—Cliff-dwellers (see page 158).

Indians.

Previous to the occupation of Colorado by the whites, the Arapahoe and Cheyenne Indians held undisputed sway over the plains country.

The Utes and Kiowas occupied the mountains.

Wandering Utes still live in southwestern Colorado.

The old Ute Reservation was closed, and the Southern Ute, were removed to the Uinta Reservation, Utah, April 26, 1892.

The Southern Ute Agency is located at Ignacio.

The Southern Ute Indian Boarding School is maintained at Ignacio, with a capacity of fifty pupils.

The Allen Day School, also located at Ignacio, has a capacity of thirty pupils.

The school census of this tribe shows 113 pupils of school age.

In 1911 there were fifty-six pupils enrolled in the Boarding School, and twenty-three in the Allen Day School.

There is but one military fort in Colorado. It is located near Denver, and is called Fort Logan.

There are approximately 200 Indian children of school age in the state.

The last report of the Indian superintendent, June 30, 1911, gives 841 Indians now in Colorado.

WILD ANIMALS OF MOUNTAIN AND PLAIN.—Buffaloes in enormous numbers wantonly slaughtered and now practically extinct. The extinction of the buffalo was accomplished between 1860 and 1875.

Beavers, mountain lions, antelopes, wild horses, wolves, prairie dogs, elk, deer, mountain sheep.

FUR-TRADERS AND TRAPPERS.—James Purcell, an Indian trader, was, without doubt, the first white fur-trader in Colorado. The summer of 1803 found him on the South Platte.

Pike said of him: "He was the first American to penetrate the wilds of Louisiana."

Baptiste Le Grande was trapping in the state in 1804.

Nineteen fur-traders were doing business near Pueblo in 1811, and in 1812 a party of five Americans were trapping and exploring.

In 1814 a party of fur-traders from St. Louis visited Colorado to collect furs.

In the summer of 1815 August Pierre Chouteau and Jules de Munn formed a partnership for trading in the far West, and set out for Colorado the following month.

The present location of Pueblo was a popular resort for furtraders in the early day.

The first families, consisting of men, women and children, in Colorado were found near Pueblo in the summer of 1846, a party of Mormons having settled there. The first child said to have been born in the state was born there.

TRADING-POSTS.—A small trading-post was built by Missouri traders on the upper Arkansas, not far from Pueblo, in 1822.

William W. Robert and George Bent, of St. Louis, built a trading-post on the north bank of the Arkansas in 1826.

In 1832 a trading-post was established on the upper Arkansas. Several were established between 1830 and 1845.

A French trader erected a trading-post at the junction of Adobe Creek and the Arkansas in Fremont County, in 1830.

On the western slope there was one log-built trading-post. It was located near what is now Delta. It was built by Antoine Roubidia, a Frenchman who roamed the western slope as early as 1825.

Fur-trading was in its prime in 1840.

William Bent was the last trader to maintain a post in Colorado.

The fur-traders and early explorers play an important part in the early history of Colorado, but they came and went with no thought of home-making.

Period of Exploration.—Spanish exploration.

French exploration.

#### Colorado History, Beginning with the Rocky Mountain Expedition of Captain Pike in 1806-1807

Exploration of Pike, Long, Fremont, Gunnison.

FRONTIER FORTS.—Gault and Blackwell built a fort near Fountain Creek, October, 1842. This was succeeded by "Pueblo," ruins of which were found when the city of Pueblo was founded.

Fremont passed this fort in 1845.

A walled station or fort was built on the Arkansas, near the mouth of Hardscrabble Creek, some five miles north of Florence, in 1842.

Bent and St. Vrain constructed a trading-post and fort in Otero County in 1826, but later moved down the river and built the adobe fort called "Fort Williams." The name was later changed to "Fort Bent." This was the largest and most important

fort in the Rocky Mountain region. It continued as a fort and trading-post until the autumn of 1852, when Bent, its owner, about to move to another location, tired of the negotiations he had been carrying on with the government for its transfer to them as a permanent fort, mined it with gunpowder and blew it to wreckage. The new Fort Bent, built by William Bent in Prowers County, was sold to the United States in 1859 and renamed "Fort Wise." Later it became "Fort Lyon."

Fort Lancaster was established in 1835. Later the name was changed to "Fort Lupton."

The largest and most important trading-post and fort on the South Platte was Fort St. Vrain. This fort was only second to Bent and Fort Laramie. It was built in 1838 by the Bent brothers and Cerau St. Vrain, for whom it was named.

MILITARY FORTS.—Fort Massachusetts, a federal military fort, was established in Colorado in 1852. It was located near the western base of the Sangre de Cristo range, in what is now Costilla County. This fort was abandoned in 1858, and the garrison moved to Fort Garland, where the village of Fort Garland now stands.

Fort Collins, Fort Sedgwick, Fort Morgan, Camp Weld, Fort Lyon, now the naval sanitarium, were the forts of the early day.

THE RUSH TO THE PIKE'S PEAK REGION.—Occasioned by the discovery of gold in California, and the financial depression of the panic of 1857.

FIRST DISCOVERY OF GOLD.—Trappers and hunters were the first to find gold in the sandy creek beds.

Cherokees from Indian Territory prospected Cherry Creek and the Poudre in 1850, finding quartz bearing gold.

William G. Russell and a party of thirty men, who were prospecting in 1858, were joined by eight Georgians. Later this party was joined by a party of Jayhawkers, the united company numbering one hundred and more persons. The Georgians prospected the "Pike's Peak Country," Cherry Creek, the Platte and Poudrebut failed to find gold in paying quantities.

This band of gold-seekers dwindled until only thirteen were left, but they continued to prospect the tributaries of the Platte, making a rich strike in Dry Creek, a mile or two south of Denverand soon succeeded in washing out several hundred dollars in gold.

This was the first important gold discovery in the state.

FIRST DISCOVERY OF SILVER LODES.—Silver lodes were first found in Summit County. Float ore, rich in silver, was found in 1864 in the McClelland Mountain near Georgetown. High-grade silver ore was shipped to Germany in 1872.

EARLY GOLD SEEKERS.—A teamster, who had traveled with Captain R. B. Marcy's command, washed a small amount of gold from the sands at the intersection of the Platte and Cherry Creek, and on his return to St. Louis in 1858 started with his tales the rush of gold seekers from Missouri. Early in 1859 a party of men, on arriving in Omaha, created great excitement by displaying quills filled with gold from the "Pike's Peak Country."

News of Discoveries.—News of these gold discoveries spreading, and losing nothing in repeating, a thousand or more men made their way to the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains, during the summer of 1858, and a mining camp was established. With the coming of snow and frosty nights, tents gave way to cabins built of cottonwood logs. From this rude camp sprang Denver, "Queen City of the Plains."

THE PIKE'S PEAK COUNTRY.—In 1858 a party of men from Kansas camped for two months in the Garden of the Gods, prospecting with indifferent success. From that time historic Pike's Peak came to stand for the entire gold-bearing region.

GOLD-SEEKERS OF 1859.—This year witnessed a great rush of gold-seekers to Pike's Peak. Some of the travelers came on foot, so eager were they; some in ox-carts, some in stages, and some rode in prairie schooners behind mules or horses of their own.

The trip from Omaha to what is now Denver, the point of arrival and departure then as now, consumed from six to seven weeks, provided the traveler met with no bad luck.

At that time every traveler, every prairie schooner, headed for Pike's Peak, its snowy crest being the loadstone that lured them on.

It is estimated that fully a hundred thousand gold-seekers traveled the dusty plains with the "Pike's Peak Country" as their destination. Of this great number many perished of hunger and thirst, finding graves along the highway which was marked, in many places, by broken-down prairie schooners bearing the suggestive label, "Busted, by thunder;" for the ignorant hosts, dazzled by the thought of gold, made little provision for the long, hard journey, the like of which they had neither knowledge nor com-

prehension, nor for the many misfortunes destined to overtake them.

TRAILS AND ROADS.—The Arkansas, the Platte and the Smoky Hill were the principal routes to the land of gold.

"The Old Santa Fe Trail" was the great thoroughfare that opened up "the commerce of the prairies."

STAGE LINES, PONY EXPRESS AND EARLY RAILROADS.—In 1859 the Pike's Peak Express Company established a stage line between the Missouri River and the Rocky Mountains. This line later became the property of Wells, Fargo & Co.

A pony express was established in 1860.

In 1870 the Colorado Central Railway was built from Denver to Golden.

1871 the Denver & Rio Grande Railroad was built seventyfive miles southward from Denver, and the town of Colorado Springs was established at its terminus.

The same year this road was extended to Pueblo, El Moro and across the Sangre de Cristo range to San Luis Park.

The Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe reached Denver in 1876.

1877 the Denver & Rio Grande reached Alamosa, and a railroad was built to Georgetown.

1878 Central City was reached by a railroad, also Silver Cliff, and the South Park was built to Morrison.

Denver was connected with the Union Pacific in 1870 by the Denver Pacific Railroad.

The same year the Kansas Pacific reached Denver.

Danger from Indians.—While not in actual danger from Indians, travelers to the great West in the early day lived in constant dread of them. They were the "bandits of the plains," always lying in wait to steal oxen or horses, leaving the travelers to continue their journey as best they could.

The more serious trouble with the Indians came with the Civil War, when the United States troops were withdrawn from the frontier.

THE RUSH TO THE "PIKE'S PEAK COUNTRY."—Lasted two years. It was then followed by an eastern stampede, and thousands returned to their homes during the summer and autumn of 1859, sadder, if not wiser, men.

"The fifty-niners" who remained, pioneering in a new land, the foundation of Colorado's greatness.

FIRST TOWNS IN THE STATE.—In 1858 a thriving village called "Auraria City" sprang up on the west side of Cherry Creek, while another called "St. Charles," was laid out on the east side of Cherry Creek. Shortly after a party of men from Leavenworth, Kansas, arrived and, liking the location of the proposed St. Charles, began to build the town that existed only on paper. St. Charles was discarded as a name, and Denver, destined to become the metropolis of the Rocky Mountain states, sprang into being.

For a time great rivalry existed between the towns on either side of Cherry Creek, Auraria leading, but one by one the business men crossed, casting their fortunes with Denver, which became an important city. Auraria also grew, and during 1858 the white inhabitants of Colorado increased from bare hundreds to upwards of twenty thousand.

Boulder and Fountain City were also founded in 1858.

Golden followed in 1859.

In Clear Creek County the leading town was Idaho.

In Gilpin County there was an important group, including Black Hawk, Mountain City, Central, Missouri City and Nevada, later Nevadaville.

Pueblo was settled temporarily in 1846. In 1850 a tradingpost was established there. The present city was laid out in 1859, and was chartered in 1873.

Colorado Springs was founded in 1871.

Canon was a town of importance in 1860.

In 1872-73 attention was drawn to the San Juan region, and Silverton, Lake City and Ouray sprang up.

The populous city of Leadville was established in 1874.

In the summer of 1859 Fairplay and Jefferson were established.

FIRST NEWSPAPER.—William N. Byers came to the state in 1859. He then predicted that Denver would become a city of a hundred thousand, and be a railroad center between the Atlantic and Pacific.

He established the first newspaper in Colorado, calling it the Rocky Mountain News. The first number appeared April 23, 1859, two days after his arrival.

On the same day the first and only edition of the Cherry Creek Pioneer appeared.

The early files of the *Rocky Mountain News* are to be found in the State Historical Department, having been presented the state—a priceless gift—by Mr. Byers.

First Lumber Brought to Colorado.—It was brought to Denver in April, 1859.

FIRST STAGE-COACH.—It reached the frontier town of Denver May 7, 1859.

VISIT OF HORACE GREELEY.—His visit was in 1859. He was accompanied by other newspaper men of the East. With his own hands he turned up a shovel of earth and washed a trace of gold from it. That particular bit of earth, so the story goes, had been first treated to a shot of gold by an enterprising miner.

Horace Greeley came at a time of great depression. His confidence in the future of Colorado did much to restore the failing confidence of the people, and many who intended returning to their former homes remained.

DISTINGUISHED GUESTS.—Other distinguished guests who came to Colorado in the very early days were: Louis Agassiz; Henry M. Stanley, the great African explorer, who visited Colorado in 1867; William H. Seward; the grand duke Alexis; Generals Grant and Sherman, and Albert Bierstadt, who painted his great canvas, "Storm in the Rocky Mountains," as a result of his visit.

FIRST School.—Before Denver was a year old a school was established by a professor hailing from St. Louis. He made his first appearance in a high silk hat driving an ox-cart.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM.—It was established in 1861.

STATE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.—By territorial enactment provision was made for a School of Mines at Golden in 1870; for a Deaf-Mute Institute at Colorado Springs at a later date; and for a State University at Boulder, and an Agricultural College at Fort Collins, in 1874-76.

The State University opened in 1877, and the same year the buildings of the Agricultural College were ready for use.

In 1876 the territorial legislature passed a bill for a school law, modeled after the systems of the East.

Consolidation of Denver and Auraria.—This consolidation occurred in April, 1860, the citizens meeting on the Larimer bridge to ratify the bond. Auraria became, by this act, West Denver.

The Boom of 1860.—The Pike's Peak mining region experienced another boom in 1860, and prairie schooners crept across the plains in an almost unbroken line. The newcomers scattered in all directions. New discoveries were made and new camps were established, Denver becoming the supply point for Colorado City, Boulder, Golden, Central City, Georgetown, Breckenridge, Idaho Springs and other places.

FIRST TELEGRAPH LINE.—The first telegraph line entered Colorado in January of 1862.

BOARD OF TRADE.—Denver organized a board of trade in 1867.

MINING, SMELTING AND THE OUTPUT OF GOLD.—In 1859 the universal medium of exchange was gold dust. Paper money was rarely seen.

The gold produced in 1860 amounted to more than two million dollars.

The total yield from the beginning of 1871 to 1879 was \$45,556,124.57.

The first really great gold discovery was made by J. H. Gregory at the present site of Central and Black Hawk. This mine, named for Gregory, yielded more than any other Colorado fissure.

Primitive stamp mills were established in Gilpin County in 1859.

Colorado smelting works were established at Black Hawk in 1867-68. It was an epoch-making event.

The Boston & Colorado Smelting Works established their first workings at Argo in 1878.

The establishment of smelters in 1868 renewed mining interest, and set Colorado once more on the road to prosperity.

THE FIRST MINT.—A coining and assay department was added to a Denver bank in 1860. It was purchased by the government in 1862.

The location of a branch of the United States Mint followed.

The present United States Mint was completed in 1904, and coinage was begun in 1905.

OTHER MINERAL RESOURCES.—Colorado has other mineral resources of untold value.

Colorado stands fifth in rank as a coal-producing state.

Colorado is rich in lava stone, sandstone, granite and marble.

First Agriculture.—Mexicans who located in Fremont County in 1830 began to till the soil in a small way.

1847 good crops of wheat, corn, beans and pumpkins were raised near Pueblo by a mixed people then living in that region.

The year 1870 was marked by the coming of the advance guard of "the Union Colony" and the founding of Greeley. These colonists found the locality adapted to farming.

As early as 1867-69 ditching and the conservation of water were begun.

At an early day companies were engaged in farming in the counties of Arapahoe, Weld, Larimer, Jefferson, El Paso, Fremont and Las Animas, and in stock in Elbert, Bent, Pueblo, Huerfano and Boulder.

PLACER MINING.—Ended in most of the diggings in 1863.

EFFECT OF THE CIVIL WAR.—During the four years of the Civil War there was little emigration to the West. The growth of Colorado came to a standstill.

In 1864 Indian warfare almost cut Colorado off from the

Home Government.—Its need was early felt, and a constitutional convention was held in Denver August 9, 1859. In November, by a majority vote, a new territory, called "Jefferson," was organized. The territory embraced was much larger than the Colorado of today, taking in territory from Nebraska, Wyoming and Utah.

TERRITORIAL PERIOD.—February 26, 1861, the Territory of Colorado was organized by act of Congress, with the boundaries of the present state. The census at that time was 25,329—4,484 being women. By this act the Territory of Jefferson came to an end.

William Gilpin became the first governor of the territory. He was appointed by President Lincoln.

He reached Denver May 20th.

The new territory consisted of thirteen counties, and had a nopulation of 25,331.

Its capital was Denver.

The territorial legislature met in Denver September 9th.

TERRITORY PLUNGED INTO CONFLICT.—Pro-slavery, anti-slavery.
Strong element in sympathy with Confederate army.

Number of Union men leave territory to return to states and

Governor Gilpin raised regiment, equipping men as best he could.

First service of this Colorado regiment was the breaking-up of a band of secessionists led by a Texan.

Friction due to an attempt to establish a "Western Confederacy."

Services of Colorado cavalry.

Indian uprisings.

The Sand Creek fight.

Opening of hostility by Sioux in 1862.

Battle on Smoky Hill.

Territorial militia, with Henry M. Teller as major-general in command, ordered out.

Call issued for volunteers.

Message of Governor Evans to friendly Indians.

Governor Evans' appeal to Washington.

Council at Camp Weld, September 28th.

Battle of Beecher Island.

The Peace Commission.

The Fetterman Massacre.

General Phil Sheridan takes command in 1868.

With the surrender of Lee at Appomattox ended the struggle between the North and South, and there were soldiers to fight the redskins; but, according to Byers, the period between 1864 and 1868 was the darkest in the history of the territory.

Administration of Governor Gilpin. Other territorial offices.

Election of delegates to Congress.

Capitals of the territory.

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Burden of territorial government borne for fifteen years, and during eight administrations.

The frequent changes in executive officers gave evidence of the unsatisfactory character of the territorial government.

Names Proposed for the Territory.—Arapahoe, Idaho, Lula, Montana, Nemara, San Juan, Tampa, Wapola, Tanosa, Lafayette, Colona, Columbus, Franklin.

The original Senate bill carried the name "Idaho."

Governor Gilpin gave to the new territory the name "Colorado."

There were but two Colorado men among the first territorial officers.

TERRITORIAL LEGISLATURE.—Five delegates were sent to Congress during the life of the territory.

The first territorial legislature was composed of nine members in the Council and thirteen members in the House.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS OF COLORADO: William Gilpin, 1861-62.
John Evans, 1862-65.
Alexander Cummings, 1865-67.
A. Cameron Hunt, 1867-69.
Edward McCook, 1869-73.
Samuel E. Elbert, 1873-74.
Edward McCook, 1874-75.
John L. Routt, 1875-76.

CLOSE OF TERRITORIAL ERA.—Territorial intrigue and recrimination reached a climax in 1874, when the legislature proposed making Pueblo the seat of territorial government. By untiring effort the bill was defeated.

Soon after came the removal of Governor Elbert and his fellow officers, and the reappointment of McCook as his successor. This act displeased the people more than anything that had been done under the territorial form of government, and, though his appointment was confirmed in June of 1874, McCook was obliged to give way to John L. Routt, February, 1875.

The appointment of Governor Routt was accompanied by an understanding at Washington that territorial misgovernment was to end, and that the first step in an immediate movement for statehood had been taken.

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A state constitutional convention was called for October, 1875. The work was completed by March of the following year and voted upon July 1, 1876. It carried by an overwhelming majority.

Colorado was proclaimed a state by proclamation of President Grant, August 1, 1876.

THE CENTENNIAL STATE.—The last territorial legislature voted \$10,000 for the purpose of having Colorado represented at the World's Exposition held in Philadelphia in 1876.

At that exposition Colorado took her place as the thirty-eighth state. Colorado was called "The Centennial State" because admitted in the year that was the one hundredth anniversary of the signing of the Declaration of Independence.

Statehood.—Politicians began to agitate the statehood question as early as 1863.

Colorado admitted to Union as a state, August 1, 1876.

John L. Routt, the last territorial governor, was the first state governor.

The constitution in its general provisions is similar to the organic laws of the states admitted to the Union since the Civil War.

The Bill of Rights is broad and comprehensive, a declaration of the principles of justice and liberty.

EQUAL RIGHTS.—From the beginning women were allowed a vote for school officers.

In 1893 women were admitted to full suffrage.

Capitol and State Seal.—The present state capitol building was occupied by the state executive officers in 1894, and by the state legislature in January, 1895.

The state retained the territorial seal, increasing its diameter to two and one-half inches, and substituting "State of Colorado, 1876," for the territorial legend.

### CIVICS

From the first day of their school life to the last day, the children learn lessons in civics, and it depends upon the teachers whether or not the knowledge gained is such as will aid in training for true citizenship. Before the pupils have been in school many weeks, they know that they have tasks to perform; that certain rights and privileges belong to them as long as they do not infring upon the rights and privileges of others, and that they must obey the teacher.

The capable teacher will present to the childish minds clear ideas of why obedience to authority, respect for the rights of others, and prompt performance of every duty are necessities in a well organized school. Teach idea of leadership and service through games and plays; rights and privileges of children on playgrounds.

Since the object of our schools is to train children to become intelligent, good citizens when grown up, an ideal of school citizenship should be developed.

When a pupil's desk is untidy, the floor under his seat littered with paper, bits of crayon, mud from his shoes, etc., and his desk attracts flies on account of crumbs from his luncheon, he should be told that, as a school citizen, it is his duty to make clean and tidy his desk and floor space, because said desk and floor space, when in such a condition, are a nuisance to the school community.

When a pupil insists on whispering, the teacher may point out to him that, by disturbing the peace of the school community and preventing the citizens from doing their work (getting their lessons), he is on a par with the man who walks along the village street annoying the people by shouting or by trying to draw other pedestrians into quarrels with him. Hence the right of the other pupils demand that the proper authority—the teacher—compel him to cease being disorderly, just as the town officer forces the noisy man to be quiet, or else takes him into custody.

The idea of teaching children to be good citizens should be carried into the games on the playground.

Good Citizens' Clubs may be organized as a means of teaching children to elect officers, conduct meetings, pass judgment upon the conduct of members disobeying the laws of the club, get up entertainments under the auspices of the club, and invite the parents to be present.

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If the teacher and the children once get the true spirit of citizenship, the government of the school is an easy matter.

In the fifth and sixth grades the child should realize that each political unit—precinct, city, county, state and nation—is a group of people organized in such a manner as to do for the members of each group that kind of work which all need to have done.

#### SEVENTH YEAR

In nine-month schools, begin the text-book early in the eighth month; in seven-month schools, early in the sixth month.

Before taking up the formal text, by correlation with history and geography, develop the following: meaning and necessity of laws; necessity of learning obedience to authority, as every person is under some kind of authority all his life; government of self, the first requisite to governing others.

Eighth Month. Use current political events constantly.

Kinds of Government.—Patriarchal or parental, monarchical, aristocratic, republican.

Parts of Government.—Legislative, executive, judicial. In which kinds of government are these three in one?

School District.—Directors elected when and by whom? Term of office, powers, duties, compensation. Powers and duties of teachers. How expenses of school are paid. General fund, special fund, and uses to which each may be applied. Compare family government and school government.

COUNTY GOVERNMENT.—Map your township, locating your home and your school house. How many townships in your county? What is the class of your county?

Make a study of the work done by the storekeeper, the baker, the policeman, the fireman, the street railway.

How mail is carried. The telegraph, the telephone.

Ninth Month. Have pupils know the names of their county officers. Name duties of these officers, length of term, salaries, manner of election, and duties.

Precincts, justices' courts, notaries public. Describe a trial in a justice's court, and explain the jurisdiction of said court.

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#### EIGHTH YEAR

(Two or three recitations per week are sufficient, if the study be kept up throughout the term; and, if not, the first four months, with a recitation each day, will complete the work.)

First Month. Town and City Government.—Officers, courts charters, different classes of cities, ordinances.

STATE GOVERNMENT.—Definition of state, state institution, citizen, elector, constitution.

Qualification of senators and representatives, terms, salaries, privileges, presiding officers. Special powers of House and of Senate.

Sessions of legislature held when and where? Length of time allowed to hold. Names of senator and representative from your district.

Second Month. EXECUTIVE OFFICERS.—Duties, length of term, salaries, names.

Veto power, pardoning power. Necessity of placing officers under bond. Officers appointed by the governor.

State boards and their duties.

State inspectors.

COLORADO NATIONAL GUARD.—How supported? Who is eligible to membership? Duties of members.

Third Month. Declaration of Independence.

ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION.—Weak points, showing necessity for making a constitution creating the three departments of government.

Preamble to the Constitution. Explain meaning fully. How constitution may be amended.

Fourth Month. Bill of Rights.—The constitution a compromise between the large states and the small ones.

LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT.—Qualifications of senators and representatives. Manner of election, length of term, special privileges; how vacancies in either house are filled; number of representatives how determined; powers and forbidden powers; special powers of the Senate; special powers of the House.

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Fifth Month. Officers of House and Senate.—Appointment of committees; power of speaker; speaker's right to vote; president of the Senate and his right to vote.

How a bill becomes a law.

Length of sessions.

Impeachment.

If the state legislature is in session, have children know names and something of the life and work of the governor, lieutenant governor, speaker of the house, members from their own section of the county. Create such interest that the part of the newspaper giving the workings of the legislature will be of interest to the pupils. Teach the great opportunity that members of the legislature have for helping their state. Lead them to see that it is each boy's and girl's duty to vote when he is old enough, and that one reason why they are studying civics is to prepare them to vote intelligently. Instill the fact that it is cowardly not to vote.

Eighth Month. Judicial Department.—Supreme Court, how constituted; its jurisdiction; session held when and where; chief justice, associate justices; salary and tenure of office of judges. Circuit court, district court, court of appeals, court of claims, territorial courts. Court officers. Appeals from lower to higher courts.

Ninth Month. Comparison of our government with those of foreign countries. General review and careful comparison of moral, social, political and industrial rights.

## AN OUTLINE COURSE IN CITIZENSHIP

U. S. Department of Labor,
Bureau of Naturalization.

To Superintendents of Schools and Others Concerned:

The Bureau of Naturalization transmits herewith an outline of a course in citizenship, which is designed for use in the education of aliens to prepare them for citizenship.

While this course in citizenship is prepared for the use of aliens who have indicated their purpose to seek American citizenship, and since the functions of the bureau with respect to aliens begin at the time they indicate such purpose, it is nevertheless equally useful in preparing all aliens in such an intelligent comprehension of the principles of our Government as will give on the one hand some assurance of their good behavior while in the state of resident aliens, and on the other hand will enable them at any time thereafter to acquire citizenship with a due understanding of the significance of such step. Furthermore, it is no less useful in the training of native-born citizens, who, upon reaching their majority, and without exertion on their part, will be clothed with all the rights of American citizenship. Its use, however, otherwise than in the education of the aliens who have signified a purpose to apply for naturalization, is a matter that is outside of the authority of the Bureau of Naturalization.

The Bureau of Naturalization is the only federal bureau which, by express provision of law, is given administrative authority over "all matters concerning the naturalization of aliens." The matter most intimately concerning the naturalization of aliens is such an understanding of the principles of the Constitution as to make credible the declaration that he is "attached" to those principles; for unless a court is satisfied in the case of any applicant by affirmative evidence that he is so attached, that court has no authority to naturalize such alien. It is to insure the possession of this qualification by the only known means, to-wit, that of appropriate training, that the Bureau of Naturalization, realizing its responsibility, has prepared this outline of a course for instruction. Since it is given, in the language above quoted, an express authority upon this point, and therefore an express duty which excludes any other agency of

the Government from such specific undertaking where such other agency has a general authority over the subject of education, the bureau has adopted this procedure.

In every other vocation or calling of life great effort has been put forth to insure a complete mastery of its details. This is true of every profession, trade, occupation or calling, save that highest of all professions—the profession of self-government. You, and the schools under your supervision, are in co-operation with the National Government, through the Bureau of Naturalization, in a systematic effort for the education in civic duties of the coming citizen. The co-operation is only partially complete. You are receiving the names and addresses of the candidates for naturalization, but there has been no course prescribed for their instruction.

The candidates have come to school with the statement that they have come because the United States Government wrote them letters and asked them to come. They will come all the more readily and give more thoughtful attention to the studies when they understand that the United States Government, through the same bureau which invited them to go to school, has sent to them a course of instruction. They will be further stimulated in their application to their studies and in their efforts toward proficiency when you tell them, through the teachers, that the United States Government, through the Bureau of Naturalization, will present a certificate of graduation to each student, man or woman, who attains proficiency in this course—both in English and in civics, including domestic arts and science—upon a satisfactory report of the appropriate United States naturalization examiner, who is the field representative of the Bureau of Naturalization. This examination will be made at the time the foreign-born resident files his petition for naturalization at the completion of this course of studies.

Very truly yours,

RICHD. K. CAMPBELL,

Commissioner of Naturalization.

AN OUTLINE COURSE IN CITIZENSHIP TO BE USED IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS FOR THE INSTRUCTION OF THE FOREIGN AND NATIVE BORN CANDIDATES FOR ADULT CITIZENSHIP RESPONSIBILITIES, PREPARED BY RAYMOND F. CRIST, DEPUTY COMMISSIONER OF NATURALIZATION.

This course is offered with the understanding that in many respects it is imperfect. It is in part a compilation of practices which have been in use for some years in various public schools. This course presents the mature conclusions of the National Government, as represented by the Bureau of Naturalization, after a study of over a decade of the existing relations of the Government with the resident foreign body. A new relationship must be established. It should be based upon intelligent mutual understanding and knowledge of the respective hopes and aims of the resident alien and of the Government. Restriction and repression, entirely out of all proportion to their importance, have been in evidence. The purpose of this outline is to lead to the establishment in the curriculum in each of the public schools throughout the entire country of a course in citizenship training applicable to the candidate for adult-citizenship honors, privileges and responsibilities, from whatever origin he may come. It is a recognition of citizenship and an emphasis of the mutual helpfulness, assistance and aid inherent in this National Government rather than of restrictive and repressive forces of government.

This course is submitted in response to the demands upon the Bureau of Naturalization to prepare a standard course in citizenship. These calls have been presented to the Bureau of Naturalization by public school authorities, chambers of commerce and by patriotic, labor, fraternal, industrial, commercial and other organizations from many parts of the country. It is issued by the Bureau of Naturalization in conformity with the authority conferred upon it by the United States Congress by the act of June 29, 1906, as amended, which provides that "the Bureau of Naturalization shall have charge of all matters concerning the naturalization of aliens." Of paramount concern in the naturalization of aliens is their better equipment to supply their daily needs and for the assumption, with intelligence, of the sovereign rights, privileges and prerogatives which attach to the high estate of American citizenship. In no

vocation open to manhood or womanhood is the calling as high as that of self-government. In every other calling the highest development of specialized training has been attained that intelligent effort can accomplish. The didactic and laboratory elements of instruction are mandatory for any vocation. In the graded schools, business, manual, domestic arts and science training supplement the three rudiments of education. This is the laboratory of the secondary schools. In the higher schools the laboratory is highly developed in applying the precepts of the rostrum in chemistry, physics, bookkeeping, stenography, banking, commercial life, carpentering, mechanical and electrical engineering, and other vocations. In the universities the laboratories again make possible the professions of engineering, theology, medicine, law, pharmacy, farming, stock raising, truck gardening, etc., but nowhere has there been a laboratory for practical training in the highest profession conceived by the mind of man—the profession of self-government. This outline presents for the first time to the public schools of the United States a course designed to establish a citizenship laboratory in each public school building. As this deals with citizenship, it properly comes from the National Government through the only federal bureau specifically authorized by the law to deal with the question of citizenship within the Nation.

Much of the success which will attend the adoption of this course will be dependent upon the spirit with which it is received and applied. The interest and enthusiasm of the teacher will in a large degree reflect the attitude of those in higher authority in school administration. It is urged, therefore, upon all to whom this course may come, including the boards of education, superintendents of schools, supervising and other principals, as well as teachers of the public schools, that it be received in the spirit in which it is submitted; to-wit, an earnest purpose for united cooperation between the public schools and the National Government for the solidarity of American citizenship-because of such features of value as it possesses notwithstanding the admitted presence of defects. All are urged, therefore, to become fully conversant with this outline, so that in its application to the student body it may be broadened in its scope and applied so as to arouse among them an enthusiastic response. By the loyal and faithful support of the public schools to the United States in this the first co-operative movement ever perfected for them and the National Government the value of this course will be increased, its weaknesses strengthened, and the undesirable portions eliminated.

branches of pedagogics owe their present perfectness to that same devoted intelligence to which this course is intrusted.

It is undesirable that instruction in any part of this course be given save through the medium of the English language. It should not be interpreted through a foreign tongue. It is intended to make possible a mastery of English speaking, reading and writing, and by gradual steps to lead into a realization of the full sense of the sacredness of the greatest rights of sovereignty which attach to the estate of American citizenship.

#### GENERAL CLASSIFICATION

The true basis for classification of adult foreign-born students is their educational development. Students should not be classified by nationality. A great deal has been expressed in favor of the classification of students by nationality and their instruction by one of their nativity by reason of the bond of sympathy of the common tongue. The inherent, fundamental weakness of this is shown by stating that such segregation means perpetuating the national groupings instead of merging them into one common American nationality. No greater bond is recognized than that of a common tongue. None has a stronger desire for the development of that bond than the non-English-speaking foreigner. No greater tie of sympathy can be found than that which grows up between the intelligent, patriotic, and devoted American schoolteacher and his foreign-born non-English-speaking students through the acquisition of our tongue. We do not need to import individuals to teach American institutions and instill American patriotism in the mind of the candidate for citizenship. Segregation imposes an unnecessary burden. The student has far more interest in learning what the teacher has to impart than what nationalities his fellow students represent.

The students should first be assembled regardless of sex or nationality, although the women may be separately taught where conditions admit. The classification should be (1) those who can not speak English, and (2) those who can speak English. A closer subdivision can later be resorted to if desirable. Those who can not speak English will be found unable to read or write in our language. Those who can speak English may or may not be able to read or write. Soon the necessity will arise for regrading—elementary, intermediate, and advanced. Upon this basis the following outline is submitted:

## THE ELEMENTARY GRADE

Knowledge, elementary.

Purpose, equip as quickly as possible with a practical working vocabulary.

Individual notebooks should be obtained immediately and copious use early required.

#### BRANCHES FOR STUDY

- 1 Conversation.
- 2. Reading.
- 3. Language forms and idioms.
- 4. Phonics.
- 5. Spelling.
- 6. Writing.
- 7. Memory Gems.
- 8. Simple number work.

## CONVERSATION

This should be conducted by the object and action method. Begin with the names of objects nearest at hand that may be seen and handled. The human form is the most ready of use. Write the names of the parts on the blackboard, as head, eye. Drill in pronouncing and identifying names with parts. Point and have the students point at parts. "This is my ........ That is your ......., his ......., her .......," etc.

When a vocabulary of nouns and verbs has thus been systematically built up, enabling the pupils to understand simple statements about objects in the schoolroom and in the building, gradually extend the vocabulary to the larger environment outside, being careful to confine such vocabulary to the field of simple daily experiences. New words, as rapidly as given, should be written on the blackboard and in notebooks, and from the beginning should be put into sentences.

#### READING

The conversation and blackboard work, as above suggested, naturally will carry over to reading from the printed page, charts, and text-books. The aim, of course, is to give command as quickly as possible of the printed page. Have the pupils each bring a copy of the same edition of some daily newspaper to the classroom to

read and to discuss the topics read. Let discussions be undertaken at the earliest moment. The subject matter of the printed page should also be used in conversation, in order to be sure that the students are comprehending the thought and not merely pronouncing the words. Biographies of foreign-born Americans of former days should be read and discussed to inspire the student to his maximum interest and effort.

## LANGUAGE FORMS AND IDIOMS

These should be carefully noted both in the conversation and in the reading and should be written upon the blackboard and in the notebooks. The students should be drilled on model forms of simple language, both in speaking and in writing, using blackboard and notebooks. Here the teacher should commence the mind training in the discriminative selection of healthful reading matter, beginning with the daily press or other simple subject matter. Discussion of the comparative values of the best newspapers and other articles with the worthless should follow under the guiding intelligence of the teacher. The teacher should assign topics to the students for discussion, laying the foundation for future debates upon public questions in the succeeding periods of study. The newspaper should be used constantly in language lessons. It is universal in subject matter and most inexpensive.

#### **PHONICS**

The analysis of words by sound can begin profitably much earlier in the teaching of the adult classes than with children. It is imperative that it be undertaken from the beginning and that upon such analytical work there be daily drill upon the sound values of both vowels and consonants. In teaching sound values there should be kept upon the blackboard a considerable list of words containing the particular letter whose sound is being taught. Excellent books on enunciation and articulation are available for the teacher. It is essential that the teacher articulate slowly and distinctly, especially all final consonants, whether at the end of syllables or of words. In learning to pronounce the English language it is vital that the correct relation of the letters to the words be learned at the beginning. To train the ear, the individual should repeat the word after the teacher until the ear catches the true sound and it is reproduced by the student. Every foreigner wishes to learn to speak English with the American accent.

#### SPELLING

The words chosen should be those used in conversation and in reading. Dictation should be freely used. The words taught should be carefully listed by each teacher and student. Emphasis should be placed upon words in common use. A list of such words as a measuring scale of ability in spelling, issued in 1914 by the Russell Sage Foundation, has been recommended. Spelling bees are used with excellent results.

#### WRITING

This can be taught from the blackboard, but should be supplemented by the use of leaflets showing penmanship forms to be furnished each student and used in home work. Startlingly rapid progress is made through the home practice work. In the elementary schools the principle of home work which is early applied in the training of the adolescent mind is no less applicable to the adult mind. Practical tests in writing dictation in language work and original composition should be practiced later.

#### MEMORY GEMS

These are of much value for pronunciation and for the acquisition of a vocabulary. They should be chosen with special reference to the building up of high ideals of character and of conduct in the minds of the students. Patriotic poems and songs should be learned, and the singing of "America," "Hail Columbia," etc., should occur at each session.

### SIMPLE NUMBER WORK

This should be given not for the teaching of arithmetic in itself merely, but for the teaching of the language of number to the advantage of the students in their daily experiences.

## THE INTERMEDIATE GRADE

The same general methods should be followed in this grade as in the elementary grade, selecting for instruction subjects of a more advanced nature.

#### CONVERSATION

The topics of conversation naturally will be chosen from the leading matter and from the daily experience of the students.

Conversation lessons are extremely important and should receive careful daily preparation on the part of the teacher. Periods of open conversation among the students on topics of common concern will be found to increase the interest of the class and produce the desired spirit of homogeneity and congeniality and lay the foundation for their American unification. Continue the use of the daily press, broaden the scope in American biographical studies, and at the same time require the students to read from the various readers.

#### READING

In this grade the pupils should read from the somewhat advanced readers that are prepared for teaching English. Geography and history, especially United States history, are of absorbing interest to the students. Patriotic poems should be read, studied, and the best of them memorized.

## LANGUAGE FORMS AND IDIOMS

In this grade emphasis should be laid as early as admissible upon the correct use of words and upon the inflections of nouns and pronouns, etc. Letter writing, consisting of simple business and social letters, will be found desirable along with reproduction exercises.

# PHONICS, SPELLING, AND WRITING

These subjects in advanced form should be presented as in the elementary grade.

#### MEMORY GEMS

These should be taught as in the previous grade, but with a broadened scope.

#### UNITED STATES HISTORY

The teaching of this should be based upon reading elementary histories of the United States. The teacher should cause discussions of various chapters of American history. This will develop the instinct for the further use of the schoolroom for discussions of public questions and will be aided by the assignments of students and topics. The students should be stimulated to select their own topics from each subject and full discussion of the selections obtained.

#### CIVICS

This chapter should be very generally presented by the teacher solely as preliminary to the course in citizenship for the advanced student, so as to enlarge the field of vision preparatory to full participation by the members of the student body in the activities of the citizenship course embraced in the year preceding admission to citizenship. The entire student body should be urged to obtain from the libraries such books as present the principles of the three branches of our Government.

The following outline is submitted as an indication of the subject matter for the teacher in presenting the subject of civics:

- 1. General principles of government: Necessity of laws for establishment and development of government, protection of society and individual; its purpose to aid in matters of health, life, property, business, education, surroundings and environment. Sources of laws: Constitution, franchise, legislation, administration, adjudication, citizenship, political parties. General governmental divisions: City, County, State, Nation.
- 2. The city government: Executive—The office of mayor or commissioner and its functions; various departments and their functions. Legislative—aldermanic or councilmanic. Judicial—courts of the city.

Emphasize conditions to naturalization, suffrage qualifications, and the obligation resting upon each individual to perform his part as a good citizen.

## THE ADVANCED GRADE

## CONVERSATION

The students in this grade should be able to carry on, with a fair degree of facility, conversation concerning any topic with which they are familiar. Use topics of current events having a bearing upon good citizenship as subjects for discussion and debate. Make a persistent and free use of that inexpensive medium, the daily newspaper, for topics for frequent discussions, making them short and pointed, to develop powers of ready expression of the mind.

#### READING

Students of this grade should be able to read with a fair degree of proficiency. Train more or less in silent reading and test the com-

prehension of the reader by requiring him to tell the class what he has read. Supplementary readers in civics, American biography, geography, history, literature, and science are useful for this class. Guide the students to the selection of good books from the public libraries; encourage them to bring such books to class, to report to the class the general plot, and especially interesting and important parts of the books in which they are interested. Do not abandon the daily newspaper.

#### LANGUAGE

The elementary principles of grammar may be effectively taught from the language lessons, both oral and written, and by continuing drills in models of ordinary English develop a keener sense of sound discernment to operate in correcting their English and producing the American accent. The essentials to be taught are the different kinds of sentences and the adjective and adverbial idea in the use of words, phrases, and clauses; different parts of speech and their functions; inflections of nouns and pronouns; the principal parts of the more common irregular verbs. Grammar thus taught becomes not an end in itself, but a means to show the students why they use the kind of English they have been taught to speak. Instruction should be oral, with outline placed on blackboard to be copied in notebooks by the students.

#### PHONICS, SPELLING, AND WRITING

These subjects should be presented as in preceding grade. Occasionally there should be a few minutes' drill on the more difficult sounds of the English language by means of word lessons involving these sounds. Be particularly careful not to let incorrect articulation, enunciation, or pronunciation pass unnoticed.

#### MEMORY GEMS

As in preceding grades.

#### UNITED STATES HISTORY

This should include the study of more advanced text-books. Care should be taken to emphasize the more important steps of development in our country's history and to leave in the minds of the students a clear picture of its several periods of development as (1) the early history and settlement of America; (2) the Revolutionary War, its conditions and causes; the Declaration of In-

dependence should be read thoroughly and its principles discussed; (3) the formation of the Constitution of the United States and the development down to 1860, including (a) means of transportation, (h) inventions, (c) increase in manufactures, (d) growth of population; (4) the economic development of the North and South, contrasted in the light of slavery, as a background to conditions and causes leading up to the Civil War; (5) the Civil War, its causes, results, and significances; (6) the development of our country since the Civil War, politically and industrially; emphasize the significance of immigration in this development, not only from the standpoint of our industries but from the standpoint of our political institutions; (7) encourage the students to use the public libraries in consultation of historical authors; endeavor in the teaching to raise problems of interest for discussion by the students; this can only be accomplished in full by their consistent participation in free and mutual discussion of each topic as it is presented and studied.

#### CIVICS

Review briefly the topics of the previous grade. Let the presentation of each of these subjects be free discussion by all. Make assignments to students who are not participating.

- 1. Explain the naturalization laws.
- 2. The qualifications of a voter.
- 3. Primary and final election laws, and the importance of independent judgment on the part of each citizen in registering at the primary and final elections his choice of candidates for the various offices.
  - 4. The short ballot and its significance; the Australian ballot.
  - 5. The significance of the initiative, referendum, and recall.
- 6. Extend the relation of local government to the (a) county, (b) State, (c) National Government, explaining the forms and functions of each kind of government.
- 7. This will lead naturally to the study of the Constitution of the United States, (a) its origin and (b) its provisions.
- 8. Compare our form of representative government with the forms of government of the leading nations of Europe and explain the full meaning of democracy.
- 9. From such comparison deduce the responsibility resting upon every citizen of this Nation to see that able and honest men are put into office.

In teaching civics the chief emphasis should be laid not upon the forms of government, but upon its functions and its practical workings.

## CITIZENSHIP LABORATORY

#### CITIZENSHIP IN THE CITY

Assemble the classes of each school building in one room, men and women together, and tell them that they represent the city, that they will soon become citizens of the United States, and that they are to learn how to assume the responsibilities and rights and perform the duties of citizenship. For this purpose they are to be considered as the entire adult voting population of the city. Briefly outline the form of government in the city, defining the offices of mayor or commissioner, councilman, alderman, or their local equivalents, the various administrative departments of the municipality, and describe the city judiciary. Explain how these offices have been filled by their incumbents and the relation of the individual voters to the incumbents.

#### DUTIES OF OFFICIALS OF CITY

The mayor and other officials of the city government should be prevailed upon to define fully the duties of their respective offices. All of this will be most interestedly and profitably received by the students, who should be encouraged to make as extensive notes as possible, and will prove a source of inspiration to those officials who are prevailed upon to address the student body upon the duties of their respective offices. The President, in his address to the newly naturalized citizens in Philadelphia on May 10, 1915, said, "I feel that it has renewed my spirit as an American to be here."

#### **DISCUSSIONS**

Discussions of the subject of each of these addresses should be engaged in by the student body after each talk and the duties of the offices debated so as to fix them in the minds of the prospective citizens. Outline for discussions will be found later in this course.

#### FRANCHISE AND BALLOT

After the duties and responsibilities of the different offices of the city government have been described by the incumbents of these offices or their representatives, and the student body has fully discussed these subjects with evident understanding, the students should be assembled for instruction in the franchise, its rights, powers, purposes, and uses. The ballot, in the exercise of the franchise, both in primary and final elections, should be made known to them and the necessity for purity in its use fully dwelt upon by the teacher, followed by discussions upon the franchise and the ballot and their relation in this country to government and to the individual citizen; the good that will flow from its wise and proper use, and the evil from its unwise and improper use emphasized; the purposes and powers of the ballot and its relationship to the election of municipal, State, and national officials clearly shown.

Each of these subjects should be fully discussed and debated by pupils. In their treatment the teacher should always keep prominently in mind the necessity for developing the sense of individual responsibility and relationship to the whole political organization. Assignments of subjects should be made by the teacher so as to include and stimulate the diffident and backward to a participation in this work.

#### NOMINATIONS AND ELECTIONS

When understanding has become general throughout the student body, its members should be required to put into practice the lessons which they have learned. The necessity for purity of the ballot should again be fully emphasized. As an entire body they should be told that they will be expected to make use of their knowledge of the franchise and of the use of the ballot and will be guided through the steps of electing the city government, commencing with the mayor or the local equivalent. The local form of nomination may prevail, but as they have been taught both the convention and primary methods they should be allowed and urged to exercise the utmost freedom in their choice of method.

Self-government should be the keynote in this entire course and should be developed to its fullest possibilities consistent with intelligent progress. The teacher should not dominate but steady and guide the students in their endeavors to emerge from their ignorance of our institutions into an intelligent comprehension of them. The only functions which the teacher should exercise in this stage of the course are to insure regularity and purity in the entire proceedings, to stimulate the backward ones to participate in some

manner in the consideration of the subject, and to urge full discussions of both the qualifications of the candidate and the duties of the office, so as to bring out prominently the cardinal purpose of each election—the selection of the candidate best suited to the office.

The teacher or principal should preside over this meeting. Tellers should be appointed for the election, both for the primary and final elections if the primary form of nomination should prevail. The purpose of this election is to remove the preconceived notions of government and former national prejudices and to unify and harmonize the different national views into one national spirit to accord with the spirit of our Government. The choice made will represent not a nationality but an expressed desire of a majority of the entire student body. The successful candidate should be only the one having a majority over all. The plurality should not be sufficient. The object of an absolute majority over all is to prevent the domination by one nationality by sheer preponderance of numbers.

CITY CHIEF EXECUTIVE.—Nominations from the entire student body for the position of mayor should be invited. From three to five or more candidates should be placed in nomination, the number to be based by the teacher upon the size of the student body. But one candidate should be allowed for each group or nationality. The candidates for election should be the three receiving the highest number of votes on nomination. All should be encouraged to participate in the submission of names in nomination and to engage in large numbers in urging the qualifications of their respective candidates.

In the entire student body assemblage activity should be stimulated by the principal, supplemented by each teacher individually endeavoring to inspire confident activity in the members of his individual class. This activity should take the shape of speeches in favor of respective candidates whose names are put in nomination not only by the one nominating and the one seconding the nomination, but generally throughout the entire student body. The individual teachers should devote their attention to the members of their respective classes and an effort should be made to elicit some expression from each member of each class, and in this way from each member of the student body. The greater participation on the part of the students the greater will be the influence of the spirit of the occasion on the entire body and correspondingly on

each individual. The enthusiasm of the teachers will be reflected in the enthusiasm of the students. In proportion to the sympathetic interest of the teacher will be the response of the individual. The development of the responsibility of the individual to the entire State and entire Nation underlies all of this participation. The principal and teachers of the various classes should only guide in an advisory capacity.

As but one candidate may be chosen and must receive a majority over all, it will at once be evident that at this point will commence the obliteration of the various national lines and prejudices. At this stage of this course in the laboratory of citizenship the school is a crucible in which the polyglot elements of American society have been placed in a scientific flux and are being fused in the refining fire of intelligent patriotic influences into true, comprehending, and hence loyal American citizens. The melting pot is what has been used in the past. There has been nothing but a dumping of the elements of society into the pot, with the resultant nondescript conception of our institutions. It should be abandoned and the crucible, with its scientifically prepared flux, substituted to produce the pure and unalloyed American citizen. Assimilation of the fundamental idea of American government is here effected through the requirement of the various nationalities present to unite upon a representative, regardless of nationality, in the choice of their presiding officer. The common choice will force the obliteration of the national lines. The selection should be upon merit and an effort made to prevent the development of vote trading or other practices. Corruption of the ballot should be eliminated not only from the actions but from the thoughts of the candidates and their supporters.

If the interest, enthusiasm, or circumstances be sufficient to warrant a unanimous rising vote, it may be taken upon explaining the circumstances under which such action occurs and to remove from the minds the possibility of confusion from regarding this as usual in general elections.

Induction into office.—Upon election the mayor should be escorted forward by members of the student body and with suitable eeremony inducted into office by the administration of the oath of office by the teacher. The custom usually prevailing should be followed, and the oath to perform well and faithfully the duties of the office should be administered in the presence of the entire school body. The teacher should place the burden of the responsi-

bilities upon the student body and the mayor, who should preside at all subsequent general assemblages of the student body as one of his official duties.

ELECTION OF OTHER CITY OFFICIALS.—As they have all learned of the duties of the officials of the departments of city government, the members of the student body should next select their city legislators and organize the appropriate departments of city government and select their respective heads. This should include at least the health department, police department, and judicial department, with such others as local conditions may justify. In the election of the aldermen or city legislators the unit of representation should be the classroom, one or more representatives from each class being determined by the mobility and efficiency of the entire body.

DUTIES OF CITY LEGISLATIVE BODY .- The legislators should formulate rules of government for the observance of the student body. These rules should apply to the conduct of the students in and around the school buildings, relate to the disposition of their outer clothing, deportment in the classrooms, promptness and regularity of attendance, participation in debate (to insure sharing in the exercises by each member of the entire school body, even though but slight participation should result on the part of some of the most backward and diffident), and with special attention to rules requiring the students to bring in the large number of alien residents to the night schools. The advantages to be gained from this are too great and vital, too far-reaching in their effect for most substantial good, be passed without a consistent emphasis being laid upon its accomplishment. The teacher should have papers prepared and debates arranged upon such topics as "Why should each student bring a new student?" and kindred topics. They should formulate rules governing their conduct in the places of their vocation, in their homes, and on the street, and rules relating to sanitary habits and practices.

Discussions.—These rules should be discussed as much as possible in the entire assemblage. They may be worked out, however, in committee. The students should be given to understand the various methods and be permitted to follow their own choice of proceeding as long as progress is made.

Papers dealing with housing, with especial reference to tenements, large and small, should be prepared and read by the students. This is referred to because of its intimate relation to the

resident foreign body. The laws governing tenement houses, especially with relation to sanitation, should be made known to them and their merits discussed, in order to bring home to the individual his relationship to this phase of law and order for the betterment of his home life.

The police department should be required to see that the rules are observed and the judicial department to impose penalties for failure of observance of the rules. The development of a regard for law and order and individual responsibility for their maintenance should be established.

Other branches of government of intimate concern to the resident foreign body, such as recreation grounds and park commissions, should be brought prominently before the students.

Appointive offices.—When appointive offices are to be filled by the mayor, care should be taken to see that national lines do not influence the selection, but that, so far as possible, the class stand ing should have its place.

#### SUMMARY

From the foregoing it is seen that the laboratory has been made possible. The efficiency of its working is dependent largely upon the inspiration received by the students from the school authorities. This is the first opportunity presented to the entire system of the public schools for a direct co-operation with the National Government where the efforts of these two agencies are linked together. Each superintendent of schools, each principal of schools, each teacher of the public schools is called upon to lend his highest and most intelligent effort to the perfection of this course by its thorough application. This call is made with the full knowledge that there is sufficient patriotic devotion to the cause of citizenship in each public-school teacher to insure its success and the development of this course to that state of high efficiency which characterizes every other vocation and profession except that of American citizenship. With the combined effort of all public-school authorities with this branch of the National Government success is assured.

The students should be taken into the public buildings and administrative offices of the city, so that they may become actually acquainted with the purpose of the buildings and the machinery of the municipal government.

No elaboration has been undertaken of county, State, and National Governments, partly because the new citizen will exercise

the rights of citizenship oftener in the city in which he lives than in any other relation to government. The analogy of county, State, and National Government can readily be shown, so that he will not lose sight of his vital relation to the State and Nation.

## **CLASS ALUMNI**

When the students have completed their course and become citizens, their experiences in the classrooms should induce them to return and further participate in this work so that the schoolhouse may be felt by them to be the legitimate place of assemblage for discussion of questions of public policy. This spirit should be inspired by the teachers during the early period of this course and be so developed as to bring about this result. Alumni or other public nonsecret organization should be encouraged to implant in them a love for this, the alma mater of their school of American citizenship.

The public schools have taught virtually every other subject relating to the vocations of life and they have developed these courses to the highest efficiency. These various phases of the city government are outlined generally with the knowledge that the local offices of the city government may differ in principle as well as in particularity. This is submitted, however, for adaptation to local conditions.

# OUTLINE OF TOPICS FOR PRESENTATION BY OFFICIALS AND DISCUSSION BY STUDENT BODY

#### CITY GOVERNMENT

## EXECUTIVE BRANCH

Mayor: Duties and responsibilities, patronage, veto powergeneral powers. Relationship to board of aldermen, common council, or similar body regarding commission form of government-Relationship to Chief Executive of Nation and State.

## LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

The common council, the general lawmaking branch: composition, total membership, number for each ward, how chosenterm of years, powers and functions. City ordinances: ordinances relating to welfare, business, property, and finances of community; preservation of order; suppression of vice; regulation of places of amusement, saloons, weights and measures, building

operations, charitable organizations; licenses of vehicles, pawnbrokers, etc. Relationship to revenues and expenditures, to various administrative departments of the city, to State legislative power.

## JUDICIAL BRANCH

Administrative head. Magistrate courts, police courts, higher courts, juvenile courts. Describe each court; show necessity for maintenance of public order; benefit to city; to individual. Jurisdiction of courts; source and tenure of office; source of revenues; method of expenditure; relationship of individual to revenues and expenditures.

JURY.—Qualifications, duties, individual privileges, rights and responsibilities of juror in determining facts; relationship to the court in defining and determining questions of law in a given case.

## SOME TYPICAL DEPARTMENTS OF THE CITY GOVERNMENT

Police department, fire department, health department, street and park department, education department, water department, tax department, excise department, law department.

POLICE DEPARTMENT.—Administrative head. The individual policeman's duties as a guardian of safety rather than a minion of the law, the oneness of purpose of the police officer and law-abiding, peace-loving individuals. Location of precincts. Individual protection at home, in the shops, on the street, at night; benefits to the individual; necessary for life of city. Penal institutions, their management, purpose, necessity, source of revenue, method of expenditure, relationship of individual to revenues and expenditures. Bring in the police to aid firemen in fire drills for better acquaintance with helpful side of police force.

FIRE DEPARTMENT.—Administrative head. Fire chief, duties and powers. Firemen and duties. Safety first—care of matches, care of inflammable and combustible material; safety in keeping matches in receptacles away from children; teach fire precaution. Have fire drills under personal supervision of member of fire department for double purpose of training the foreigners to escape from a burning building and of allowing them to become closely associated with firemen in order to teach them calmness in time of fire. This latter is very desirable, as over 80 per cent of our foreign-born residents are employed in factories, mills, mines, etc.,

where at times the loss of life in fires on account of panic has been appalling. Location of fire-alarm boxes; demonstrate how to ring and call by phone.

Health department.—Administrative head. Collection of refuse of various kinds; sanitation in the schoolrooms, homes, work, shops, and on the streets; ill effects which will follow failure of these activities. Sources of revenues, method of expenditure, relationship of individual to revenues and expenditures. Safeguarding health of communities and individuals by requirement of pure food; enforcement of regulations regarding contagious disease; medicine and medical aid to indigent sick; free hospitals and free clinics. Emphasize personal cleanliness by elaboration, individual observance of health regulations, and practical benefits in avoidance of ordinary sickness and contagious diseases.

Street and park department.—Administrative head. Personnel, source, and tenure of office. Functions: traffic regulations, opening of new streets, repairing pavements (both street and sidewalk), franchises for street railways, public lighting, antispitting regulations, street cleaning, public recreation grounds, city beautifying, trees, etc. Attitude of individual to civic cleanliness, keeping streets clear of skins, paper, and other waste; benefits derived by the individual as well as the municipality. Source of revenues, method of expenditures, relationship of individual to revenues and expenditures.

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT —Administrative head. Constitution of department. Source and tenure of office; powers and duties: provide school buildings and their equipment; teachers; textbooks and other supplies; course of study and general administration; source of revenues, method of expenditure, relationship of individual to revenues and expenditures; construction and relations ship of entire system. Board of education, general superintendent day superintendent, night superintendent, supervising principals. principals of schools, teachers, students. Present in a practical mail ner the advantages of public-school instruction to the individual and its relationship to his everyday life, explaining any embarrassment as to insufficient funds, the necessity for extending the night schools to the same time that is devoted annually to the day course, with special relation to citizenship and the system of the Bureau Naturalization, based upon the monthly filing of declarations of intention and petitions for naturalization and the monthly traismission of the names of these to the school authorities, so as to show the necessity for and advantages of conducting the schools from the 1st of October until the end of June, all leading to the objective of having certificates of graduation and annual commencement functions.

Schools.—Free libraries, books for coming Americans, and other literature without cost. Vocational and industrial work, community centers, wayward or incorrigible children. Teach regularity and promptness of attendance and show advantages in business resulting from this habit.

WATER DEPARTMENT.—Administrative head. Water supply, wastefulness, economy in use, individual responsibility, source of revenues, methods of expenditures, sewer system. Relation of individual to revenues and expenditures.

TAX DEPARTMENT.—Administrative head. Revenues, sources, necessity, relationship to individual.

EXCISE DEPARTMENT.—Administrative head. Control over issuance and revocation of licenses for intoxicating liquors; cost of licenses.

Law DEPARTMENT.—Administrative head. Relationship to contracts for public construction, and prosecution of offenders. City comptroller; source and tenure of office; functions. City auditor; source and tenure of office; functions. City treasurer; source and tenure of office; functions. Advantages of and necessity for observance of law.

#### COUNTY GOVERNMENT

Teach geography, nature of various industries. Teach city and county government, showing lines on which they parallel and analogies of laws. Administrative officers, their sources and tenures of office, their functions. Describe governments of communities throughout county and their relationship to the entire county organization, county roads, bridges, buildings, hospitals, development, control, and management both as to personnel and methods, ways and means of administration of county government.

#### STATE GOVERNMENT

Analogy to city and county governments, respective jurisdictions, and rights and powers of each. Location of State capital.

#### EXECUTIVE BRANCH

Chief executive; source and tenure of office, authority, functions of office, constitutional and legal functions, and authorities.

## LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

Period of meeting. Functions of the legislature. Following course of bill from introduction through the various stages to the final enactment and approval by the chief executive.

Houses of legislature.—Upper house (senate): Presiding officer, composition of membership, source and tenure of office, representation of the State, extent of constituency, districts. Lower house (house of representatives, assembly, house of delegates, etc.). Apportionment of members, source and tenure of office, composition of assembly as to numbers, and apportionment to population.

## JUDICIAL BRANCH

Courts of original, appellate, and supreme jurisdiction.

#### NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

Analogy to State and city governments; respective jurisdictions; rights and powers of each. Location of National Capital. Source of power. Outline colonial history, period under Articles of Confederation, period under Constitution, using text-books approved by local educational authorities.

#### EXECUTIVE BRANCH

The President; voters' Electoral College; tenure of office; Cabinet advisers; powers and duties of the President.

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENTS.—Department of State, Department of the Treasury, Department of War, Department of Justice, Post Office Department, Department of the Navy, Department of the Interior, Department of Agriculture, Department of Commerce, and Department of Labor.

#### LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

The Congress of the United States two Houses. Periods of meeting. Functions of Congress as a whole. Trace course of bill through both Houses, showing origin of all revenue measures in the House of Representatives, and various stages through to Executive approval of each bill in its enactment into law. Powers of Congress. Place of meeting in Washington, the Capital of the Nation.

SENATE.—Presiding officer; composition of membership; source and tenure of office; Members, representatives of the States; functions.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.—Apportionment of Members by population; Members representatives of the people; source and tenure of office, presiding officer, functions.

## JUDICIAL BRANCH

Supreme Court of the United States, nomination by President, confirmation by Senate. United States circuit courts of appeals, United States district courts, Court of Claims, Territorial court, United States commissioners. Jurisdiction of various courts.

#### POLITICAL PARTIES

Relationship to individuals, powers of their expression of desires for specific laws and on political questions. Nominations by convention, by direct primaries; platforms, registration, the ballot. Necessity for parties in representative government. Distinguish between local and National Government; show need of intelligent citizens.

The interest of the National Government in the well-being of the candidate for citizenship should be pointed out, dwelt upon. and kept constantly before the student body, as the influence of National Government is strong upon all foreigners by reason of its general absoluteness and force as felt by the subject of any nationality in his relation to government in the old countries. The importance of the certificate of graduation which the Bureau of Naturalization will furnish, and its issuance by the Federal Government jointly with the State government should be so presented that regard for it will be enlarged and the highest enthusiasm and interest stimulated in the candidate by the receipt of this certificate of graduation. Students should be given to understand that it will represent efficiency on their part and will be given only to those who are proficient. Its presentation should be understood as carrying a high reward and high recognition by the National Government of their individual efforts. They should be led to

realize that the Federal Government will be ready to stand by all who pursue the entire course and attain high proficiency in speaking, reading, and writing our language and acquire an intelligent understanding of our institutions; that it will bring them to the attention of their employers to secure recognition of their higher efficiency, and will also endeavor to aid them in their ambitions and advancement not only in this but in bettering their condition in other fields of activity. The importance and value to the individual in relation to his personal advancement of a thorough mastery of English and the citizenship branch of this course should be constantly held before them to stimulate them to the highest degree in both attendance upon the classes and attention to the studies.

## FUNDAMENTALS FOR THE AMERICAN HOME

Women should be encouraged to participate in all of the foregoing as far as practicable in common with men. This applies to all places, regardless of whether the women have the right of suffrage, but particularly where women are voters. It is not the purpose to develop the desire of suffrage, but to bring the women out of the European and foreign atmosphere into the very heart and soul of things American. Emphasis is laid particularly upon this so as to insure an extension of the influence of the school to the other foreign-born women with whom the women in the classes come into daily contact and to have them inspired to enter the sphere of this Americanizing influence.

## DOMESTIC ARTS AND SCIENCE

The following course in domestic arts and science is a presentation of the subjects which are now actually being taught in the most important cities of the United States and some of the smaller but more advanced cities and towns. No instance, however, is known to this bureau where a city or town is teaching all the subjects presented herein. The Bureau of Naturalization is therefore fulfilling its function as announced by the Department of Labor "as a clearing house of information on civic instruction."

For convenience this chapter is presented under the two heads of Domestic arts and Domestic science.

## DOMESTIC ARTS

Plain sewing, advanced sewing, dressmaking, costume designing and coat making, tailoring, millinery, crocheting (elementary and advanced), art needlework, lace making, embroidery.

PLAIN SEWING.—(a) Elementary work for beginners in cutting, fitting, and constructing simple garments; patching; darning.

(b) Advanced work—Dressmaking, waists, skirts, dresses, buttonholes, ribbon and flower work.

Sewing—Hand and machine work.—(a) Elementary—sewing and adjusting of commercial patterns; cutting and fitting new and renovating and remodeling old garments. In this work the individual should bring her own garments or those of her family. The following is a suggestive list: Waists, using thin material and demonstrating buttonhole work; petticoats, ruffling; skirts, outside and of wash material; seam finishing and fastening; children's plain garments; corset covers and underwear; household articles. (b) Advanced—Making new garments of cotton and woolen material, and renovating and remodeling; tailored shirt waists; plain dresses of wash material; tailored skirts of woolen material; advanced and original work in one-piece dresses of gingham, percale, cotton, cotton voile, lawn, poplin, linen, foulard, and woolen materials; children's plain garments.

Milliery.—Making and trimming hats. Instruction should be under competent and experienced trade milliners, to equip the student to become a more intelligent judge of materials and of values and costs. Demonstrations should be made of various articles both in millinery and in piece goods. A cost system should be evolved. A value should be placed upon the time of the student to be computed in the cost of production of the article. The most practical step toward the development of American appearance will be a discussion of the benefits of remodeling and renovating of millinery. The individuals should be led to use their own hats in work, after the method prescribed in the sewing classes. Interest will at once be aroused in the transformations in the headwear and clothing when the possibilities are ascertained and accomplished under the guidance of the millinery and sewing teacher.

#### DOMESTIC SCIENCE

Table service; bread making, cake making, family cooking; elementary food selection (buying and preparing taken up by meal sequence); advanced cookery, fancy cookery practically taught, invalid cookery, nurse cookery, quality cookery; home economics; household chemistry and physics and sanitation; catering; home-

making and housekeeping; household accounting; furnishing and decorating; music, dramatics, household arts; physical culture.

In practically every school where domestic science is taught a well-formulated plan has been adopted. The Bureau of Naturalization therefore recommends the continuance of the prevailing plans with enlarged scope, and that a chapter be devoted to domestic arts and science in the reports (for which desire has heretofore been expressed) to be made by the schools to the superintendents and by them forwarded to the Bureau of Naturalization at the termination of the present scholastic year.

The branches of domestic science in themselves suggest too clearly the line of development to necessitate a detailed presentation in this outlined work.

Neatness and hygiene in the home and of the person should be taught. Emphasis should be laid upon commencing in earliest childhood.

The following publications are available upon application to the Bureau of Naturalization: Prenatal Care, Infant Care, Babysaving Campaigns (for cities), Baby-saving Work (for small towns and rural districts), Child-welfare Exhibits.

## FOREWORD OF THE COMMITTEE

The outline of study in history, civics, and patriotism that follows is the work of a committee appointed by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. The task assigned was the formulation of such a supplement to the present outline course of study for the public schools of the state that the needs of the present critical conditions should be the more satisfactorily served by the schools through the instruction given.

The outline is for use in connection with the Course of Study printed in 1916. It is evident that no course of study can be fixed; changing conditions require almost constant revision. Especially is this true during a period of such rapid change as the present.

The supplementary outline is the result of hurried preparation and inadequate study of the problem. It is submitted by the committee with the hope that it may lead to emphasis on the essentials of the subjects in the schools, to the re-writing of the entire course within the year.

S. S. PHILLIPS
CHARLES H. HAY
MARK SWEANY
GRACE ELLEN SHOE SMITH
ANNA L. FORCE
EDWIN B. SMITH, Chairman.

# HISTORY, CIVICS, AND PATRIOTISM

## I. THE TEACHER'S POINT OF VIEW AND PROCEDURE

Many demands have been made for the introduction of new courses into the school curriculum, as a result of the new conditions developing. Although this may appear desirable as a means of emphasizing special features that should be made a part of the school program, there are disadvantages in increasing the number of subjects that shall be taught. The plan that is suggested in the following outline attempts a modification of the subject-matter of the subjects which are in use to meet the demands of the new conditions. Since the subjects of history and civics are those most directly associated with the changing conditions, they have been selected for the modification of their content to reflect some of these demands which are made on education.

- 1. The immediate pressing demands on the schools are for education to aid in winning the war. These may be expressed more definitely as:
  - a. The need for right attitudes on the part of the public to support the war activities;
  - b. The part that the school may have in the creation of public opinion through:
    - (1) Working with the children;
    - (2) Working with the parents indirectly through the children.
- 2. Opportunity offers for the schools to co-operate with the Government in promoting the community interests as evidenced by:
  - a. The campaign by the Government to keep every person of school age in the schools.

The idea originated with the War Department that every high school graduate in the country should be encouraged to enter college to prepare himself for greater usefulness in the service of his country through military training and general education. The value of the plan was so apparent that an extension of the policy was made to include every young person of whatever age, so that effort is to be made

- to keep the young people of the whole country in their proper grade of school work.
- b. The need for the dissemination of information to the people generally relative to the drives for war finance and campaigns for various purposes;
- c. The desirability that the public shall be kept informed on the constantly changing conditions.
- 3. The effort of the school should center around:
  - a. The inculcation of the highest ideals of citizenship as expressed in:
    - (1) A knowledge of the importance and significance of community welfare in relation to the individual;
    - (2) A familiarity with the social agencies that exist to secure community welfare;
    - (3) A recognition of civic responsibility and a response to it.
  - b. The creation of attitudes and interests, not the learning of facts;
  - The teaching of the subject-matter that will be of interest and value to the individual in his experiences;
  - d. The accomplishment of the purposes of the American people in the War.
- 4. The procedure in the school should be such as:
  - To foster growth necessary to meet present conditions, which is the best preparation for future living;
  - b. To make the pupils capable of work, of thinking, rather than committing to memory subject-matter.
- 5. The material selected should be determined by immediate needs. The aim in teaching is to produce the best type of citizenship, which implies a high state of physical, mental, and moral development of the individual, a recognition of the rights and duties existing between the community and the individual; i. e.
  - a. The present conditions should be studied as they are.

    This involves a study of conditions in the past, in the process of making.
  - b. The material should be such that it will be of value to the child and to the adult citizen by aiding in:
    - (1) The solution of problems of every-day living;

- (2) The creation of attitudes on the part of the individual, such as patriotism;
- (3) The promotion of the individual's welfare as a feature of community interest.
- 6. The method of work that will best present the subjectmatter to the mind of the pupil remains a matter of importance. The method may be as important as the material which, through the process of the method, is learned.
  There is probably no one method that should be used exclusively; the teacher should experiment with methods
  that appear valuable and follow the results of experiment. Flexibility and initiative in dealing with problems
  should be sought. With the right attitude toward methods on the part of the teacher, they may be made to serve
  rather than to direct; to encourage rather than to suppress, individual initiative. Important features of methods to be kept before the teacher always are:
  - a. That method means the use of subject-matter to secure desired results;
  - b. That learning under normal conditions in the school is the result of using subject-matter. The pupil should use subject-matter for real purposes, not merely as something to be learned.
- 7. The project-problem method is suggested as embodying the qualities already mentioned in the outline, and worthy of trial by teachers. Some of the qualities which make the method valuable are:
  - a. It conforms to actual life practice, for all living is a series of problems;
  - b. The best effort of the individual is made when confronted by a problem; effective work is dependent upon the problem being presented;
  - c. All subject-matter may be organized under specific problems, the larger problem and the secondary that naturally follow. It is considered in the usual way, not as interesting facts, but as having some bearing on life activities;
  - d. It is easy to make connection with present conditions, to establish the usefulness of the work, a controlling point that should always be before the teacher;

- e. It suggests the place of the text in connection with the teaching and the learning processes;
- f. The opportunity for the use of other material than that of the text is apparent and becomes the more desirable; correlation is encouraged;
- g. The assignment of lessons, a part of the work too frequently neglected, receives more attention necessarily; it becomes definite and purposeful; the pupil has a motive for work and his work tends to become more self-directed;
- h. The class period becomes something more than a succession of questions and answers; there is opportunity for co-operation between members of the class, between the teacher and members of the class, for all become learners. The teacher is not looked upon as a source of information that should never fail;
- i. It meets the demand for making the school more democratic and more in conformity with actual living conditions, which implies co-operative living.
- 8. The analysis of the project-problem method generally leads to the procedure:
  - a. The problem is arranged.

    (If the problem can come from the pupils as the result of the class discussion, it is the more valuable.

    When the need for effort is clear, the result is more satisfactory. The problem may be definitely stated by the teacher.)
  - b. The purpose of the problem is made apparent to the pupils through the preparatory discussion and assignment of work.
  - c. The plan of procedure is determined as the study of the problem proceeds; *i. e.*, the method of the solution of the problem is sought by the pupil.
  - d. As the solution is accomplished, criticism and examination of the procedure follows.
  - e. The final results are judged as to their value.
  - f. Appreciation for the results is experienced accordingly as they appear satisfactory to the pupil.
- 9. In solving the problem the pupil should do the successive steps:
  - a. Gain information on the subject;

- b. Make selection of material that applies;
- c. Organize the material that is selected;
- d. Withhold judgment until
- e. Sufficient evidence is available to draw definite conclusions with reference to the problem.
- 10. The whole method of procedure for the teacher and pupils may conform to the following plan:
  - a. The problem is determined as a result of the class discussion, coming from the pupils spontaneously or from the teacher arbitrarily;
  - b. The assignment for the following period is made. This should be by the clear statement of the problem and the suggestion of the material which properly includes:
    - (1) The text, with definite location of subject-matter;
    - (2) Other material that may be found in texts and any other sources of information:
    - (3) Any matter that may be secured by the pupils through their own efforts.
  - c. The preparation of the succeeding lesson involves an interest, a definite work on the part of the pupils who secure material and make some interpretation of it. There is no mere memorizing of the subject-matter, but it is used and this use of it makes it the pupil's own.
  - d. The lesson period following is an opportunity for discussion by the pupils of the problem itself. Contributions are made by all members of the class, the teacher sharing in this if more material is needed than is supplied by the class, and the conclusion is reached. Sometimes the definite conclusion is held in suspension, for not always can a satisfactory conclusion be agreed upon. It should be the purpose of the teacher to get the pupils to come to their own conclusion, after all the evidence is considered, and not to impress his own views on the student.
    - e. The next assignment is probably the outgrowth of the class work.

(To make more clear the meaning of the project-problem method and to offer something concrete, the use of the outline

is suggested in the discussion of work which follows. Further suggestions relative to the work here proposed will be published throughout the year in the Colorado School Journal, the official publication of the Colorado Education Association.)

#### ILLUSTRATION OF THE METHOD

- 1. The topic for consideration is the European background for the discovery of America. The conditions of Europe are discussed from the various points of view; especially the conditions of trade, of maritime development, and of the interests of the people. An interest may be stirred by introducing the subject through consideration of the western movement in the United States. If the discussion is directed toward the migration of people to Colorado, it may take the following course:
  - a. The nature of the home conditions;
  - b. The condition of travel;
  - c. The character of the people;
  - d. Inducements to go to the new section.

(The problem may come from the class as a result of the discussion which is brought to the point where the desire is created to know, Why did some of the Europeans set out across the Atlantic on an expedition that resulted in their finding America?)

- 2. The assignment for the lesson is made by the statement of the problem and by designating material in the text and any other sources of material that may be available.
- 3. The material is secured and interpreted in the class hour that follows. The subject-matter includes:
  - The unusual activity of the people in the 15th and 16th centuries through the influence of the Crusades of the earlier period;
  - b. The inventions and discoveries;
  - e. The knowledge of geography;
  - d. The improved conditions of navigation;
  - e. The trade with the East and its interruption.
- 4. The solution of the problem is reached: Cut off from the easier routes of travel to the countries to the east where necessities were being secured, the people wanted to find another route for the eastern trade.

#### FURTHER ILLUSTRATION OF THE PROBLEM

- 1. The subject is the conservation of food As an introduction, discuss the practices in the homes with respect to the use of sugar; the amount of sugar allowed each person; the amount consumed each year in the past as compared with the amount allowed now; the card system in use for checking consumption; the Government in control through the Food Administration under the direction of Mr. Hoover. The problem arises, Why are we not allowed to have all the sugar that we have been accustomed to use?
- 2. The material that is available through the Food Administration Bulletin and the newspaper articles includes:
  - a. Source of sugar supply;
  - b. Transportation facilities required;
  - c. Practices in foreign countries in the use of sugar;
  - d. Supply for soldiers in the service; sugar an energy-producing food;
  - e. Saving resulting from the conservation of sugar in this country; this determined on the basis of individual saving.
- 3. The class discussion leads to an understanding of the relation between the conservation of food products and the conduct of the war.
- 4. The solution of the problem, Why are we not allowed to have all the sugar that we have been accustomed to use? as that sugar is needed in the successful carrying on of the war, and that to save sugar is to help win the war; and this is the opportunity of each individual.

## II. THE TEACHING OF HISTORY, CIVICS, AND PATRIOTISM IN THE LOWER GRADES

(See outline State Course of Study.)

- I. The main purpose of the work in the lower grades is the creation of right attitudes, which will lead to the right conduct on the part of the children. If this is accomplished, the adult will be a good citizen. With the plan that follows in the mind of the teacher, the right attitude toward the subject is created and a worthy purpose is assumed.
  - 1. Citizenship implies freedom and personal obligation, which are expressed in:

- a. The knowledge that America is the land of opportunity;
- b. The belief in hard work and respect for honest labor;
- c. The knowledge that the individual is free to bring out the best that is in him, materially and spiritually, provided that the rights of others are respected;
- d. The realization that every right has a corresponding duty; every privilege a corresponding obligation;
- e. A knowledge that the highest development of the individual must bring a high regard for one's fellowmen, and the spirit of sacrifice and of service for them and the country.
- 2. Patriotism, a devotion to country, implies:
  - a. An abiding faith in American democracy;
  - b. Obedience to law;
  - Belief in majority rule as a fundamental principle of democracy;
  - d. Belief in American representative government, and therefore in a wise choice of capable officials;
  - e. Regard for public office as a public trust;
  - f. Helpful criticism of government procedure;
  - g. A recognition of the fact that democracy, like every other human institution, has its faults; that only by constant vigilance can American democracy be preserved.

(As the individual grows in years and experience, the principles of American democracy come to have for him a sacred meaning. He loves his country. He would fight for her as he would defend his mother, his wife or his children. He will gladly lay down his life that she may live. Let us hope that he will learn to live for his country in the same spirit that the heroes have died for country.)

- 3. The three-fold allegiance of the individual is to:
  - a. The local unit—the town, the village, or the city which comes closest to him;
  - The state government—which provides for personal liberty, pays for education, and regulates the life of the community;
  - c. The national government—which renders the greatest service to the individual and demands his loyalty, his allegiance, and his military service, if needed;

- II. The time needed for teaching history, civics, and patriotism in the lower grades may be found by using that usually given to the opening exercises—the story hour, the language period and the recreation period.
  - 1. The opening exercises should include:
    - a. The flag salute;
    - b. Patriotic songs, such as "America," the National Anthem, the "Battle Hymn of the Republic," and the songs of the present war;
    - c. The simple creed of an American (many furnished by the National Security League).
  - 2. The story hour may be given over to stories of American inventions, products, and wars, to stories of great American men and women of the colonial period and of the western frontier;
  - 3. The language work should give opportunity for:
    - a. The reproduction of hero stories that the children know;
    - b. The memory work of each month, selections of patriotic songs.
  - 4. The recreation period gives opportunity for games and plays which dramatize American history in a simple way without preparation previously.
- III. The work in the intermediate grades may be approached through a discussion of local volunteer organizations. The material for study is certain features of community activity.
  - 1. The school may be considered with respect to:
    - a. The school officers: how chosen, duties, who they are;
    - b. The school as a social organization: the rights of the pupils, the duties of the pupils, the relations between the school and the individual member.
  - 2. The study of the local government may be made to meet the conditions in the community.
    - a. The city government, or the divisions of the county;
    - b. The county government;
    - c. The state government.
  - 3. The study of the national government may be made through a comparison with other governments; the comparison with German government should be stressed.

- a. America stands for the principles of equal justice and opportunity, and guarantees life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness to all the people. This is shown by:
  - (1) Her willingness to enter the war only as a last resort, and then only to protect the rights of America and the world;
  - (2) Her regard for the rights of all nations;
  - (3) The extension to all citizens of the right to participate in the government;
  - (4) The demand for the rights of the smaller nations.
- b. Germany believes in might rather than right, as shown by:
  - (1) Her large standing army;
  - (2) Her disregard for the rights of Belgium;
  - (3) Her action on the high seas;
  - (4) Her refusal to give to her own citizens personal liberty;
  - (5) The action of the German Emperor in his selfish disregard for the life and welfare of his subjects;
  - (6) Her undemocratic form of government.
- c. The origin of the governments indicates their natures.
  - (1) The American government was founded for personal liberty, and her mission has been to extend liberty to all people, as shown by:
    - (a) Her early struggle for liberty;
    - (b) Her refusal to become a party to any plan that does not have liberty as its purpose.
  - (2) Germany was organized as a nation to extend the power of certain royal families, and to extend this power at whatever cost, as shown by:
    - (a) The conduct of this war;
    - (b) The disregard for all nations since being in in this war;
    - (c) The whole history of the German nation.
- 4. The part that children may have in the government is illustrated by their activities in:
  - a. Government finance: thrift stamps, war savings certificates;

- b. Production: war gardens, clubs of various kinds;
- c. Conservation: wheatless days, less candy and sugar, avoidance of all waste;
- d. Definite war work: Red Cross, relief work.
- 5. Organizations for service in the school:
  - a. The thrift-stamp clubs;
  - b. The Junior Red Cross;
  - c. Other group effort may center around conservation, production, and education.

(The work here suggested may influence the procedure in the various grades; it is not intended to limit the effort at any point. The purpose is to have every child a conscious contributor to the community in some way. He may familiarize himself with the needs of the community and become a cheerful, loyal citizen under all conditions which may result from the war.)

#### III. THE PROCEDURE IN THE UPPER GRADES

(See outline State Course of Study.)

I. Special emphasis on the material of history tending toward the right attitude of Americans in the war, especially with reference to the English.

(The attitude that the people of the United States have had toward foreign peoples has been the result, in large measure, of the efforts of writers and teachers of history who have felt compelled to enlarge upon the qualities of this people, military and other, without regard to the statement of facts. The desire to keep alive certain patriotic feeling has led to the falsifying of historical material, either directly through misstatement or through unfair emphasis.)

- 1. American history in its earliest stages is really a part of European history, for:
  - a. The Americans brought with them the ideals that formed the basis for their thinking and their acting for more than two centuries;
  - b. The reasons for the migrations to this country were to a large degree, the oppression of autocratic government in Europe.
- 2. Englishmen in England for centuries struggled to maintain the principles of freedom for which the people in the United States have made constant effort.

- a. Representative government was carried by the Anglo-Saxons to England from the continent;
- b. Representative government flourished in the early English forms of government: the hundred, the shiremoot, and the folk-moot;
- c. Absolutism was checked through the establishment of the parliament;
- d. Trial by jury, habeas corpus, taxation based on representation, are expressions of English effort;
- e. The American Revolution was one form of the political struggle of Englishmen for responsible government and civil liberty.
- 3. The relations between the sovereign of England and the American colonists reflect the general conflict between the ideals of democracy and those of autocracy.
  - a. The colonies became royal provinces;
  - b. The king appointed a colonial commission to control the colonies, which was inactive;
  - c. A general governor of all the colonies followed, but he did little;
  - d. A council for foreign plantations gave way shortly to
  - e. The Lords of Trade, a body which attempted general supervision over the relations between the king and the colonists;
  - f. A colonial secretary of state, from 1768, was the last attempt to administer the colonies.
    - (Throughout this experience the colonists resisted. The unsettled conditions in England probably saved them from being brought by force to further dependence on the sovereign of England. The Protestant Revolution occupied the attention of the king and parliament to the extent that there was little interference with the government of the colonies.)
- 4. The foundations of American liberty extend beyond the American Revolution, for the ideals were fixed in the people who migrated to this country.
  - a. The Puritan migration in the second quarter of the 17th century expresses it;
  - b. The rapid growth of the ideals of liberty among the colonists indicates it;

- c. The activities of the colonists in the pre-Revolutionary period are evidences of it;
- d. The whole history of the English people from the Magna Charta traces the growth of ideals of liberty.
- 5. The Revolutionary period shows developments in the struggle of democracy against autocracy:
  - a. The beginning of the outbreak centered around the desire of the colonists to maintain the rights of Englishmen.

(The first charter granted by the king of England to the Virginia Company guaranteed to the emigrants to America "all the rights, privileges, and immunities of Englishmen in England.")

(In 1766, Benjamin Franklin said, "No one, drunk or sober, ever contemplated independence.")

b. The first year of the military activities showed the colonists the futility of the hope for conciliation on a satisfactory basis, and independence was decided upon.

(The grievance was against the king of Great Britain, as stated in the Declaration of Independence:

"But when a long train of abuses and usurpations

\* \* evinces a design to reduce them to absolute

Despotism, \* \* it is their duty to throw off such
government \* \* \*. The history of the present king

of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and
usurpations, all having the direct object to establish
an absolute tyranny over these states."

- c. The English people were divided in their attitude toward the colonists' revolt.
  - (It is variously estimated that from one-fourth to one-half of the people in England were in sympathy with the American cause. Some enthusiasts claim a substantial majority against the king, George III, who was of German extraction and imbued with the ideals of autocracy.)
- d. Conclusion: The American Revolution was a revolt against a despotic ruler who did not represent the people, against a corrupted and controlled parliament that did not regard the established rights of Englishmen to tax themselves.

"If you ask the inhabitants of America what are the foundations of the liberty they enjoy, a great majority will name the American Revolution only. For this situation I blame the schools. \* \* \* For more than a century we have taught the American children to hate England, and this has led us to slur over the history of those foundations of our liberty that rest upon English soil. For more than a century we have in effect taught each generation of children that Lexington, Concord, and Bunker Hill were the beginning of all liberty.

"Our Revolution and our abolition of slavery were indeed major foundations of American liberty, and they are America's noble contribution to the list. But other battles have been fought and won, in the centuries past, which educated and inspired our fathers and made them master-builders to build these two American foundations.

"In teaching history it is essential that all Americans realize the struggle and the sacrifices of the hundred years consumed in building the foundations of liberty upon which the government of civilized democracy rests today. Knowing its history, they will recognize the vast heritage of civil liberty which they enjoy; and that that heritage was not built up by America alone, but is the common work of the English-speaking race." ("America's Debt to England in History," Teacher's Magazine, January, 1918.)

- 6. The Bill of Rights, the first ten amendments to the Constitution of the United States, is further indication of the influence of the English heritage.
  - a. The principles there stated were so well recognized and fixed in the minds of the makers of the Constitution that they were not included in the document itself;
  - b. These principles are apparently the principles of English government.

"The Bill of Rights is the most interesting part of these constitutions, being, as they are, the legitimate child and representative of Magna Charta and the English Bill of Rights." (James Bryce, "The American Commonwealth," vol. I, p. 438.)

- 7. The period between the wars with England represents further misunderstanding of American relations with Great Britain:
  - a. England did not make restitution for slaves carried away and did not give up the frontier forts in accordance with the treaty of 1783, because
  - b. The States failed to accept the recommendation of Congress concerning the payment of British debts and the restoration of property of loyalists confiscated during the war;
  - c. On the sea, England gave an interpretation, differing from our own, to a principle of international law, maintaining that "once an Englishman, always an Englishman," which led to "impressment"; a point that has been conceded by England;
  - d. The United States maintained that "free ships make free goods"; a point that has been conceded by the United States in later times;
  - e. The interference with our commerce was justified upon the same grounds as in the present war—necessary for the control of commerce upon which England depends for self-preservation;
  - f. The conduct of the war was not creditable to the United States;
    - (The comment, "In 1812 we licked them well," is not entirely correct. The conduct of the navy was a credit to the American people; the land campaigns were a humiliation.
    - (1) There was no preparation for war before the declaration:
    - (2) After the declaration, dependence was placed upon the militia; there was not even a trained national guard;
    - (3) The number of troops employed by the British, 16,500 (about one-third the number they had in the Revolution); by the Americans, 525,600;
    - (4) The comparative worth of the troops in action is indicated by the following, taken from the records of the war office:
      - (a) In July, 1812, General Hull crossed to Canada from Detroit with 1,800 men, retreated,

surrendered without firing a shot, to the British who had 720 soldiers and 600 Indians. Hull, who was a good soldier of the Revoluation, claimed the soldiers were insubordinate.

- (b) During the year at least five similar occurrences are reported; 43,187 militia and 15,000 regular troops opposed 5,200 British without accomplishing anything.
- (c) The showing for 1813 and 1814 on land is little better. The culmination was the capture of the capital at Washington. An army of defense consisting of 5,400 was attacked and dispersed, leaving the capital open to the British, with a loss of 8 men and 11 wounded. (During 1814, 235,839 American troops opposed 16,500 British.)
- (d) The campaign of 1815, two weeks after the treaty of peace, was decidedly successful. General Jackson, with 5,600 strongly intrenched, defeated the British, with about 8,000, making frontal attack. Henry Clay said, "It wound up a disastrous and humiliating war in a blaze of glory."
- (5) The conclusion of the war was reached because, as Lord Castlereagh, the English representative at the peace conference, said, "Affairs on the continent were not satisfactory." England was too absorbed in the European conditions to give more time to America.

(It is interesting to note that in the treaty of 1814, no mention is made of the causes for which the United States went to war, excepting the more trivial one, the question of Indian lands in the West. Yet for more than a hundred years peace has continued.)

- 8. The situation in the midst of our Civil War shows further that the English Government is not always the English people.
  - a. The British officials generally were "hostile or coldly neutral" toward the North.

- (1) They were personally interested in the manufaeture and commerce that resulted from relations with the South.
- (2) The Confederacy depended upon the English commerce to break the blockade.
- The British Government recognized the belligerency of the Confederacy;
- c. The people, although cut off from the cotton supply and suffering as a result, did not abandon the cause of the Union, which was the cause of human freedom:
- d. The stand of the English people was important in that upon it depended the attitude of the rest of Europe, for France and the other countries of the continent stated that they would follow the lead of the English.
- 9. The crises of the Spanish-American war furnished opportunity for the English to show sympathy and friendliness toward America:
  - a. France, Italy, Austria and Germany were openly sympathetic with Spain;
  - b. The British Ambassador to Berlin reported the proposed German intervention in behalf of the Spanish;
  - c. In Manila Bay, Dewey was discourteously treated by the commander of the German fleet, who asked the commander of the English fleet what would be the attitude of the British should an engagement occur between the German and American fleets; the attitude of the English probably saved trouble for us at that time.
  - d. The attitude of the two nations was shown during the war: England entirely friendly and helpful; Germany hostile generally.
- 10. Conclusion: Toward the English our relations, during the past century, have been amicable for the most part. At times differences have arisen, but they have been temporary and comparatively trivial. Our views of the English have been unfairly distorted by the efforts to exploit our own abilities and keep up the impression of the military invincibility of the Americans. The war is calling attention to conditions that have been disregarded

in the past; we are becoming broader in our thinking, more just in our relations. An incident of vital interest to Americans is the celebration of the Fourth of July by England and other nations of Europe and America, as expressive of the struggle for the protection of common interests.

11. Teaching the World War: America's relation to it (1898-1918).

("The Study of the Great War" and "The War Cyclopedia" are especially recommended; other material listed may be used to advantage.)

- 1. The importance of the World War in American history and in world history: it means
  - a. Autocracy versus Democracy. (For definition of terms, see War Cyclopedia.)
     (This is a war in which the fundamental principles of democracy are at stake.)
  - b. Imperialism versus Nationality. (Shall one powerful nation come to dominate the whole world, or shall each race and nationality find self-expression and have opportunity to work out its own course?)
  - c. German Kultur versus Western Civilization.

    (Shall the civilization common to the western world be crowded out by a type so odious as the German?)
- 2. The policy of America, 1793-1917, one of isolation, as shown by our great international principle:
  - a. It was formulated by Washington, 1793, in his Proclamation of Neutrality;
  - b. It was re-stated in the Monroe Doctrine, 1823;
  - c. President Wilson in August, 1914, appealed to the people for neutrality;
  - d. The justification of the policy is to be found in its usefulness: It allowed the natural development of the American Republic.
- 3. The American policy of isolation has been modified in recent years:
  - a. The Spanish-American War extended the interest of the United States; this country became a world power;

- b. The building of the Panama Canal and the participation in the Hague Conferences indicate the broadening interests of the United States;
- c. The purchase of the Danish West Indies gives further expression of the same extension of interests.
- 4. The European background for the World War.
  - a. Europe always has been in an unsettled condition, and this has been especially true since the Franco-Prussian War.
  - b. The formation of the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente is expression of the jealousy and fear existing among the nations of Europe;
  - c. The ambitious plan of Germany develops through the longest period of peace that Europe has experienced:
    - (1) The rulers are ambitious to rule the world;
    - (2) The attempt is made to spread German Kultur through propaganda;
    - (3) This plan eventually leads to war.
- 5. The outbreak comes in 1914:
  - a. The responsibility rests on Germany for not preventing it.

"It now appears beyond the possibility of a doubt that this war was made by Germany pursuing a long and settled purpose. For many years she had been preparing to do exactly what she has done, with a thoroughness, a perfection of plans, and a vastness of provision in men, munitions, and supplies never before equaled or approached in human history. brought the war on when she chose, because she chose, in the belief that she could conquer the earth, nation by nation." (Elihu Root, September, 1917.) "Thus we deliberately destroyed the possibility of a peaceful settlement. In view of these incontestable facts, it is no wonder that the whole civilized world outside of Germany, places the sole responsibility for the World War upon our shoulders." (Prince Lichnowsky, ambassador to England from Germany at time of outbreak of war, in published statement, March, 1918.)

- b. The calculations of Germany with respect to England and America fail; these peoples should remain neutral through fear, unpreparedness, or self-interest.
- 6. America attempts to maintain neutrality:
  - a. This attitude in harmony with our national policy since the time of Washington;
  - b. America maintained official neutrality until 1917;
  - c. American public opinion clearly favored the Allies after the invasion of Belgium;
  - d. Germany continuously violated our rights and carried on propaganda in the United States before and after 1914.
- 7. The policy of American isolation and neutrality failed:
  - a. Isolation is impossible for a great nation when a modern war on a large scale is in progress;
  - b. Germany repeatedly disregarded international law and international ethics;
  - c. America of necessity is interested in the outcome of the war and the terms of peace.

#### 8. America enters the war:

- a. A change took place in American public opinion between 1914 and 1917; President Wilson anticipated and correctly interpreted this change;
- b. President Wilson outlines to Congress the interest of the United States in the conclusion of the war, January 22, 1917.
- c. German ruthless submarine warfare re-opened February 1, 1917;
- d. The Zimmerman note, proposing an alliance of Mexico and Japan against the United States, becomes public at the end of February;
- e. Diplomatic relations between the United States and Germany severed;
- f. "Armed neutrality" orders were issued to the merchant vessels early in March;
- g. Declaration of a state of war existing between Germany and the United States made April 6, 1917; between Austria and the United States December 7, 1917.

The joint resolution declaring war:

"Whereas the Imperial Government has committed repeated acts of war against the Government and the people of the United States of America; Therefore be it

"Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States in Congress assembled, That the state of war between the United States and the Imperial German Government which has thus been thrust upon the United States, is hereby formally declared \* \* \*."

- 9. The reasons for America entering the war may be summarized:
  - a. Germany violated the rights of American citizens;
  - b. Germany persisted in her indiscriminate submarine policy;
  - c. The realization that the United States have outgrown their isolation;
  - d. The fear that the Central Powers might win the war and dictate terms of peace that would be disastrous to the whole world, including America;
  - e. The feeling that the very existence of democratic government is threatened: "That the world must be made safe for democracy."
- 10. The aims in the war have changed since America entered:
  - a. The President has stated the aims of America in addresses to Congress:
    - (1) In a speech to Congress January 22, 1917:
      - (a) A lasting peace must recognize the principle of self-government;
      - (b) The principle of the Monroe Doctrine must be extended over the world;
      - (c) The freedom of the seas must be determined by a conference of nations;
      - (d) Armaments must be limited to the demands of maintaining order;
      - (e) There must be a league of nations to enforce peace.

(2) In a speech to Congress, April 2, 1917:

"The world must be made safe for democracy. Its peace must be planted upon the tested foundations of political liberty. We have no selfish ends to serve. We desire no conquests, no dominions. We seek no indemnities for ourselves, no material compensation for the sacrifices we shall freely make. We are but one of the champions of the rights of mankind. We shall be satisfied when those rights have been made as secure as the faith and the freedom of nations can make them."

## (3) In a speech January 8, 1918:

- (a) There must be no more secret international agreements, diplomacy must be open and in the public view;
- (b) The seas shall be free outside territorial waters in peace and in war, except as they may be closed by international agreement;
- (c) There shall be equality of trade among all nations consenting to the peace and associating themselves for its maintenance;
  - (d) Reduction of armaments to the lowest point consistent with domestic safety must be assured;
- (e) In adjusting colonial claims the people shall have equal weight with the claims of the governments concerned;
  - (f) Russia shall be left free to determine her future:
  - (g) Belgium must be evacuated and restored to unrestricted sovereignty;
  - (h) All French territory must be restored and the "wrong of 1870 done to France by Prussia in the matter of Alsace-Lorraine should be righted";
  - (i) The frontiers of Italy should be re-adjusted along clearly recognized lines of nationality;
  - (j) Roumania, Montenegro, Serbia should be evacuated, and Serbia should have access to the sea;

- (k) Turkey should be secured in autonomous government; people under Turkish rule should be guaranteed security of life; the Dardanelles should be open to all nations under international guarantees;
- (1) A Polish state should be formed with access to the sea, and its security guaranteed by the nations;
- (m) A league of nations must be formed to guarantee independence and territorial integrity to all nations, great and small, alike.
- b. The aims of America in the war have reacted favorably on the people of the allied powers, and have lifted the war above selfish aims generally.

"The great mass of the people of the Allies are not fighting for ports and provinces and trade; they are fighting for the common interests of the whole family of civilized nations—for nothing less than the cause of mankind. They can unite from the ends of the earth as one people, sinking their national peculiarities, because they are drawn by a bond deeper than language or nationality or race; they are drawn by the bond that unites the nations. They are not fighting for French or English or American law, justice, truth, honor; but for international law, international justice, international truth, international honor.

"The new national pride and patriotism developed by this conflict finds its basis in the service which each nation renders to the cause above all nations, the cause of civilized society, the cause of civilized men

"If out of the travail of this war there is to come a new birth of national freedom under international law, if these our numberless dead are not to have died in vain, we must keep our great war aims ever vividly before us. We must not merely defeat our adversaries, but also establish the principles for which we drew the sword." (American and Allied Ideals. Committee on Public Information.)

- III. Teaching Citizenship: definite, formal attempt in the upper grades.
  - 1. The changing conception of the study of civics.
    - "A true political education is a very different thing from much that passed current under the title. It is not a study of facts about government. A man should possess a knowledge about the workings of our social and political machinery, but that they constitute a necessary and valuable training for citizenship we are justified in making protest. As ordinarily taught, they tend to fix the attention of the pupil on the mechanism of the government rather than on its underlying principles; to exaggerate the tendency toward laying stress on institutions rather than on individuals; to prepare the minds of the next generation to look for superficial remedies for political evils, instead of seeing that the only true remedy lies in the creation of a sound public opinion." (President Hadley, Yale University.)
    - a. The earlier study of civics only a consideration of the machinery of government; in the very early stages a mere study of the Constitution of the United States.
    - b. Community civics a study of the conditions of the community—local, state, national, and international; the relations between the individual and the community.
      - "Community civics helps the child to know his community—not merely a lot of facts about it, but the meaning of his community life,—what it does for him, how it does it, what the community has a right to expect from him, and how he may fulfill his obligation; meanwhile cultivating in him the essential qualities and habits of good citizenship." ("Teaching of Government," pp. 83-84.)
      - (1) The aim of community civics is to lead the pupil:
        - (a) To see the importance and significance of the elements of community welfare in their relations to himself and to the communities of which he is a member;
        - (b) To know the social agencies, governmental and voluntary, that exist to secure these elements of community welfare;

(c) To recognize his civic responsibility, present and future, and to respond to it by appropriate action.

"The aim of civics teaching is to help the child to realize himself as a member of each political group that does work for him." (Committee of Eight.)

- (2) The chief emphasis should be the obligation of the citizen to serve the community.

  The qualities of citizenship cannot come from a mere accumulation of dry and more or less uninteresting facts, nor from abstract generalization about these facts; they must arise from a live interest, which can be cultivated only by direct contact with community activities.
- 2. The instruction must be based on the principles:
  - a. The child in school is a citizen with the interests and responsibilities of citizenship.
  - b. Direct contact with community living should be recognized as largely as possible.
  - c. The interests of the community—local, state, national, and international—are the interests of the individual.
  - d. What is desired among the people generally should be placed in the schools, for the people are influenced indirectly by the school experience of the children.
  - e. Co-operative action is the first essential in community living.
  - f. Winning the war is the first interest calling for the co-operation of every citizen.
    - "The war is bringing to the minds of the people a new appreciation of the problems of national life and a deeper understanding of the meaning and aims of democracy.
    - "In these vital tasks of acquiring a broader view of human possibilities the school must play a large part. I urge that teachers increase materially the time and attention devoted to instruction bearing directly on the problems of community and national life.
      - "Such a plea is in no way foreign to the spirit of American public education. Nor is it a plea for a temporary enlargement of the school program appro-

priate merely to the period of the war. It is a plea for the realization in public education of the new emphasis which war has given to the ideals of democracy and to the broader conceptions of national life." (President Wilson, Address to the Schools, 1917.)

"The schools are the laboratory of citizenship. The children are little citizens and must be guided in such present experience as will make certain their future dedication to the welfare of the Republic." (President Mary C. C. Bradford, National Education Association, in "A Call to the Colors.")

"The military strength of France lies \* \* \* in the moral strength and spiritual unity of the French people. The unity is not forced. It is the flower of the French spirit, the product of their innate love of their home land, fostered and developed by a wise national education. Moral and patriotic education has for years formed the heart of national education there. The truths which the country needs in the great conflict, the schools make known everywhere." (J. H. Finley, former New York Commissioner of Education, in "Duties of Schools When the Nation is at War.")

- 3. The approach to the subject may be made through the immediate local interest, such as the conservation of sugar. (See illustration of the project-problem method.) With this as the basis, the whole subject of the control of the food supply may follow, including: (Bulletin on Conservation and Regulation, U. S. Food Administration.)
  - a. The purpose of the Food Administration.

    The Food Administration Law, enacted August 10,
    1917: "An act to provide further for the national
    security and defense by encouraging the production,
    conserving the supply, and controlling the distribution of food products and fuel."
    - (1) The saving of food and the avoidance of waste;
    - (2) The substitution of plentiful foods for the less plentiful.
  - b. The organization of the Food Administration, as arranged by Herbert C. Hoover.

The general plan provides for centralized and single authority, with the delegation of this responsibility to secondary officials.

- (1) The Food Administration at Washington, with its divisions and volunteer co-operation.
- (2) The Federal Administration in the states.

  The Federal Food Administrator serves without pay; it is his duty to administer the provisions of the food control law as it applies to the state conditions, to co-ordinate the state food activities with the work of the administration.
- (3) The state administration in the counties and local divisions.
- c. The conservation of food through:
  - (1) Voluntary conservation: education and patriotism the basis for saving food and eliminating waste, depending upon:
    - (a) The co-operation of established agencies, such as trade organizations, educational institutions, women's organizations, etc.;
    - (b) Direct appeal to consumers, by visual instruction, speaking campaigns, personal canvass, and co-operation of the press.
  - (2) Compulsory conservation: a method used to supplement the voluntary plan of conservation, which has not met the need.
    - (a) Control of the food supply through a general system of licensing to limit prices, to prevent speculation, to keep all food products moving to the consumer (no hoarding), and to limit contracts for future delivery; applicable to "all persons, firms, corporations, and associations engaged in operating cold storage plants, elevators, and to all manufacturers and importers." Not applicable to businesses under \$100,000 in amount.
    - (b) Control of the food supply through local dealers, depending upon the card system.

- d. The fixing of prices of food products.

  This is not specifically included in the food control act, but it is assumed as a part of the power of the Food Administration.
- 4. The food production, as a movement on the part of the government, is in charge of the Secretary of Agriculture and 20,000 trained assistants, whose effort is:
  - a. To increase the production of food materials;
  - b. To encourage the preserving of foods by canning, drying, preserving;
  - c. To control pests, diseases of crops;
  - d. To promote reclamation projects, such as irrigation, drainage, etc.;
  - e. To further the organization of boys' and girls' clubs;
  - f. To promote every kind of education for the agricultural population. The county agricultural agent illustrates the movement.
- 5. The Fuel Administration follows closely the organization of the Food Administration. (Bulletin on Conservation of Fuel, U. S. Fuel Administration.)
  - a. The early work of the Federal Trade Commission led to;
  - Recommendations for government control over production and distribution; government control of the means of transportation;
  - c. The law of August, 1917, gave the President power to fix the prices of coke and coal, to take over any plant when necessary, to purchase all coke and coal for resale;
  - d. The services rendered have included control over production and prices; also some control over labor in connection with the fuel industry.
- 6. The operation of the railroads by the government, a war measure.
  - a. Under the unusual demands for transportation, the railroads failed to meet the needs of the government.
  - b. Government assistance through loans considered.

c. Government operation an experiment with guaranteed returns to the roads, based on their pre-war earnings.

(It may be noted that the government has taken over the telegraphs as an additional means of control over transportation and communication.)

7. The finances of the war.

In recent times the theory of taxation is that taxes shall be levied on the basis of ability to pay.

- a. The general problem of the government is to secure funds to defray the expenses of the government without crippling the country in any way.
  - (1) Shall wealth pay the taxes?
  - (2) Shall the people generally meet the need of the government?
- b. Recognition must be given to:
  - (1) The necessity for the growth of industry;
  - (2) The need for the protection of labor, since the physical and other welfare of the laborer is essential to his efficiency.
- c. The middle policy pursued; the support of public opinion an essential.
- d. The methods of taxation. (Every bank has material that may be had on request.)
  - (1) The income tax;
  - (2) The war excess profits tax;
  - (3) Minor forms of taxation: tax on beverages, cigars and tobacco, automobiles, moving pictures.
- e. Other sources of revenue.
  - (1) Liberty bonds;
  - (2) United States certificates of indebtedness;
  - (3) The war savings: thrift stamps, war-savings stamps.
- 8. The army and the navy in time of war. (National Service Handbook, Committee on Public Information.)
  - a. Types of men in the service: the militia, regular army men, volunteers, and conscripted men.
  - b. Conscription:
    - (1) Lists of men between 21 and 31; the new law provides for men between 18 and 45, inclusive.

- (2) Classification and exemption.
- c. The training of men: officers' training camps, cantonments for the men, special training opportunities.
- d. Supplies and materials.
- e. General scheme of organization.
- 9. The organization of government in time of war. (A. B. Hart, "America at War" and the War Cyclopedia.)
  - a. Local organizations, such as parent-teachers' associations, war-savings societies, war councils.
  - b. The state government.
    - (1) Local committees;
    - (2) State councils of defense;
      - (3) The state governors and legislatures.
    - c. The national government.
      - (1) Volunteer service of professional and industrial leaders—"dollar-a-year men."
      - (2) The national council of defense;
      - (3) The cabinet;
      - (4) The Congress: war measures and means;
      - (5) The war President.

        President Wilson's theory of the office is that the President who conscientiously seeks the welfare of the people is not bound by any constitutional limitations, but that he may do any service that he is able to accomplish.
- 10. The general principles of the warring types of government.
  - "No one can take an intelligent part in the great conflict for the safety of democracy unless he is really interested in and knows something of the other nations than his own—about the differences between a republican government like our own and a strong monarchical system like that of the German Empire, in which the most important measures affecting the national welfare may be practically determined by a single individual hereditary sovereign." ("Opportunity for History Teachers," p. 4.)
  - a. The autocratic type—Germany. (The German Government, Committee on Public Information.)
    "We Hohenzollerns take our crown from God alone,

and to God alone we are responsible for the fulfillment of our duties.

"Only one is master in the country and that am I. Who opposes me I shall utterly crush to pieces. All of you shall have only one will, and that is my will; there is only one law and that is my law." (Expressions taken from the public speeches of William II.) "If possible the powers should be made envious against one another, in order to give occasion for a coup when the opportunity comes.

"If a ruler is obliged to sacrifice his own person for the welfare of his subjects, he is all the more obliged to sacrifice treaty engagements, the continuance of which would be harmful to the country. Is it better that a nation should perish, or that a sovereign should break his word?

"Statesmanship can be reduced to three principles: first, to maintain your power and, according to circumstances, to extend it; second, to form alliances for your own advantage; third, to command fear and respect even in the most disastrous times.

"Do not be ashamed to make interested alliances from which you can derive the whole advantage. Do not hesitate to break them if your interests require it. "To despoil your neighbors is to deprive them of the means of despoiling you.

"When he is about to conclude a treaty, if a sovereign remembers that he is a Christian, he is lost." (Expressions of Frederick II.)

(For expressions of Nietzsche, Treitschke, and Bernhardi, see "The Ideals of Our War," National Security League Pamphlet.)

- (1) The autocratic power is supreme; the people are in absolute subjection;
- (2) The lower legislative house is a "debating society;" the upper represents the princes and not the people;

"As the German Imperial Government stands today it controls 170,000,000 armed for war as no territory ever was before. It is the last for-

tress of privilege and despotism the world over. While it remains the world cannot be made safe for democracy."

(3) All resources, human and divine, are for the development of state power.

Manufacture, commerce, and labor are brought under the control of the privileged class through investment in business by the privileged class, army positions open to families of the wealthy, labor legislation to satisfy ignorant labor—sick benefits, industrial insurance, old age pensions.

(4) German education implies class distinction.

"The volkeschulen (elementary public schools) are for the people generally, accommodating 10,000,000 children, over 90% of all school children, in 1911. The middle and higher schools are for those of noble birth and those who will become officials and professional men, 970,000 in 1911. The volkeschulen are for the training of the subject classes in obedience, patience, persistence, and thoroughness; the others are for the controlling classes.

"The educated class shoulder the burden and possess the responsibility of government; the unschooled are directed and cared for as dependents." (Century Magazine, December, 1917.)

b. The democratic type—the United States. (American Interest in Popular Government, Committee on Public Information):

"Observe good faith and justice toward all nations. Cultivate peace and harmony with all. Give to mankind the example of a people always guided by an exalted justice and benevolence." (Expressions of Washington.)

"These are the things we shall stand for:

"That all nations are interested in the peace of the world and in the political stability of free peoples and equal responsibility for their maintenance.

"That the essential principle of peace is the actual equality of nations in all matters of right and privilege.

"That peace cannot be secured by or justly rest upon an armed balance of power.

"That governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed, and that no other powers should be supported by the common thought, purpose or power of the family of nations.

"That the seas should be equally free and safe for the use of all peoples, under rules set up by common consent.

"That the national armament should be limited to the necessities of national order and domestic safety."

(Expressions of President Wilson.)

- (1) The primary interest is in popular government;
- (2) Individual initiative and self-reliance are of first importance;
- (3) Education recognizes that every child possesses inherent rights to the full development of its capacities.
- 11. The present obligation of the citizen involves:

"As yet the people of the United States have not proved that democracy is the most perfect form of government. We have failed to develop in the average citizen a sense of personal responsibility for the conduct of the government, sufficiently strong to translate itself into continuous service for the common good.

"Except in crises, we have not given to it the attention received by business matters of minor importance. Politics has been the by-product of a self-centered existence."
(S. S. Menken, Congress of National Service, 1918.)

- a. The support of the government's war policy through:
  - (1) Military service in time of need;
  - (2) Financial support through taxes and other contributions;
  - (3) Production as the opportunity offers;
  - (4) Conservation as directed by the government;
  - (5) Obedience to duly constituted authority;
- b. Proper attitude toward our population through recognition of:
- (1) The diversity of races in our citizenship;
  - (2) The problems of immigration;

## (3) The position of the enemy alien.

"Some of the best stuff of America has come out of foreign lands, and some of the best stuff in America is in the men who have become naturalized citizens of the United States. I would not be afraid upon the test of America first to take a census of all foreign-born citizens of the United States, for I know that a vast majority of them came here because they believed in America; and and their belief in America has made them better citizens than some people who were born in America." (President Wilson in A Tribute to the Foreign Born, Committee on Public Information.)

"A century and a half ago Americans of English birth rose to set free this country from the oppression of the rulers of England. Today Americans of German birth are called upon to rise, together with their fellow citizens of all races, to free not only this country but the whole world from the oppression of German rulers, an oppression far less capable of being endured and of far graver portent." (Otto Kahn, American Loyalty, Committee on Public Information.)

## c. Right thinking.

In a democracy no great war can be successfully waged without continued and intelligent popular approval. The fate of the nation depends upon popular opinion.

It has been stated that "agriculture is the foundation for war; mechanical production of instruments, the means; and the men in the battle line, the agents for winning the war."

After men, materials, and money have been provided, then attention is directed toward the morale of the people. The importance of the right attitude of mind is indicated by General Pershing's comment, "We will smash the German line in France if you will smash the Hun propaganda at home,"

While constructive criticism is not to be suppressed, destructive criticism should be suspected. Senator Hiram Johnson, in the United States Senate, February, 1918, said: "I protest against the set phrases, pro-German, disloyal, and partisan, which have been so indiscriminately applied to men patriotically differing from those who assume themselves to be sole exponents of the thought of the nation. May the day have gone forever when an American citizen shall be precluded by fear of denunciation and the epithet of disloyalty from expressing his honest and patriotic sentiments."

The other side of the case has been stated effectively by Elihu Root: "After the decision of the country to make war, the only issue left for the individual citizen is whether he is for or against his country. From this time on arguments against the war in which the country is engaged are enemy arguments \* \* the purpose and effect is so plain that it is impossible to resist the conclusion that the greater part of them are at heart traitors to the United States and willfully seeking to bring about the triumph of Germany and the defeat of the United States."

## 12. The present obligation of the alien enemy:

- a. They are here by courtesy and they are under obligation to act accordingly; internment may be necessary;
- b. They have come to improve their condition and they should recognize their opportunities;
- c. They must obey the laws;
- d. They must give no aid to the enemy; on the contrary;
- e. They are under moral obligation to stand by the country in which they have chosen to make their home and to show gratitude for the rights and privileges which they have enjoyed in America. (Suggestions for Teachers, National Security League.)

## 13. Special opportunities in the teaching of civics:

 a. The promotion of right living through recognition of hygienic laws; (The draft showed that 29 per cent. of those called were physically unfit.)

- b. The promotion of general welfare through attention to industrial conditions;
  - (It is estimated that over a million lives are sacrificed annually by causes that are preventable.)
- c. The encouragement of Americanization of foreigners;
- d. The teaching of social justice and honorable dealing;
- e. The suppression of radicalism in the extreme;
- f. The creation of the ideals for the present and the future in citizenship by:
  - (1) A study of the problems of democracy;
  - (2) The attitude, "Good government has become every man's business";
  - (3) The effort to interpret the expression, "The world must be made safe for democracy," as implying:
    - (a) Every individual has a selfish interest in the war;
    - (b) An unsuccessful ending of the war would imperil:

The lives of men;

The honor of women;

The education of children:

The freedom of speech and of religion;

The right to labor and enjoy the results;

The right to property exempt from burdensome taxation;

The liberties embodied in the Bill of Rights and the Constitution of the United States.

### 14. Conclusion:

a. The present necessities are a test of patriotism.

"I am firmly convinced that the independence of no nation is safe, that the liberty of no individual is sure, until the military despotism that holds the German people in the hollow of its hand has been made impotent and powerless forever. Appeals to justice, to moral obligation, to honor, no longer avail with such a power. There is but one way to restore peace to the world, and that is by overcoming the physical might of German imperialism by force of arms." (Secretary of State Robert Lansing, in "A War of Self-Defense.")

"The world must be made safe for democracy. Its peace must be planted upon the tested foundation of political liberty. We have no selfish ends to serve. We desire no conquests, no dominions. We seek no indemnities for ourselves, no material compensation for the sacrifices we shall make. We are but one of the champions of the rights of mankind. We shall be satisfied when these rights shall have been made secure as the faith and the freedom of nations can make them." (President Wilson, message to Congress, April 2, 1917.)

"Our whole strength will be put into this war of emancipation, whatever the difficulties and the partial delays. We are indomitable in our power of independent action, and can in no circumstances consent to live in a world governed by force and intrigue. We believe that our own desire for a new international order, under which reason and justice and the common interests of mankind shall prevail, is the desire of enlightened men everywhere. Without that new order the world will be without peace, and human life will lack tolerable conditions of existence and development. Having set our hand to the task of achieving it, we shall not turn back." (President Wilson, message to Congress, February 11, 1918.)

- b. Patriotic citizenship finds expression through:
  - (1) Paying taxes; contributions to war funds;
  - (2) Electing and keeping in office men who honestly and intelligently serve America first;
  - (3) Interest in and aid to soldiers' families;
  - (4) Patriotic talk to neighbors and friends;
  - (5) Civilian service to the government wherever possible:
  - (6) Participation in patriotic organizations;
  - (7) Military service when of suitable age;

- (8) Conservation of food and the curtailment of luxuries;
- (9) Insistence upon protection and justice within the country for all classes.

#### BIBLIOGRAPHY

The bibliography that follows includes government material that is sent free upon request as educational material for the people. Some of the publications must be paid for as indicated; unless there is the price attached, the material is free. The free material may be had in quantity for class use. It is recommended that the material be secured by the teacher, then that which seems desirable may be ordered for class use.

COMMITTEE ON PUBLIC INFORMATION, Washington, D. C.

Maps showing what Germany wants, and others.

The Study of the Great War.

War Cyclopedia (25 cents).

How the War Came to America.

National Service Handbook (15 cents).

Government of Germany.

American Interest in Popular Government Abroad.

The Battle Line of Democracy (collection of patriotic prose and poetry) (15 cents).

The Great War: From Spectator to Participant.

Why America Fights Germany.

NATIONAL SECURITY LEAGUE, 19 West 44th Street, New York. Wall charts, literature and patriotism.

Colored maps showing German plans for conquest.

Material for teachers of history and civics.

Handbook for Teachers.

Correspondence Course in Patriotism.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION, Washington, D. C.
Lessons on National and Community Life.

Other material on the teaching of history and civics.

UNITED STATES FOOD ADMINISTRATION, Washington, D. C. Material on food conservation; also food production.

UNITED STATES FUEL ADMINISTRATION, Washington, D. C. The Conservation of Fuel.

McKinley Publishing Company, Philadelphia, Pa.
Collected Materials for the Study of the War (65 cents).
History Teacher's Magazine (2 dollars a year).

COLORADO EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, 232 Century Building, Denver, Colorado.

The Colorado School Journal (membership in the Association at \$1.50 a year secures the journal. Every teacher in the state should be a member.)

Office of Surgeon General, Washington, D. C.
Carry On (a magazine dealing with reconstructive education, free on request).

Bureau of Publications, Department of Education, Denver, Colorado.

Loan of material to teachers. State your needs.

#### PATRIOTISM

The State Department of Public Instruction is deeply appreciative of the following suggestive outline for the teaching of Patriotism in the Public Schools. Therefore, desiring to give full credit to the author of the pamphlet, Etta V. Leighton, and the National Security League, by whom it is issued, it is reproduced verbatim as the basis for patriotic study in the Public Schools of this commonwealth:

"The noblest principle of education is to teach how best to live for one's country."—Balch.

"The problem confronting every teacher is: How can the demands of the present crisis for intensive training in citizenship, teaching of patriotism, and participation in war activities be met without unduly disturbing present procedure or interfering with the pupil's progress in his studies? These demands must be met, not by addition, but by substitution and adaptation.

"Every suggestion in this leaflet has been tried in some school room. The obligation rests on all of us to do our best in the second-line trench—the school room—and to pass on any help we can. It is in this spirit that these suggestions are offered.

"Everything learned should be flavored with a genuine love of country."—Edwards.

"Every good citizen makes his country's honor his own, and cherishes it, not only as precious, but as sacred."—Fisher Ames.

The Good Citizen is:

Intelligent, Alert, Energetic and Patriotic.

Flag Day Speech, June 14, 1917.

"Let the people know the truth and the country is safe." —Lincoln.

Teach the Issues of the War:

- 1. Immediate—Freedom of the Seas. Our right challenged by Germany. Our citizens murdered by Germany.
- 2. Inclusive—Democracy against Autocracy.

  "The great fact stands out that this is a People's War, a war for freedom and justice and self-government amongst all the nations of the world, a war to make the world safe for the peoples who live upon it."—Woodrow Wilson,

See "Why We Are at War."—National Security League.

GIVE REASONS FOR ALL FUND-RAISING CAMPAIGNS in concise but heart-stirring phrases. Let upper grades draw cartoons, lower grades write letters—appeals for subscriptions. Stores will gladly display cartoons; letters may be read to family circles, or best letters may be sent to English and foreign-language press or school papers.

COMMITTEES OF CORRESPONDENCE may be formed of pupils in upper grades of all schools to collect information of and report in auditorium on patriotic activities of other schools. In this way emulation may be roused and unity of action attained. These committees can begin:

THE WAR TIME HISTORY OF THE SCHOOL, a volume which might well consist of

- 1. A Principal and Teacher's Part.
- 2. A Pupils' Part.
- 3. A Parents' and Friends' Section.

Many would be glad to feel that evidence of their interest and help would become part of the school records.

COPIES OF THE PRESIDENT'S ADDRESSES, kept up to date by newspaper extracts, should be in each school.

Reading, English, Spelling and Composition, and Penmanship lessons can be based on them. Telling phrases may be translated into French, German, Spanish or other languages.

Selected Sentences or paragraphs from the addresses, or other patriotic literature, may be used for Reading in the Lower Grades. It is not necessary that each member of a class possess a copy. We have diffusion of attention and poor enunciation partly as a result of supplying everyone with a copy of the text read.

The Daily Newspapers should be drawn on for patriotic quotations for use in spelling, grammer, oral and written composition and penmanship.

LIBRARY COMMITTEE ON PATRIOTISM—Each building should have complete sets of all available patriotic literature. To save time for the busy teacher a library committee of upper grade pupils, with perhaps a teacher chairman or adviser, should supply each teacher with a catalogue, and if possible with an index.

Comment Unfriendly to America should be reported (without names) to the library committee, who will be expected to supply the refuting argument.

The Statistics of Liberty Loans, Thrift Stamps, Income Tax, Campaigns for Funds, may form part of an arithmetic lesson occasionally. These statistics can be adapted to any grade.

Important News Items, cut out and affixed to sheets of paper may be passed to the class for each pupil to read in spare moments, sign the sheet and pass on. An occasional 3 to 5-minute written paper on items so read will enable the teacher to gauge the intelligence of the class and to clear up vague points.

A Clear Statement of Fundamental American Doctrine may be compiled in upper grades from Constitution, Declaration of Independence, and sayings of distinguished Americans.

Emphasis should be placed on the fact that every Right implies a corresponding Duty.

"Equality of opportunity and privilege goes hand in hand with equality of obligation in war as well as peace."—Major-General Leonard Wood.

"All that is best in American life has come through loyalty and hardship, and the benefits of a free citizenship can be kept only by loyal service and ready sacrifice."—W. E. Ranger.

#### FIVE ABSOLUTE RIGHTS

These three came from our English Founders:

- 1. The Right of Personal Security.
- 2. The Right of Personal Liberty.

3. The Right of Personal Property.

#### Americans added:

- 4. The Right of Freedom in Religious Belief and Practice.
- 5. The Right of Freedom of Speech and of the Press.

#### COMMON LAW MAXIMS

These three maxims help to interpret the present limitation on speech and press:

"Between public and private rights, the public right must prevail."

"Liberty to all, but preference to none."

"Those offenses should be most severely punished which are most difficult to guard against."

The definition of treason in the Constitution also indicates that in time of war freedom of speech shall not be confused with sedition.

Teach that our CONSTITUTION is ELASTIC and can be changed by amendment when necessary.

#### Lincoln said:

"Revolutionize through the ballot box."

"Liberty is your birthright."

"Learn the laws and obey them."

#### STUDY THE SOLDIER

Let the soldier's obedience, the soldier's respect for his officers, his loyalty to his regiment, be brought into the school translated into terms of obedience to teachers, respect to superiors and love and loyalty toward the school.

Use language periods to learn of the gradation in rank—markings which show them—organization of army—opportunity for promotion, etc. Make Democracy's children proud of Democracy's army.

#### TEACHERS AND PUPILS MUST BE GUARDIANS OF LIBERTY

They should not be suspicious of their neighbors, but if aware of disloyalty must not become partners in crime by concealing it nor spread it by wide publication, but rather quietly report it in the proper quarter. Disloyalty may often be nipped in the bud if parents or guardians or officers of societies to which the offender belongs are notified. Remember that Common Sense, Good Judgment and Mutual Trust are patriotic virtues.

#### TEACH PRESIDENT WILSON'S DEFINITION OF LOYALTY

"Loyalty is not a self-pleasing virtue. I am bound to be loyal to the United States because I live under its laws and am its citizen, and whether it hurts me or whether it benefits me, I am obliged to be loyal. Loyalty means that you ought to be ready to sacrifice every interest that you have and your life itself if your country calls upon you to do so."—Address at Washington, July 13, 1916.

#### PATRIOTISM

We show our patriotism by our deeds. Here is a good definition. Those of us who can't fight can save, and serve, and sacrifice.

"True patriotism means four things:

- 1. It means reverence for the past traditions of one's country.
- 2. It means devotion to the present institutions of one's country.
- 3. It means loyalty to the future ideals of one's country.
- 4. It means valor to fight, if needs be, in defense of these same institutions and ideals."

-Robert Goldsmith.

ARM THE PUPILS against Enemy Propaganda, especially insidious peace proposals, by teaching them President Wilson's words:

"Do you not now understand the new intrigue, the intrigue of peace, and why the Masters of Germany do not hesitate to use any agency that promises to effect their purpose, the deceit of the Nations? Their present particular aim is to deceive all those who throughout the world stand for the rights of the peoples and self-government of nations: for they see what immense strength the forces of justice and of liberalism are gathering out of this war."—Wilson, Flag Day Address, June 14, 1917.

"Let there be no misunderstanding. Our present and immediate task is to win the war, and nothing shall turn us aside from it until it is accomplished. Those who desire to bring peace about before that purpose is achieved I counsel to carry their advice elsewhere. We will not entertain it.—Wilson, Dec. 4, 1917.

Teach them also:

- "Peace is not the end; righteousness is the end."-Roosevelt.
- "We must keep a straight eye on the purpose for which we entered the war, otherwise the sacrifice we are making will be in vain."—David Lloyd George.
  - "Justice is the greatest need of man."—Webster.
- "No terms except an unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted."—Grant.
- "Keep the jewel of liberty in the family of freedom."—Lincoln.

"The war will end when we win."-Secretary Baker.

#### THE POWER OF PUBLIC OPINION

#### "A little child shall lead them."

Even the youngest children can help to build up the morale of the nation if they are told in school what to tell their parents. If teachers, like advertisers, would take one thought a week and impress that on their children and have them carry it home and impress it on their people, great good would result. They are doing this with the Thrift Stamps. A western teacher had her little pupils spend a day in making ships, drawing, cutting, modelling them. They took them home; that night the entire town awakened to the need of ships. Teachers can send through their children a constructive thought every day or every week, making American propaganda meet enemy propaganda.

"With public sentiment, nothing can fail; without it, nothing can succeed."—Lincoln.

Junior Four-Minute Men and other movements like Junior Red Cross, the Thrift Stamp, W. S. S., are citizen-making activities that we must find time for by planning for intensive work in the Three R's. History, Civics, and English composition are all combined when the boy or girl prepares the 4-minute speech. A squad of these young people could do effective propaganda work. Schools might exchange speakers; they might be represented by their best "4-minute" speakers at all public meetings.

#### AMERICANIZATION

Teachers should urge pupils to perform willingly what is perhaps the greatest single service in their power—that is, to Teach

English to those unable to speak it. The individual responsibility should be brought home tactfully to those who have relatives, friends, or acquaintances whose lack of knowledge of our language shuts them out of the circle of our thought. Let the test of their loyalty be their willingness to learn English and the test of our patriotism our willingness to teach them.

#### LIST OF HELPFUL MATERIAL

Democracy Today—Guass. Scott, Foresman.

Bugle Call of Liberty. Iroquois Publishing Co.

Lessons for Junior Citizens—Hill. Ginn and Co.

The Heart of Blackstone—Paul. (Common Law.) Abingdon Press.

The Independent. Official Organ National Security League.

Documents from Committee on Public Information.

Documents from National Security League.

Universal Training for Citizenship and Public Service. MacMillan Co.

# The Kaiser and Lincoln Contrasted In Letters to Sorrowing Mothers

(From Passaic (N. J.) Daily News, August 10, 1918.)

A New York Times correspondent sends from Paris the text of a letter written by the Kaiser to a German woman who has lost nine sons in the war, which is now going the rounds of the European press. It is particularly interesting to Americans because of its sharp contrast to the famous letter of President Lincoln to Mrs. Bixby during the American Civil War. The two letters follow:

#### THE KAISER'S LETTER

"His Majesty the Kaiser hears that you have sacrificed nine sons in defense of the Fatherland in the present war. His Majesty is immensely gratified at the fact, and in recognition is pleased to send you his photograph, with frame and autograph signature."

(Frau Meter, who received the letter, has now joined the street beggars in Delmenhors-Oldenburg, to get a living.)

#### LINCOLN'S LETTER

Dear Madam—I have been shown in the files of the War Department a statement of the Adjutant General of Massachusetts that you are the mother of five sons who have died gloriously on

the field of battle. I feel how weak and fruitless must be any words of mine which should attempt to beguile you from the grief of a loss so over-whelming. But I cannot refrain from tendering to you the consolation that may be found in the thanks of the Republic they died to save. I pray that our Heavenly Father may assuage the anguish of your bereavement and leave you only the cherished memory of the loved and lost, and the solemn pride that must be yours to have laid so costly a sacrifice upon the altar of freedom."

