The Development of Secondary Social Studies Content in the Public Schools of Utah from 1847-1967

George O. Rampton
Utah State University

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF SECONDARY SOCIAL STUDIES
CONTENT IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF
UTAH FROM 1847-1967

by

George O. Rampton

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree
of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
in
Curriculum Development and Supervision

UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY
Logan, Utah

1969
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An expression of gratitude for the help, patience, and understanding of my wife, Carol, and our five sons is acknowledged. Additionally, a measure of devotion is expressed to my parents, Verne W. and Ruth Bybee Rampton, for their support, interest and encouragement.

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ABSTRACT

THE DEVELOPMENT OF SECONDARY SOCIAL STUDIES CONTENT IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF UTAH FROM 1847-1967

by

George Oliver Hampton

Utah State University, 1969

Major Professor: Dr. John D. Haas
Department: Secondary Education

The purpose of this study was to trace the development of the content of the disciplines in the social studies curriculum in the public secondary schools of Utah from 1847 to 1967. The factors considered in dealing with the development of the social studies curriculum were: textbooks, courses of study, and associated teacher materials used by the students in the public secondary schools of the Utah territory and state. The school subjects within the social studies curriculum included: history, geography, civics, economics, psychology, sociology, and anthropology. These school subjects were examined chronologically for the period, 1847-1967, to determine events that reflected major educational changes in the school curriculum of Utah.

From the findings of the study, it was concluded that:

1. History as a subject in the public secondary schools of Utah from 1847 to 1967 was characterized by growth and development. This was through the greater availability of textbooks and the appearance of the subject at different grade levels. National committees in the
United States have prominently influenced the instructional content of history in Utah through textbooks and courses of study.

2. Geography was taught as a separate subject of study in the public secondary schools of Utah. As one of the first of the social studies offered it received major emphasis during the territorial period. Efforts in the nineteenth century to improve the geography textbooks in American education brought forth materials that included maps, globes, drawings of the earth's physical features, and study of the pupil's home region. Present-day practices traced to national developments came from the Committee of Ten, 1892, and the 1916 report of the Committee of Social Studies by the National Education Association which exerted influences on geography instruction in the secondary schools of Utah.

3. Civics and other associated materials in the political science field including law and constitution owe their greatest debt of existence in the Utah territorial schools to the teaching of American history. The first evidence of a separate offering of materials from the study of civics in Utah's public schools was in 1892. On the national level various committee reports since 1892 by the American Political Science Association, American Historical Association, and the National Education Association have materially shaped school courses in Utah in the great task of citizenship training.

4. Economics, formerly known as political economy, never enjoyed a prominent position in the schools of Utah. During the first three decades of the present century the subject of economics gained a foothold in the program of studies of Utah schools. Since the 1960's implementation of economic materials have assisted in promoting greater
economic understanding.

5. Psychology as a school study was found in other subject-matter textbooks used in Utah secondary schools before psychology became an independent and separate subject in 1921. A very limited number of high school textbooks in psychology on state approved textbook listings, over the years, may be evidence that this subject has not been a strong, separate and independent subject in Utah schools.

6. Sociology prior to 1913 was not an independent subject of study in Utah schools. Since 1913 it has been taught on a limited basis. The emerging in 1930 of the course in present-day problems in American democracy contained then as it presently does, elements of sociology, economics, and political science.

7. Anthropology in Utah schools had been taught from the behavioral content of history, geography, sociology etc., but there has been little effort to identify the anthropological concepts. Anthropology has not yet become firmly established as a separate and independent subject in Utah schools.

(273 pages)
INTRODUCTION

This is a historical study. It seeks to trace the development or content of the disciplines in the social studies curriculum in the public secondary schools of Utah from 1847 to 1967. Beginning with the arrival of the permanent settlers in the Utah region, the three R's, exclusive of some theological and moral training, comprised the course of study in this early era of Utah's educational history (Young, 1917a). Leaders in education gradually began to advocate the addition of other areas of learning to the curriculum. These changes in the expanding curriculum in Utah, especially in relation to the social studies, are the primary concern of this study.

Purpose and need for the study

The issues and problems which confront curriculum workers today are not of recent origin. Their beginnings and background are contained in antiquity. Formal education in modern times gradually became the major social process by which a culture socialized its young. Whatever the problem, man in the past was able to define it, explore it, and then finally to formulate answers to it. This was neither simple nor sudden. It was the result of evolutionary development through many eras of time.

As mankind evolves and changes, so does education. It is largely through the latter that mankind's future may be improved. Education has become a means of survival both socially and physically, in a world continually threatened by conflict which was the result basically of
both successes and failures in past education. For the educator as well as the statesman it is essential to learn from history. Curriculum workers in particular need to be alert to the many lessons which may be learned from viewing the evolutionary development of the educational curriculum. A degree of historical perspective along with imagination and vision are necessary ingredients in looking ahead.

The problem with history is its abundance. The meaning of what has happened in the past may, or may not, influence what is transpiring now. In dealing with the evolution of the social studies curriculum, therefore, it is necessary to be selective in order that coherent statements which may orient the reader to major situations and developments from the past may be used as effective vehicles for judging and viewing discernible influences today. The combining of narrative and chronological information may contribute to an understanding of present day curricular problems as they may reveal implications and significant trends for curriculum building. It is hoped that this investigation will enable curriculum workers, teachers, and administrators to more clearly visualize what constitutes the field of social studies; to identify general trends in content and emphasis; and to understand the general relationship between social changes and the social studies curriculum. With no extensive study in the social studies curriculum of the public secondary schools of Utah having been conducted, it is hoped that the investigation may serve to fill at least some of the "gaps" in the educational history of Utah.

Procedure

The research procedure employed was the thematic historical method.
The thematic method involved the selection of topic headings grouped under chronological periods. The study was organized into the various subject-matter fields within the social studies curriculum for the period 1847-1967. Each section covers the evolution of each subject-matter field for the past one hundred and twenty years.

In examining the literature of social studies education, one becomes aware of the numerous studies which attribute significance to the textbook as a major determinant of the curriculum.

The textbook. Maxwell (1921) reported that the textbook as an acceptable tool in teaching in the school has placed the teachers entirely dependent upon its use, and without the textbook teachers would be hopelessly lost as would the mariner without a compass. An analysis of school textbooks used in the past reveals a truer history of what was taught in the earlier schools than does a study of the past educational theories (Nietz, 1961). The National Society for the Study of Education in 1931 recognized the significant position of textbooks in the program of American education in sponsoring a yearbook on the theme, "The Textbook," in which it was stated that the textbook in the United States occupies a more important position in our educational system than it does in the systems of many foreign countries. Hunt and Metcalf (1955) pointed out that most secondary social studies courses continue to be built around textbooks. The textbook, according to Wesley and Wronski (1958), has probably exerted more direct influence on the social studies curriculum and on teaching methods in this country than any other single factor. Extensive evidence seems to indicate that the textbook tends to be the major content in the social studies curriculum.
In this study, textbooks were analyzed and examined in terms of content emphasis. Textbook studies, previously published which seemed pertinent, were examined in order to provide a basis for later comparisons and are cited in the appropriate sections.

Courses of study. Representative courses of study are useful in determining content and organization of instruction. The early courses of study were chiefly an outline of content to be covered, containing some general objectives, along with a subject-matter outline and a few suggestions for learning aids, e.g., identifying persons, locating places, vocabulary building, and events to remember. The purpose of the earlier courses of study was to designate what was to be taught and the order in which it was to be taught. The more recent course of study is a flexible type of guide to the curriculum rather than an attempt to dictate what each teacher is to teach. Its purpose is to assist the teacher and give him suggestions rather than inhibit him from carrying out planning with pupils or adapting the program to their needs. Courses of study have been developed in every subject area of the secondary school. Courses of study which were available in the libraries of Utah's universities and at the State Board of Education offices were analyzed.

The school subjects within the social studies curriculum in the public secondary schools of Utah including history, geography, civics, economics, psychology, sociology, and anthropology were examined chronologically for the period, 1847-1967 to determine changes or trends that reflected major educational changes in the school curriculum of Utah. History as a subject of study is discussed in the
third section to be followed in sequence by geography, civics, economics, psychology, sociology, and anthropology.

Section two discusses social science and social studies education. Sections three through eight concern themselves with the curriculum as it existed for the historical period, 1847-1967. Section nine offers a summary based on the present study.

**Delimitations**

This study was primarily concerned with events in the development of the social studies curriculum in the public secondary schools of Utah from 1847 to 1967. Evidence from textbooks, courses of study, national committee pronouncements, and classroom curriculum publications in Utah's Department of Public Instruction and in university libraries were examined to identify the existence of trends or changes in Utah's social studies curriculum. For purposes of the study, examination of the social studies curriculum was delimited to include only public secondary education, grades seven through twelve.

This study is not an appraisal or evaluation of the curriculum either in the past or at the present time. The study is concerned with the content of the curriculum rather than the organizational patterns of education which have been explored elsewhere. The study has been made to describe what was and is, rather than what should have been and ought to be.

**Definitions**

Social science. The social sciences deal with human ideas and conduct. They are concerned with the actualities of human societies in development, with records of past actualities, with knowledge, with thought, and with
methods of acquiring knowledge respecting the actualities of human societies in development.

The actualities, past and present, with which the social sciences are concerned, embrace the ideas, beliefs, activities, interests, purposes, organization, association, and relations of human beings within the framework set by what we call the physical world. (Beard, 1934, p. 3)

Social studies. In contrast with the social sciences, the social studies are designed primarily for instructional purposes. They are those portions or aspects of the social sciences that have been selected and adapted for use in the school or in other instructional situations. The term social studies indicates materials whose content as well as aim is predominantly social. The social studies are the social sciences simplified for pedagogical purposes.

In schools the social studies usually consist of geography, history, economics, sociology, and civics, and various combinations of these subjects. The term social studies refers to the whole field and implies no particular organization either as subjects or as correlated courses. (Wesley and Wronski, 1958, p. 3)

Content. In educational discussions the subject matter of a study constitutes its natural content and questions relating to subject matter very frequently depend upon very different principles from those which are involved in the discussion of organization and arrangement. (Monroe, 1926, p. 194)

Curriculum. The word curriculum is used to mean the students' total learning activities or experiences that take place under the direction of the school. (Rivlin, 1943, p. 205)

Secondary schools. Secondary in this country is usually regarded as society's organized effort to educate its adolescents. It comprises the junior high school (grades seven, eight, and nine) and senior high school (grades ten, eleven, and twelve). Thus ages 12 to 18 are usually included. (Rivlin, 1943, p. 717)

Public school. A school ... organized under a school district of the state, supported by tax revenues, administered by public officials, and open to all. (Good, 1959, p. 131)

Sources of data

The following major classifications describe the types of sources
used in the preparation of the study. Primary sources of data for the study were:

2. Minutes of the State Board of Education.
3. Laws of the State of Utah.
4. Journals of the State Legislature.
5. Publications of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints.

Secondary sources of data for the study were:

1. Master's theses and Doctoral dissertations.
2. Published books, pamphlets, and periodicals dealing with education in the state of Utah and the United States.
3. Publications of the State Department of Public Instruction.

Related studies

Difficulty was encountered in finding studies dealing with historical treatments of curriculum in education. Numerous completed histories of education in Utah existed; however, few were to be found dealing solely with the social studies curriculum in Utah. Several studies dealing with selected aspects of the social studies were listed, but only one was located dealing entirely with the development of the social studies curriculum. This study, completed in 1942, was entitled The Development of the Social Studies Courses of Study in the Salt Lake City Public Schools Since 1893 (Cranley, 1942).
Another related study was reported by Clark (1941) entitled, *Development of the Course of Study for the Elementary Public Schools of Utah*. The development of the course of study in Utah was traced from 1894 to 1940. This treatise dealt with such factors as beginnings of public education in Utah, early textbooks, and courses of study in Utah before and after statehood.

Noall (1950) reported on the *Evaluation of the Secondary School Social Studies Curriculum in the State of Utah*. This report was concerned with the social studies curriculum as it existed in 1950. This work was primarily an appraisal or evaluation of the curriculum in which conclusions and recommendations were presented.

The book published by Moffitt (1946) entitled, *The History of Public Education in Utah*, provided both ideas and bibliography for further research. The chapter on "Environment for Learning: Buildings, Equipment, Textbooks, and the Course of Study," was most helpful.

Another book about the schools of Utah provided some general guidance. The book, Cowles' *The Administration of Public Education in Utah*, traced the development of the public school system of the state along with related educational services and organizations (Paulsen, 1957).

**Evolution of the social studies curriculum in the United States**

Before nineteen hundred. The broad subject area now called the social studies became an established part of the American secondary school curriculum with the introduction of history into the pre-Revolutionary schools. Although history was always taught in the private schools and academies, the first American history textbook
did not appear until 1787, when the textbook entitled *An Introduction to the History of America* was written by John M'Culloch. M'Culloch is credited with the introduction of American history into the school as a separate subject (Thursfield, 1946). Other textbook writers entered the field of American history with their writings on the Constitution and the Washington administration during the political conflict of the Federalists and the Jeffersonian Democratic-Republicans as well as during the period of nationalism which intensified during the war of 1812. "Both general and United States history were included in the curriculum of the first American high school--successor to the Latin Schools and academies--which was established in Boston in 1821."

(Gross and Zeleny, 1958, p. 61) By 1827 the state of Massachusetts required the teaching of history in their schools (Tryon, 1935).

The next subject to emerge in the social studies curriculum was geography when Jedidiah Morse published his *Geography Made Easy* in 1784. This book and other geographies that followed contained historical content as well as geographical studies (Whipple, 1933).

Material on civics or civil government prior to 1830 is difficult to locate but an apparent increase in the study of this subject began about 1830 seeming to reflect the times--the advent of the political and social changes of the Jacksonian era. By 1860 the number of textbooks in civics designed for areas of study below the college level in the subject areas of "Constitution, Government, and Law" numbered at least forty-five (Tryon, 1935).

Before the civil war there were few widely accepted courses of study and the textbook generally determined the content. Instruction
in history included general world history, history of the United States, and in some schools courses in the history of Greece, Rome, England, and France. Geography was commonly accepted on both the elementary and secondary levels with emphasis on physical geography. Civics or national government courses along with available textbooks were becoming more widely accepted; a few schools offered courses in political economy (Carr, 1965).

After the Civil War the national leadership in education was promoted by the National Teachers' Association, later to become the National Education Association in 1870. As the nation industrialized and urbanized the entire public school system expanded. Within the social sciences the nation's colleges and universities began to organize their courses of study under the aegis of professional associations, especially the American Historical Association. The result was a rapid increase in all the social studies offerings in the public schools, resulting in a national pattern (Quillen and Hanna, 1948).

In 1890 the "Committee of Ten" was appointed by the National Education Association. This group prescribed secondary school courses in history, civil government, and political economy, but recommended essentially a history-oriented curriculum. Meeting at Madison, Wisconsin, the committee included James Harvey Robinson, Woodrow Wilson, Albert Bushnell Hart, and others, who drew up a recommendation for a four-year sequence in English, French, American and local history and civil government (United States Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1892-1893).

In 1899 the American Historical Association appointed a "Committee
of Seven" to study current offerings in the American high schools and found little evidence of a well defined program in the instruction of history. The committee's report recommended the following nation-wide four-year program of history in American high schools:

First year (grade IX) -- Ancient history with special emphasis on Greece and Rome, 800, 814, or 845 A.D.

Second year (grade X) -- Later Medieval and Modern European history.

Third year (grade XI) -- English history.

Fourth year (grade XII) -- American history and civil government. (McLaughlin, Chairman, 1899, pp. 134-135)

The "Committee of Eight" sponsored by the American Historical Association expressed dissatisfaction concerning the program outlined in the report of 1909, and although it enjoyed no wide popularity, its influence resulted in a shift from ancient and medieval to modern history (Carr, 1965).

After nineteen hundred. During the first several decades of the 1900's many changes and developments were taking place in American education which influenced the social studies and American culture generally. Education was maturing, becoming professionalized and exerting a greater influence in American society. Leading educators like William James, John Dewey, and Edward Thorndike were advocating a more "functional" type of "democratic" education through "experimental" schools. Vocational training, domestic science, and other avocational courses were added to the school program. James Harvey Robinson established the "New History," and the subjects sociology, anthropology, and psychology became recognized disciplines.
The democratic concept of educating "all the children of all the people" was further expanded by the pressure of compulsory school attendance. As the result of more students in the public schools the social studies curriculum, influenced by a sensitive American society, reflected curriculum revisions both for the students preparing for college as well as for those in vocational training.

The "Committee on Social Studies" as a part of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education (1913) established by the National Education Association began their study which resulted in the emergence of a "new approach" for instruction of the social studies in the public secondary schools. Tryon (1935, p. 20) reported that "... it would be difficult to overstate the influence of the report of this committee." The committee's report reflected the growing importance of "general education" along with a new emphasis on the junior high school. The report of this committee was to be the basis of social studies offerings throughout the United States for the next three decades. A synopsis of the report follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade VII</th>
<th>Geography and European history -- ½ year of each. These courses may be taught in sequence or parallel through the year.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Civics -- taught as a phase of the above subjects or segregated in one or two periods a week, or both. Or, European history -- 1 year.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Geography -- taught incidentally to, and as a factor in, the history.</td>
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<tr>
<th>Grade VIII</th>
<th>American history -- ½ year.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Civics -- ½ year.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>These two courses may be taught in sequence or parallel through the year.</td>
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Grade IX

(1) Civics: Continuing civics of the preceding year, but with more emphasis upon State, national, and world aspects -- \( \frac{1}{2} \) year.

Civics: Economic and vocational -- \( \frac{1}{2} \) year.

History: Much use made of history in relation to the topics of the above courses.

Or, (2) Civics -- economic and vocational.

Economic history.

1 year, in sequence or parallel.

Grade X

European history to approximately the end of the seventeenth century -- 1 year.

Grades IX and XII

European history (including English history) since approximately the end of the seventeenth century -- 1 (or \( \frac{1}{2} \)) year.

American history since the seventeenth century -- 1 (or \( \frac{1}{2} \)) year.

Problems of American Democracy -- 1 (or \( \frac{1}{2} \)) year. (United States Bureau of Education, 1916, p. 15, 35)

The growing importance of the social studies was reflected in the problems in American democracy course which contained elements of sociology, economics, psychology, and political science. It would seem that the term social studies had achieved, in terms of general education, more respectability. According to Carr (1965, p. 5), "Citizenship rather than the demands of the discipline, was to become the primary goal of instructions."

The teaching of local or state history and geography have entered into the curriculum in several grade levels. Geography, history, and
civics in the social studies continue to find their place in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. World history has tended to take the place of European history (United States Bureau of Education, 1916).

By the late 1920's the social studies field had reached a point that was described by Edgar Dawson, as "chaotic," due to the differences of viewpoint at the local, state, and national levels as to the proper aims and content for the social studies (Dawson, Historical Outlook, June 1924). During this time historians and social scientists attempted to re-define the scope of the social studies field in terms of the changing national and international circumstances but met with little success. The Commission on the Social Studies in the School (1926) sponsored by the American Historical Association and financed by the Carnegie Corporation was composed of prominent social science scholars. Their report did not include a recommended program for the social studies but instead placed emphasis upon teacher preparation and local curriculum preparation rather than upon national standardization.

The report in 1940 of the Progressive Education Association by the committee on the "Functions of the Social Studies in General Education" likewise refused to recommend a fixed, inflexible curriculum. Instead it called attention to the needs of youth and the many demands of a changing society in which social education was to provide meaningful experiences in order to provide maximum personal development in a democratic society. The result was a broad curricular framework which permitted flexibility. It drew attention to the needs of the youth and brought about the writing of many curriculums. Considerable
experimentation resulted (Committee on the Function of the Social Studies in General Education, 1940).

**Social studies today.** The social studies offerings in the public secondary schools today reveal much similarity but considerable variety. Local school units exercise their options frequently in structuring their educational programs in terms of local needs, but within state laws and regulations which encourage uniformity. Common course offerings may be identified, and these are charted in Table 1. In this Table only the most commonly offered subject-matter at each secondary grade level is listed and some of the variety of course frameworks is not indicated.

Table 1. Most common subject-matters in the public secondary school social studies programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Subject</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Geography of Eastern Hemisphere; world geography, United States history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>United States history; geography; state history, civics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Civics; vocations; world history; world geography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>World history; world geography; modern history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>United States history; world history; problems of democracy; civics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Problems of democracy; government; economics; sociology; United States history</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the junior high school the study of geography (with some European history) is likely stressed in the seventh grade. United States history is a standard offering in the eighth grade. The ninth grade has more variety of offerings than the eighth grade. Civics is most widely offered but its content may vary from a study of the United States government on the local, state or national levels to an issues approach to contemporary society. Geography or world history in recent years has replaced the ninth grade civics course in some curriculums.

The senior high school social studies curriculum is tending towards more standardization than other levels in the public school. "World history" is typical in the tenth grade and "United States history" is standard for the eleventh grade. The social studies courses in the twelfth grade are generally elective and often include economics, sociology, anthropology, psychology, government, and problems in democracy.

The current social studies curriculum is the result of two centuries of growth and change. Much of this growth has come in spurts with the greatest impact occurring during the first quarter of the twentieth century. There has never been an over-all national plan with power to dictate or prescribe a uniform curriculum. Although there has been some shifting in the past several decades the current unrest in the social studies seems portentous of additional new revolutions and changes. This unrest may be due to current unrest in the society, new proposals and counter-proposals from national curriculum projects, hundreds of new published materials, the media revolution, and new school organization patterns such as team teaching. The directions in which the social studies field will move in view of these
elements of unrest and change is today difficult to predict.

The social studies curriculum in Utah's public secondary schools

Before the year 1894, textbooks used in the classrooms largely determined what was taught. In 1888, Territorial Superintendent L. John Nuttall clearly indicated that the textbook and the course of study were regarded as one and the same (Utah Territory, Report of the Superintendent of Schools, 1882-1883). Textbooks have continued over the years to determine what was taught.

The need for a general course of study to be used in the school districts of the Utah territory was met with the publication of the Manual of Public Schools of Utah Territory in 1894. This course of study was a voluntary effort by county superintendents and was designed to serve as a guide to teachers. The manual was accepted by twenty-four school districts and consisted of one hundred twenty-three pages of materials for grades one through nine along with suggestions to teachers, trustees, and rules for pupils.

Subjects to be taught in grades seven through nine were as follows:

Seventh Grade: reading, arithmetic, grammar, geography, history, spelling, writing, drawing, physiology, science, general lessons.

Eighth Grade: reading, arithmetic, grammar, geography, history, spelling, writing, drawing, domestic science, civics.

Ninth Grade: grammar, civil government, physical geography, algebra, bookkeeping, natural philosophy, physiology and hygiene. (Utah Territorial Schools, 1894, pp. 58-80)

The 1894 course of study specified history to be taught in the seventh and eighth grades. The lessons were very formal and detailed.
The number of pages to be covered in the United States history texts along with the recitation, study, and instruction was standardized for alternating lessons with geography. One Utah educator, John S. Welch, (1908, p. 22) writing of this course of study, stated, "... thoroughness in teaching does not necessarily mean a poverty-stricken course limited to a few essential facts of a few supposedly essential subjects."

Prior to 1907 there was no uniformity of state courses of study. Each county superintendent of schools was at liberty to make his own plan or adopt the plan of the neighboring school district. Upon the recommendation of the state superintendent, the state legislature enacted a law which provided for a state committee to prescribe a state course of study (Laws of Utah Compiled, 1907, p. 702). When the 1911 high school law was enacted the State Board of Education was appointed to prescribe the course of study in all high schools (Laws of Utah, 1911, p. 50). In 1913 the law was changed to expand the number of school superintendents on the state course of study committee to five (Laws of Utah, 1913, pp. 17-18). This act was repealed in 1915, for both the elementary and the secondary schools, leaving the responsibility of determining course of study with the State Course of Study Committee (Laws of Utah, 1915, p. 101).

From 1915 to 1959 reviews of course of study came infrequently. Further adjustment in operating procedures occurred in 1959 when the State Course of Study Committee in the office of the State Superintendent altered the procedure for adoption of curriculum guides by the curriculum committees (Utah Board of Education, Office of the State
Currently, courses of study are developed for each subject area and referred to as curriculum guides. The various curriculum committees under the leadership of specialists in the Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction are continuously involved in course of study development.

The lessons, studies, recitations, and instruction provided in the various courses of study by enactment of the Utah territorial and state legislatures reflect documents of the various committees used in the classrooms. These documents reveal both change and continuity in the Utah social studies curriculum.
Different classifications of human knowledge have been arranged for purposes of learning. One convenient arrangement divided knowledge into the natural sciences, the social sciences, and the humanities. Natural sciences are concerned with both the physical sciences and the biological sciences. The physical sciences deal with the phenomena of the universe such as geology, astronomy, chemistry, and physics while the biological sciences include such studies as biology, zoology, and botany. "The social sciences are those subjects that relate to the origin, organization, and development of human society, especially to man in his association with other men . . . ." (Bining and Bining, 1952, p. 1) The humanities include languages, literature, the fine arts, and music. The natural sciences and the humanities differ in many fundamental respects from the social sciences but also contribute greatly due to the large bodies of organized knowledge and thought about human affairs.

Numerous attempts have been made to define the term social sciences. A brief definition of the social sciences and social studies is contained in section one, but perhaps more complete definitions are to be found in (1) the Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, and (2) the article by the distinguished Columbia scholar, the late professor Edwin R. Seligman
entitled "What Are the Social Sciences?" found in Volume I of the Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences. These definitions are:

1. The social sciences, more than any other division of the school curriculum, are concerned immediately with the life, the institutions, the thought, the aspirations, and the far-reaching policies of the nation in its world setting.

2. They take as their province the entire range of human history, from the earliest times down to the latest moment, and the widest reaches of contemporary society, from the life and customs of the most remote people to the social practices and cultural possessions of the immediate neighborhood. (American Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies, 1934, pp. 1, 6)

2. The social sciences may be defined as those mental or cultural sciences which deal with the activities of the individual as a member of a group. In the measure that group activities have been subjected to study, the social sciences have multiplied. (Seligman, 1957, p. 3)

There is definite agreement in these definitions. Both recognize the possibility of expansion and breadth of study. The Commission's catalogue of exact fields by the American Historical Association, however, did not provide an extensive one:

The social sciences thus embrace the traditional disciplines which are concerned directly with man and society, including history, economics, politics, political science, sociology, geography, anthropology, and psychology. (American Historical Association, 1934, p. 6)

Professor Seligman attempted to give a more ambitious classification. He divided the social sciences into three groups—the purely social sciences, the semi-social sciences, and the sciences with social implications, and then proceeded to discuss each of them in the chronological order of their appearance as organized studies. The purely social sciences are: politics, economics, history, and jurisprudence.
dating back to the ancient world; then the newer studies of anthropology, penology, and sociology. The semi-social sciences are: ethics, education, philosophy, and psychology. The sciences with social implications are: biology, geography, medicine and social hygiene, and linguistics (Seligman, 1957).

As extensive and exhaustive as these definitions are, they may well be questioned, due to the fact that human knowledge is constantly crossing frontiers and it is impossible to hallmark any of its fields as pure science or semi-science. The inherent unity of knowledge, the interrelationships of the social sciences and the intellectual impossibility of divorcing them are all at the root of the problem of organizing and making intelligible the vast store of modern social knowledge.

A melting pot of social knowledge is not easily achieved. Some educators have been conservative in their limiting of the social sciences to the older grouping of history, politics, economics, and geography. Others embrace philosophy, sociology, and sometimes education. With disagreement as to the number of subjects to be grouped together there is nevertheless a relationship among the several fields of the social sciences.

Wesley defines the social sciences as,

... the social sciences are concerned with the detailed, systematic, and logical study of human relationships. The materials of the social sciences are not necessarily technical, difficult, or remote; neither are they necessarily popular and easy. Their obligation is to the standards of scholarship rather than to the psychological aptitudes of prospective readers, to society as a whole rather than to students or pupils. The materials of the social sciences may or may not be suitable for instructional purposes at the college level; they are less likely to be useful at
the high school or elementary level. The social sciences are the storehouses of knowledge, the sources of scientific social knowledge, so far as such information exists. (Wesley, 1942, pp. 5-6)

With the social sciences embracing those disciplines that deal primarily with the study of human relationships, the list in many classifications includes history, economics, political science, sociology, geography, anthropology, and psychology. Scholars in these disciplines typically include relevant content from other disciplines and with the passage of time it is expected that newer fields will be found that do not fit in the older disciplines (Michaelis and Johnston, 1965).

The social sciences as foundations of the social studies

The present century has seen confusion as to indefinite meanings which have been attached to the expression "social studies." During these years both the terms social sciences and social studies have been used interchangeably.

The social studies in contrast to the social sciences, "... are designed primarily for instructional purposes. They are those portions or aspects of the social sciences that have been selected and adapted for use in the school or in other instructional situations." (Wesley, 1942, p. 6) Wesley referred to the social studies as the social sciences simplified for instructional purposes. His definition of social studies was:

Although the social sciences and the social studies are alike in that both deal with human relationships, they differ as to standards and purposes. The fundamental tests of social sciences are scholarship and eventual social utility, whereas the fundamental test of the social studies is instructional utility. The social studies are
also under obligations to be accurate and reliable, but
y they automatically meet this requirement if they are
faithful portions or versions of the social sciences
that have already met their own standards of scholar-
ship. (Wesley, 1942, pp. 6-7)

The widespread use of the term social studies began in 1916, with
the official approval of the report of the Committee of Social Studies
of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education spon-
sored by the National Education Association. Although the term has
frequently been misused, the major significance should not be misinter-
preted.

The social sciences serve as a foundation for the social studies
in the following distinctive ways: (1) the social sciences are the
primary sources of content for the social studies with concepts, gen-
eralizations, and methods of inquiry; (2) in curriculum planning the
social studies draw heavily from the social sciences with data concern-
ing societal values, changing conditions, and our democratic heritage;
and (3) the psychological basis in curriculum planning of the social
studies draws data from the social sciences related to child develop-
ment, learning, and social studies (Michaelis and Johnston, 1965).
Throughout this study, seven disciplines--History, Geography, Civics,
Economics, Psychology, Sociology, and Anthropology--have been dis-
cussed as they have been adapted by the social studies for instruc-
tional purposes.

Shaver (1967) provided a new definition for the social studies
which has traditionally been defined in reference to the social sci-
ences. He suggested that the social studies are not the social
sciences simplified for pedagogical purposes. To restrict the social
studies to the social sciences as the only legitimate source of content rather than from other independent sources is a factor that often stifles creative curriculum work in the social studies. Shaver (1967, p. 589) stated that social studies education is general education, and defines the term "... as that part of the school's general education program which is concerned with the preparation of citizens for participation in a democratic society."

The social sciences are viewed by Shaver as offering essential substantive materials and concepts for the social studies curriculum but he states further that we must go beyond the social sciences. The social studies are not the simple offshoot of the social sciences in which the academicians in the social sciences and history dictate the curriculum content. Shaver said:

In fact, teachers and curriculum builders willing to structure their work by this definition will need, first of all, to ask themselves, "What are the prerequisites of intelligent political participation?" rather than, "What do social scientists or historians consider to be the legitimate domains of knowledge?" And secondly they will need to go beyond the social sciences for their content. This point of view does not necessarily entail the neglect of social science content. As a matter of fact, in a social studies curriculum actually geared to the education of intelligent participant citizens, knowledge from the social sciences will be of paramount importance. It will not, however, be selected or organized according to the dictates of the social scientist but according to the demands of general education. (Shaver, 1967, p. 589)

Bernstein (1965) views the social studies curriculum for the high school as the well delineated and coordinated perspectives from the various social science disciplines. Social studies education is capable of making important advances within the social sciences for clarifying and analyzing man's realities which previously have not been understood. Bernstein further stated:
When one attempts a survey of all the social sciences, one is struck by the frequency with which each discipline claims a significant similarity and important relation to many, if not all, of the other social science disciplines. While one may be reluctant to label any one of the disciplines an integrated social studies curriculum, one cannot take exception with the recognition of the underlying interrelationship of the various fields encompassed in the social sciences. (Bernstein, 1965, p. 79)

Social studies education in general education is viewed as considering society's goals for all youth and not just those going on to college. The preparation of youth for a more effective and reflective degree of participation in the political and social issues of society is the determination of public policy and the schools ability to participate. Oliver (1968) discussed the selection of content in the social studies as a part of the structure of the discipline(s) of the social sciences and as general education in which concepts are viewed as being relevant to the understanding of specific issues facing society.

Organizing the field of the social sciences for teaching purposes

The subjects within the social sciences have been organized in at least six general schemes for purposes of teaching. The organizing of the field of the social sciences for teaching purposes is not intended to be viewed as an organizational pattern of education as mentioned in the delimitations of this study. All forms of organization for purposes of teaching are either as separate subjects or by degrees of correlation: (1) organization by subjects, (2) incidental correlation, (3) systematic correlation, (4) integration, (5) concentration, and (6) fusion or unification. Figure 1 portrays these schemes diagrammatically. The seven social science disciplines have been included. Tryon (1935), with reference to the several schemes of organizing the
Figure 1. Six general schemes for organizing the field of the social sciences.
Figure 1. Continued

The Social Studies

Fusion or unification

Source: Adapted from Wesley, 1942, p. 134.
field of social sciences, mentioned that heated discussions have been waged over the merits and demerits of each and that some staunch supporters in this country herald the principles of one or another as being superior to the others. Each of the general schemes for organizing the field of social studies is treated separately.

Organization by subjects. The materials of the social studies have, according to custom usually been organized by subjects. The existence of subject categories in the social sciences has tended to generate and preserve corresponding divisions in the social studies. Such a tendency was a normal development, for as long as the social sciences were relatively limited in their contents, no sharp demarcation between subjects and the social studies was necessary. As the social sciences developed into extensive, complex, and highly specialized bodies of knowledge, however, some differentiation between them and the social studies became imperative. Thus the problems of selection and organization for teaching purposes became major tasks for the teacher.

Incidental correlation. Incidental correlation represents no real departure from subject organization. Those who believe in the value of subjects would probably claim that they make frequent incident correlations, in so far as they are the result of matured purpose to utilize all possible connections among the materials of various subjects. The desire to invest with utility the materials that are learned, to see that fact is related to fact in such a manner as to form a vital idea, is, of course, the aim of every good teacher. Those who believe in a constant but more or less unplanned correlation insist that such connecting threads are inevitably woven as new materials are learned, that a new fact cannot be learned until it becomes a part of the mental fabric which every active mind is continually weaving. Therefore, the teacher's obligation is to furnish occasional associations and to point out a few fundamental relationships, but the pupil should be left relatively free to determine his own pattern of interpretation.

Systematic correlation. Systematic correlation is one step, but perhaps a very short one, away from subject organization. It is an attempt to provide a regular and systematic plan for relating the various social studies to one another. It differs from incidental correlation in extent, in emphasis and in having an assured frequency. It is possible, of course, to apply the term systematic correlation to a few prearranged but incidental cross references, but here the term is used to mean a more extensive plan. Systematic correlation naturally involves a clearer recognition of the characteristics which are common to all the subjects.
in the field of the social studies, and of the ways in which the whole field differs from other fields, such as science and mathematics.

**Integration.** Integration is a form of organization which emphasizes the social studies field rather than the separate subjects that compose the field. The subjects are recognized and to some extent utilized, but the boundaries between them are freely ignored in the process of arranging materials for teaching purposes. Integration is a significant step away from subject organization in the direction of fusion. It differs from fusion, however, in that it recognizes that the contents of the subjects furnish much suitable material for teaching purposes, and that the revolutionary process of discarding all subject content and starting with a new alignment of materials is unnecessary.

**Concentration.** The principle of concentration involves the emphasizing of one subject in such a way as to show its connections with the other social studies. History, for example, involves the study of past politics, past economics, past sociology, and past geography, and the study of these elements may be brought right up to the present time. History can thus be used as the organizing core about which relevant materials from all the subjects can be assembled. The plan may involve units, topics, problems, or subjects. It seems to facilitate the establishment of relationships and generalizations. In practice, it might mean a lessening of the number of subjects and recitations. While the theory of concentration is very old, it has never been worked out or applied very extensively.

**Fusion and unification.** The word "fusion" was originally applied to the merged contents of two or three subjects, such as the fusion of civics, geography, and history. "Unification" means a composite synthesis in which the social studies subjects completely disappear. In fact, materials beyond the social studies, or even beyond the social sciences, may be utilized in effecting the synthesis. Such fusion and unification differ not in principle but only in degree, it is perhaps proper to use the two terms as synonyms. Fusion or unification is the complete negation of subject organization. The fusionist professes to meet the needs of boys and girls rather than to maintain an allegiance to scholarship. He believes that a fused organization promotes this objective better than a subject organization. The proponent of subjects and the proponent of fusion agree as to the desirability of making their materials significant; both agree that units, problems, projects, and topics are possible within either organization; but the fusionist stresses the significance of his organization. He believes that the subject viewpoint is an impediment to learning, and so he proposes a new synthesis. (Wesley, 1942, pp. 133-138)
These six types of general organization are more or less inclusive. There is considerable variation within the general forms. Some personnel concerned with the social sciences as foundations of the social studies recognize the importance of the interrelationships of the disciplines as they seek to develop a general science of society. The situation in the social studies should not be like the problem suggested by Stuart Chase:

We are like soldiers lying in isolated foxholes without means of communication . . . yet the social sciences are concerned with different aspects of the same critter—man—and the notion that we can abstract the economic or the psychological aspect of his behavior without regard to the rest, is nonsense. (Chase, 1948, p. 38)

The social sciences and the social studies both deal with human relations. They are not rivals but rather the auxiliary, of social process and learning. The fact must not be overlooked that the social sciences are foundations of the social studies in being contributory to policy decisions in education which enhance man's capacity to cope with life's problems.

The problem of reconciling a concept of "social studies education" (Shaver, 1967) and one of "social science education" (Wesley, 1942) remains unresolved even in the "New Social Studies" movement of the last ten years.
Early Utah schools

The early schools including the private-venture schools established in the Utah region from 1857 through the 1850's were antecedent to the later public school system.

In Utah the earliest mention of a school dates back to October, 1847 in the first school started by Mary Jane Dilworth (Utah Writers' Project, 1941). A Mormon of Quaker descent, Mary Jane Dilworth opened her school some three months after the Mormon emigrants first entered the Salt Lake Valley. The schoolhouse was a peaked military tent which was too small to accommodate the thirty students of all ages. The tent was near the center of the settlement within the Old Fort built during the summer by the early pioneers under the leadership of Brigham Young. Maria Nebeker, a sister of Mary Jane Dilworth and a student in the first school of Utah described the occasion:

We learned Psalms from the Bible and sang songs. There were no slates or pencils, neither papers nor pens. The children were taught to write, however, for they used charcoal and practised writing on the smooth faced logs. Sometimes the children brought colored clay and mixing it with water, drew pictures of animals and Indians on the smooth surface of the logs. It was not unusual in those days to dry the bark of the white mountain birch and use it for writing material. (Young, 1917a, p. 6)

The school established by Mary Jane Dilworth in 1847 during the first year of the arrival of the pioneers in the Salt Lake Valley was not a public school in the sense that it was established by a legislative act as a function of state government. The need for immediate
school instruction for the children was recognized along with the absence of any governmental agency to administer the education of any prescribed course of study. Either the teacher in the community started a school or did so at the request of the inhabitants of the community who saw the need educationally. Moffitt (1946, pp. 19-20) stated, "The first schools were necessarily non-legal, inasmuch as they antedated any form of legislation prescribed by an agency of the government." Moffitt (1946, p. 21) further stated that "... a clear distinction cannot be made between public and private schools during early [Utah] history."

Additional schools appeared in the next several years in nearly all of the other settlements. The schoolmasters' appointment to these schools would undoubtedly be similar to the appointment of Mary Jane Dilworth by Brigham Young, who instructed her "... to teach English, reading, and penmanship to the young brethren of the camp." (Anonymous, Utah Educational Review, 1907, p. 7)

No definite system of uniformity existed within these early schools although the early pioneers were anxious to promote the education of the youth. Julian Moses began teaching school in one small room of the Old Fort in the Autumn of 1847. He taught courses in general history and Latin, as well as other common branches of learning (Young, 1917a).

According to Moffitt (1946, p. 178), "... secondary education, as an organized pattern or plan of systematic and continuous progress available to all youth was non-existent in Utah for more than half a century." The first state superintendent of public instruction, Dr. John R. Park, asserted in 1896 that there were only thirty-eight graded
schools in Utah at the time, with 160 partially graded and 576 ungraded schools. In reference to the schools Dr. Park said, "Thus far, practically no schools of higher grade than the eighth, have been maintained outside of cities of the first and second class." (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1896, p. 38) By the close of the nineteenth century the establishment of secondary schools included the cities of Salt Lake City, Ogden, Park City, Brigham City, Nephi, and Richfield (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1899-1900).

Private-venture schools

From 1847 through the 1850's private schools came into existence. Some advertisements appeared in the Deseret News by individuals soliciting students for their schools. A fairly complete picture of these schools can be obtained by the following advertisement:

The subscriber [Eli B. Kelsey] designs opening a Day School on Monday the 6th day of December next in Governor Young's school room (situated a short distance east of the Tithing Office) where he will be happy to receive pupils upon the following terms, viz:

For Spelling, Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic . . . . . $5.00
For Spelling, Reading, Writing and Arithmetic, with Grammar or Geography . . . . . $5.50

The produce of the Valley will be taken in payment for tuition, but in all cases, when the terms of payment are not agreed upon, cash will be expected. Lectures upon Grammar accompanied with illustrations upon the blackboard, will be given for the benefit of the scholars; in the afternoons of Monday, Wednesday, and Friday in each week.

An evening school will be opened in the same house shortly after the commencement of the Day School, of which notice will be given in the 'News. (Deseret News, November 27, 1852, p. 3)

Other schools advertised for students interested in learning the work of carpenters, brick masons, and other needed occupations. Although
these schools were promoted with enthusiasm, these efforts "... seem to have been run on a haphazard basis, whenever the exigencies of plowing, weather, and house building would permit." (Utah Writers Project, 1941, p. 135)

The first large library collection was brought into Utah by teams in 1851. Dr. John M. Bernhisel, Utah's delegate to Congress, made the purchase in New York City which included the works of Shakespeare, Milton, Bacon, Byron, Homer, Lucretius, Virgil, Euripides, Sophocles, Plato, Montaigne, Tacitus, Spencer, Herodotus, Goldsmith, and others. Also received were copies of the New York Evening Post, New York Herald, Philadelphia Saturday Courier, and the North American Review. The books, periodicals and newspapers were well read and the custom prevailed for people to meet in the ward meeting halls to discuss the contents. It was this movement that gave rise to the establishment, years later, of the Mutual Improvement Association in Utah (Young, 1913).

The beginning of public school organization

The provisional state of Deseret was replaced by the territory of Utah by congressional act passed September 9, 1850. Some of the first acts of the territorial legislature were concerned with establishment of some form of organization that could put into effect an educational program.

Governor Brigham Young on September 22, 1851, presented a notable address to the Territorial Legislative Assembly of Utah which included recommendations for appointing a superintendent of schools for all the Utah territory (Laws of Utah Territory, 1851, p. 207). In 1852 the Legislative Assembly created school districts (Laws of Utah Territory,
Chartered cities of Utah territory attempted to support the schools financially as early as 1851 (Laws of Utah Territory, 1851). However, it was not until 1853 that they were given authority to assess taxes for school purposes. Schools were public in Utah territory with the 1853 territorial enactment in that they served anyone, both Mormon and non-Mormon, within the confines of the Utah territory and were financed by public taxation (Laws of Utah Territory, 1853).

In the development of Utah's public schools, during the territorial period, little distinction was made between the "common" and "grammar" school or between these and the emerging "academies." In the early years of Utah little distinction was made between the primary, intermediate, and secondary grades.

In 1860 the authority of the county superintendent of schools was endorsed by statute (Laws of Utah Territory, 1860, p. 219), and by 1865 the school laws were enlarged and amended to include the requirement of the superintendent of schools to make an annual report to the legislative assembly (Laws of Utah Territory, 1865).

There were similarities between early Utah schools and schools of colonial New England in the use of books, slates and pencils. In one Utah school the students used books similar to the hornbook used in early New England. Mrs. Clarilla Browning, Ogden's first teacher stated, "I arrived at Brown's Fort [Ogden], October 27, 1849. That winter I taught school in a log house. . . . We had to collect letters from scraps of papers and old books, these we pasted on paddles." (Neff, 1940, p. 350)

Although the first school laws of Utah were silent regarding the
subjects to be taught in the schools, it is apparent the Latter-day Saint Church leadership and the teachers determined the areas of learning for the pupils. A general epistle from the Council of the Twelve Apostles, regarding school learning, was issued in 1848.

It is very desirable that all Saints should improve every opportunity of securing at least a copy of every valuable treatise on education—every book, map, chart, or diagram that may contain interesting, useful, and attractive matter to gain the attention of children, and cause them to love to learn to read, and also every historical, mathematical, philosophical, geographical, geological, astronomical, scientific, practical, and all other variety of useful and interesting writing . . . for the benefit of the rising generation. (Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, 1850, p. 245)

In 1860 the Utah territorial legislature passed a law providing for a term report in which the district school leaders were required to list certain types of information about the schools which included history along with the subjects of spelling, alphabet, reading, writing, geography, grammar, arithmetic, bookkeeping, algebra, geometry, astronomy, language, music, drawing and painting (Laws of Utah Territory, 1860, p. 221).

During the early years of education in the Utah territory it was difficult to distinguish which textbooks were used in the schools due to lack of uniformity. The territorial superintendent of schools in Utah was granted power by the legislative assembly of the territory of Utah in 1865 to recommend textbooks to the local school districts (Utah Territory, Report of the Superintendent of Schools, 1864-1865). In 1865 the territorial superintendent reported he had been working with prominent school people in a united effort to select a course of study and appropriate texts which would be recommended uniformly, and included the following:
The superintendent's letter to the Utah merchants and importers of school books indicated that the textbook adoptions had been agreed upon for a four-year period.

In the report of 1870 the superintendent stated, "There is more uniformity in textbooks in Utah probably, than in any other part of the country. The books adopted by the school authorities are almost universally used in the schools." (Utah Territory, Report of the Superintendent of Schools, 1870, p. 4) Despite the claim of achieving uniformity of textbooks by the Utah territorial superintendent of schools, in 1874-1875 the plentiful supply of texts indicates some departure from the approved list. The superintendent stated:

> The multiplicity of textbooks in this territory is really marvelous. Thousands of dollars are annually thrown away in the purchase of different kinds of textbooks to satisfy the whims of some of our teachers. There should be protection against such useless expenditure. (Utah Territory, Report of the Superintendent of Schools, 1874-1875, p. 7)

This condition was corrected by the legislative assembly in 1876 by the following enactment:

> The territorial and county superintendents and the president of the faculty of the University of Deseret, or a majority of them shall, at a convention, called by the territorial superintendent of district schools, for the purpose, decide what textbooks shall be adopted in the schools, and their use shall be exclusive and mandatory in all the district schools of the territory. (Laws of Utah Territory, 1876, p. 248)
Another school law enacted in 1890 required the following subjects to be taught:

Every teacher in the district schools shall teach pupils, when they are sufficiently advanced to pursue the same, the following branches to wit: reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, language lessons, English grammar, geography, United States history, physiology and hygiene. (Laws of Utah Territory, 1890, p. 121)

Two years later the law was amended to be less specific and instead of listing the exact subject-matter, the amended law provided that, "... every teacher in the district schools shall teach pupils the course of study prescribed ..." (Laws of Utah Territory, 1892, p. 115)

The method in which the schools were required to use and follow the adopted textbooks and subject areas of study continued after Utah became a state. Prior to 1890, the Utah Territorial Report of the Superintendent (Commissioner) of Schools lists only fleeting examples of history texts or courses.

According to the report of the commissioner of schools in 1892, the size of the public schools in Utah had increased by 1893 to over thirty-one thousand students for the average daily attendance. The report also listed the number of pupils in each school or branch registered for the various subjects of study. The number registered for United States history was 16,482 or approximately one-half of all students (Utah Territory, Report of the Commissioner of Schools, 1892-1893).

The grade level at which United States history was taught in Utah schools before the 1890's was largely a matter of conjecture, for despite the number of textbooks, no publication by the Utah Territory
Commissioner of Schools mentions the subject before 1892. Yet evidence shows that the upper or secondary school cycle was most common. McKenzie (1941, p. 3) suggested that, "Although the high school movement was really underway . . . [in the 1890's] there were few public secondary schools at this date." There is the possibility that only the larger cities were capable of maintaining schools with grades higher than eighth.

The Quachensb's text, entitled American History for Schools (1880) was designed for the upper elementary schools. One of Anderson's history textbooks, A Grammar School History of the United States (1878) was intended for advanced classes in grammar schools and academies. Although no evidence has been investigated indicating textbook use in the academies, other evidence indicates that the upper elementary level was the level at which United States history entered the curriculum in Utah.

Tryon (1935, p. 77) pointed out that history in the schools of the United States "... edged its way into the schools during the generation prior to 1860." The study of history was determined vital due to the following values: moral training, profitable use of leisure time, inspirer of patriotism, citizenship training, religious training, and disciplining the mind (Russell, 1915). Roorback (1937, p. 128) stated that "... all the values ascribed to history before 1861 were formulated by 1810."

The development of Utah schools between 1847 and 1896 was accompanied by growth in the teaching of its history. This growth can be evidenced by the greater availability of textbooks and the appearance of the subject of history in the upper elementary and in the secondary schools.
While the subject of history had successfully established itself as a separate discipline of study, the needs of the schools of Utah had not been met. Although the territorial superintendent of schools had presented a number of recommended texts, the "whims" of some of the teachers resulted in the purchase of thousands of dollars of different kinds of textbooks (Utah Territory, Report of the Superintendent of Schools, 1874-1875). While Charles A. Goodrich, John J. Anderson, A. S. Barnes, and Edward Eggleston led the field in Utah with the recommended texts, they had many competitors.

Additional evidence of expanding interest in United States history in Utah is found in its appearance at several levels of instruction. Some textbooks were intended for use at the middle-grade level. Marcius Willson (1866, p. 1) stated in the advertisement in the back of his book that "... this series of Histories is the most complete, and the most perfectly graded, of any now before the public." G. P. Quachenbos (1880) published a series of histories, one on the elementary level made easy and interesting for beginners, and a more comprehensive treatise on United States history. Although there is not much evidence, the first instruction in United States history probably occurred in Utah just prior to the Civil War. Roerback (1937) found United States history taught in 175 of 235 United States secondary schools between 1820 and 1860.

The changing physical characteristics of history textbooks

Appendix A contains two tables (tables 28 and 29) which are concerned with the physical characteristics of nineteenth century textbooks available to Utah territorial schools compared to recent history.
textbooks used in Utah. Table 28 indicates a noticeable difference in size and number of pages. For example, the pages of many of the earliest editions of *Premium History of the United States* (1830) by Webster, were 3 1/2 by 5 1/2 inches in size. The pages of *History of the United States of America* (1833) by Charles A. Goodrich were 4 1/2 by 7 1/2 inches in size and contained twenty-four pages of pictures consisting of two pictures per page. John J. Anderson's *Grammar School History of the United States* (1878) measured 5 by 7 1/2 inches and contained ninety pictures which measured 2 by 2 inches in size along with nine half-page pictures and four full-page maps. In contrast, Graff and Krout's *The Adventures of the American People* (1966) measured 8 by 10 1/2 inches and contained the following number of pages filled with pictures, maps, and diagrams: 53 full-pages, 19% half-pages, and 120 quarter-pages.

Few textbooks, before Utah received territorial status in 1850, contained pictures which were available for school use. Webster's *Premium History of the United States* (1830), containing materials from the first settlement of colonies to the close of the war with Great Britain in 1815, did not have a single picture. Charles A. Goodrich wrote a number of texts in the 1830's which were used in Utah, some of which contained pictures. Samuel G. Goodrich's *Parley's Illustrations of History* (1840) contained sixteen full-size pages of pictures and maps. Pelham's *Outlines of Roman History* (1893) contained four colored fold-out maps.

The bindings of the books available in the early Utah public schools were bound either in rather limp paper covers over stiff paper cardboard or with a full leather covering. Texts like Noah
Webster's History of the United States (1832) were bound with a stiff cardboard cover with leather spines. Many of the early textbooks were printed on rag paper and are still in good condition.

The nineteenth century textbooks, generally, utilized a smaller type size than twentieth century textbooks. One of the first books written in America after the Revolutionary War, and probably used in the early schools of Utah was Noah Webster's Elements of Useful Knowledge Containing a Historical and Geographical Account of the United States (1806) which used an 8-point type size in the preface and a 9-point type size throughout the remainder of the book. By the 1880's the point type size was generally larger. Edward Eggleston's History of the United States (1888) had 11-point type. The present-day history text Story of Nations (1966) by Rogers, Adams, and Walker was printed with 12-point type.

Many of the early American teachers had not received formal training for teaching and as a result textbook authors attempted to include teaching suggestions in their books. Many teacher-training institutions throughout the United States did not open their doors until the 1830's. Many textbooks contained extensive and detailed directions for providing instructions on the subject and the use of the text. Botsford's History of Rome (1908) included materials on teacher out-

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1Type size employed in printing textbooks is designated by points. The greater the number of points, the larger the type. In printing, the standard measurement for the point is about one-seventy-second of an inch. Thus, seventy-two points equal one inch. Dechant (1964) stated that type size of printing, too large or too small, results in more fixations, more regressions, and smaller perception span. Tinker (1959) recommended for the upper grades, or secondary grades, sizes 10, 11, and 12-point, with a slight superiority for 11-point.
lines, helps, studies, and chapter-by-chapter questions. Some texts were similar to Mowry's *History of the United States* (1897) which contained four pages of instructions in the preface on how to teach history and four pages of suggestions to the teacher on improvement of instruction.

Many of the teaching aids in history textbooks indicate a remarkable change. With the passage of time there has been a steady increase in the inclusion of teaching aids, including indexes and references, which were not too common in the last half of the nineteenth century. Table 29 in Appendix A indicates how textbooks in world history have included more teaching and learning devices.

A careful examination of the Utah Territorial Report of the Superintendent (Commissioner) of Schools of Utah from 1861 to 1896 revealed the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author and History Textbook</th>
<th>Year(s) of Recommendation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goodrich's History (Late edition)</td>
<td>1864-65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anderson's History</td>
<td>1870-72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anderson's Popular History</td>
<td>1883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barnes' Brief History of the United States</td>
<td>1883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barnes' Primary History of the United States</td>
<td>1887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eggleston's First Book of American History</td>
<td>1893</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although the author's full name was not provided, the availability of numerous textbooks found in Utah libraries would seem to indicate that Charles A. Goodrich, John J. Anderson, A. S. Barnes, and Edward Eggleston were the authors suggested. Records indicate many textbooks were used which were not included in the above list because mandatory use of recommended textbooks did not take place in the Utah territory until
An examination of available textbooks used during the nineteenth century reveals a common form of organization. The form of organization was concerned with the period of discovery and exploration, followed by colonial development that discussed the English colonies one by one. The French and Indian War followed by the Revolution was dealt with separately. The writing and adoption of the Constitution from 1783 to 1861 was covered along with the various presidents and their administration into the Civil War and to the point of national concern in which the book covered until the time of publication. This was the general plan of many textbook authors of United States history. In order to show the emphasis placed on certain periods or eras of United States history an analysis of textbooks yielded the summary in Table 2. It is assumed that several of the texts listed in Table 2 were used in the schools of Utah, due to their accessibility in various libraries of the state.

A study made by Earl Rugg revealed that textbooks published before the Civil War emphasized the political and military aspects of history. Perhaps this reflects the growth of national spirit that followed the War of 1812. With such an emphasis on politics and the military it is not surprising to find many of the textbooks of the pre-Civil War period lacking in social and economic matters. Data from Table 3 will serve to illustrate this point.

The study of history in Utah's early schools was frequently carried out along with the study of geography and reading. A large proportion of United States history was also presented in Spellers and Readers. Noah Webster's Elements of Useful Knowledge Containing
Table 2. Per cent of total pages devoted to certain aspects of life by seven authors of textbooks in American history published prior to 1896 and available for use in Utah schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author and title of the text</th>
<th>Percent of total pages devoted to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Discovery and exploration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marcius Willson (1866) History of the United States</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John J. Anderson (1868) A Pictorial History of the United States</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. S. Barnes (1876) A Brief History of the United States</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John J. Anderson (1878) A Grammar School History of the United States</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. P. Quachenbos (1880) American History for Schools</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edward Eggleston (1888) A History of the United States and Its People</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. A. Mowry (1897) A History of the United States</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Emphasis on political, military and social and economic material by eight texts in United States history published prior to 1860

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author and title of the text</th>
<th>Percentage devoted to</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Political</td>
<td>Military</td>
<td>Social and economic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. A. Goodrich, History of the United States</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>25.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. G. Goodrich (Peter Parley), A Pictorial History of the United States</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>56.2</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. Olney, A History of the United States</td>
<td>46.6</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>William Sullivan, History of the United States of America</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>43.4</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. B. Taylor, A Universal History of the United States of America</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>49.6</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noah Webster, History of the United States</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emma Willard, Abridged History of the United States</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marcius Willson, History of the United States</td>
<td>50.3</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average . . . . . . . . .</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Rugg, 1923, p. 320.
Historical and Geographical Account of the United States (1806), undoubtedly used in the schools of Utah as it was throughout the nation, contained a high proportion of political and military history, along with economic and social materials. Thursfield (1946, p. 58) stated that, "Noah Webster might be nominated as the writer of 'new history' for schools of the early national period."

Table 4 depicts relative emphasis on certain types of history in selected textbooks of the 1920's. The McLaughlin book along with the Muzzey text presented a larger proportion of space to political history than did the two later volumes. Social and economic history occupied from one-quarter to one-third of the textbooks.

Probably the biggest change in the content of history was in the teaching of American history. Table 5 summarizes the shifts in emphasis for particular periods in national history, which affected the entire nation, including Utah. Increased attention has been given to the period of the Constitution and the establishment of the federal government. The more recent period of national development since the 1920's was emphasized especially in the high school texts.

**Textbooks on Utah history**

The writing of Utah history commenced with Hubert Howe Bancroft in 1889 with his book entitled *History of Utah, 1540-1886*. A number of writers during the last half of the nineteen century wrote on various phases of Mormon life but Bancroft's writing was the first comprehensive history of the Utah territory until Orson F. Whitney wrote his four volume *History of Utah*, published in 1892-1904. Bancroft and Whitney's writings were suggested for teacher reference.
Table 4. Percentage of space devoted to political, military, and social and economic materials in texts used in the early 1920's

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original publication date</th>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Political</th>
<th>Military</th>
<th>Social &amp; economic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Senior high school</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1899</td>
<td>A. C. McLaughlin</td>
<td>History of the American Nation</td>
<td>61.55%</td>
<td>14.25%</td>
<td>24.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>D. C. Muzzey</td>
<td>An American History</td>
<td>62.66%</td>
<td>11.94%</td>
<td>25.40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1916</td>
<td>E. D. Fite</td>
<td>History of the United States</td>
<td>55.44%</td>
<td>14.11%</td>
<td>30.45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1917</td>
<td>A. B. Hart</td>
<td>New American History</td>
<td>53.75%</td>
<td>10.88%</td>
<td>35.37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average for the four texts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>58.35%</td>
<td>12.64%</td>
<td>28.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Junior high school</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>H. E. Bourne and E. J. Benton</td>
<td>History of the United States</td>
<td>44.60%</td>
<td>17.94%</td>
<td>37.44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>W. B. Guitteau</td>
<td>Our United States--A History</td>
<td>37.52%</td>
<td>25.47%</td>
<td>37.01%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1918</td>
<td>C. A. Beard and W. C. Bagley</td>
<td>History of the American People</td>
<td>39.12%</td>
<td>12.59%</td>
<td>48.29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A. B. Hart</td>
<td>School History of the United States</td>
<td>44.52%</td>
<td>9.60%</td>
<td>45.88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average for the four texts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>41.44%</td>
<td>16.40%</td>
<td>41.14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Summary statement of proportionate attention given to various periods of American history in textbooks and reports, 1815-1946

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>1763</th>
<th>1763-83</th>
<th>1783-1812</th>
<th>1812-61</th>
<th>1861-65</th>
<th>1865-1912</th>
<th>1912 to date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Average of 8 texts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>published before 1860</td>
<td>43.3%</td>
<td>24.68%</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
<td>22.76%*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Average of 4 texts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>published 1865-1874</td>
<td>32.6%</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
<td>18.8%</td>
<td>8.95%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Average of 3 texts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>published 1881-1888</td>
<td>32.76%</td>
<td>19.16%</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td>15.6%</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Average of 9 texts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>published 1890-1902</td>
<td>32.03%</td>
<td>15.22%</td>
<td>6.78%</td>
<td>19.12%</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
<td>14.87%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior high school since 1900</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. History Syllabus, 1901</td>
<td>33.0%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
<td>18.0%†</td>
<td>25.0%†</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Average of 4 texts in</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use about 1920</td>
<td>18.99%</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
<td>11.11%</td>
<td>25.68%</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
<td>22.25%</td>
<td>4.61%*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Average of 2 texts in</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>current use</td>
<td>9.45%</td>
<td>3.95%</td>
<td>11.55%</td>
<td>16.3%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>37.05%</td>
<td>17.75%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

f. Committee on American history recommendations 50% since Civil War
Table 5. Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>to 1763</th>
<th>1763-83</th>
<th>1783-1812</th>
<th>1812-61</th>
<th>1861-65</th>
<th>1865-1912</th>
<th>1912 to date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>g. Report, Committee of Eight, 1908</td>
<td>26.4%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>23.5%</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
<td>10.5%*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Average of 6 texts published 1906-1912</td>
<td>27.89%</td>
<td>13.69%</td>
<td>14.17%</td>
<td>21.01%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>14.45%*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Average of 4 texts in use about 1920</td>
<td>23.45%</td>
<td>9.86%</td>
<td>11.12%</td>
<td>23.23%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>18.72%</td>
<td>6.75%*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Average of 2 texts in current use</td>
<td>16.15%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>17.5%</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
<td>26.15%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Committee on American history recommendations</td>
<td>66.6%</td>
<td>66.6%</td>
<td>to period from 1776 to 1876</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


bBagley and Rugg, Content of American History, p. 22.


dEarle Rugg, Curriculum Studies, p. 126.

eFaulkner and Kepner, America, Its History and People; Barker and Commager, Our Nation.

fAmerican History in the Schools and Colleges, p. 71.

gThe Study of History in the Elementary Schools, pp. 48-91.


*The terminal date in this case is 1817 instead of 1812.

*To date of publication.
Whitney's second history of Utah was written at the request of local educators, for use in the grammar grades of the public schools due to some controversial matters in 1908 between Mormon and non-Mormon children attending those schools. His textbook entitled, *The Making of a State* contained an abridged historical narrative of the founding and development of the state of Utah up to the industrial phase of 1908. Whitney's 1908 history was used in the secondary schools. His third history, *Popular History of Utah*, represented his personal desire to produce a history of Utah, complete in a single volume, that could be sold at such a figure to be placed within the reach of all. Published in 1916, this volume was used extensively in the secondary schools of Utah.

In 1923, seventy-six years from the first clearing of the land in the Salt Lake Valley, Levi Edgar Young published *The Founding of Utah* which was intended to serve as an introduction to the later history of the state and was listed in many courses of study as a recommended secondary textbook. Leland H. Creer's *Utah and the Nation*, 1929, was a study of the relations between the federal government and the people of Utah during the period 1846-1861, commencing with the call of the Mormon battalion in the Mexican War and ending with the establishment of the first daily overland-mail at the outbreak of the Civil War. In 1947 another volume by Creer was published, entitled *The Founding of an Empire* which was primarily concerned with the exploration and colonization of Utah from 1776-1856. Creer's *Utah and the Nation* and *The Founding of an Empire* were used mainly as teacher references.

About eighty years of Utah history were contained in John Henry Evans' *The Story of Utah* published in 1933. This text was frequently
listed in numerous courses of study for consideration as a teacher reference in presenting Utah history. The famous words ascribed to Brigham Young when as leader of the pioneer band into Utah in 1847 he first beheld the valley of the Great Salt Lake, This Is the Place, became the title of a book published in 1939, by Marguerite Cameron. Her study of Utah history was written primarily for the junior high level in Utah schools.

In 1940, The History of Utah by Andrew L. Neff was published containing a comprehensive economic and social history of the people of Utah from the advent of their arrival in 1847 to the completion of the first transcontinental railroad in 1869. Neff's publication was used primarily in teacher education classes on the university level.

Milton R. Hunter's first publication on Utah history used extensively in the schools was entitled Utah in Her Western Setting, published in 1943. Hunter's second publication Brigham Young the Colonizer, 1945, also used in the public schools of Utah, placed emphasis upon Mormon colonization in the Great Basin, personnel of Mormon colonization, methods of land settlement, and industries that followed from 1847 to 1877. The most recent publication of Milton R. Hunter was designed for young people of the junior high school age. The Utah Story, copyrighted in 1960, by Hunter presents a history of Utah and a picture of the culture of her people beginning with the Pueblo Indians and ending with Utah and the space age. The purpose of the book was to provide opportunity for Utah's junior high students to become acquainted with the social, economic and political life of the state.

The historiography of the Mormons (Latter-day Saints of Utah) was presented in Leonard J. Arrington's Great Basin Kingdom: An Economic
History of the Latter-day Saints, 1840-1900. This historical account related religion to economic institutions, politics, and immigration in an attempt to give meaning to the repeated assertions of "peculiarity" of the Mormons in America. The Arrington history was published in 1958 and has been recommended for teacher reference.

Since Utah statehood in 1896, the study of Utah history has increased in the schools. Ellsworth, commenting on the writing of Utah history, stated that

... despite these pioneering efforts at brief synthesis, there yet remains to be written a history of Utah that meets the ideals of modern historianship. A few outstanding monographs have been produced and many studies have been made on the early period (before 1869 especially); still, Utah history remains a relatively unexplored field for the serious scholar. (Ellsworth, 1954, p. 100)

It would seem that more history needs to be written of Utah's past. Few textbooks used in the schools were written expressly for that purpose. Textbooks by Orson F. Whitney, Levi Edgar Young, John Henry Evans, Marguerite Cameron, and Milton R. Hunter have provided the basis for existing studies in Utah history for the secondary schools. The need for new textbooks dealing with the factual history of early Utah with synthesis of the broader aspects of Western American history indicating particularly the role of Utah in the larger and less provincial setting is highly desirable. Serious scholars involving modern historianship for the junior high and high school levels need to determine certain characteristics of format and content that should be considered particularly desirable for textbooks on Utah history. Roylance (1957), studying the need for new textbooks dealing with Utah history, concluded a definite need exists.
Textbook adoptions and state supervisory services

The lack of uniformity of textbooks in territorial days was considered a serious educational problem. Several legal adjustments had taken place in the laws regarding textbook adoptions before 1890. During 1890, a new and enlarged law was written which provided for the territorial commissioners and a majority of the county superintendents to decide what books were to be used in the schools. Legislative action subsequently altered the law until in 1909 the State Textbook Commission was organized and given authority to adopt textbooks for use in the schools of the state, except in cities of the first and second class (Laws of Utah, 1909). The number of recommended history textbooks, both for pupil text and teacher reference books increased considerably after 1896.

National influences from the Committee of Ten of the National Education Association and the American Historical Association, 1892, compared to the Salt Lake City public schools course of study, 1900-1901

Until the year 1892 most of the country's textbooks and courses had been written by teachers, clergymen, and professional textbook writers. But beginning in the early nineties, the college professors of history took control of the situation. High school students entering college exhibited little knowledge of history, so an investigation of how history teaching in the schools could be improved was undertaken in 1892, by the National Education Association and the American Historical Association which created the famous "Committee of Ten." This was the first of many committees to investigate various subjects including history, civics and political economy. A number of specialists in
history met and drew up courses for elementary and high school pupils. The chief recommendation of this committee was a program of history in the elementary and secondary grades (Rugg, 1923). Table 6 summarizes the committee report and includes comparative data for the Salt Lake City public schools (1900-1901).

The Salt Lake City course of study compared favorably in the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades with biography, mythology, and American history, except for the absence of civil government. Grades eight, nine, ten, and eleven were surprisingly similar in content, with the exception of subject assignments by grades. One noticeable exception was the total absence of French history in the ninth grade. The twelfth grade special topic for intensive study suggested by the Committee of Ten consisted in Salt Lake City schools of civil government and constitutional history.

Enlargement of the history course offerings in the Salt Lake City public schools during 1900-1901 included English history, Roman history, and general history. This may be attributed to the national recommendations made by the Committee of Ten. An examination of the first written course of study for the common schools of the territory and published in 1891, the same year as the Committee of Ten’s report, placed the study of United States history and geography on the seventh or eighth grade level with the following comment: "The teacher this year [1891] should give attention to European history, in so far as it is necessary to understand our own history. The forms of government in European countries should be commented on." (Utah Territorial Schools, 1891, p. 71) Since no other mention of world history or European history before 1891 can be located in Utah school records, it would seem
Table 6. Recommendations of the Committee of Ten, 1892-1894, compared with the Salt Lake City public schools course of study, 1900-1901

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Committee of school district</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>5th grade</th>
<th>6th grade</th>
<th>7th grade</th>
<th>8th grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Committee of Ten (Sponsored by N.E.A. and A.H.A.)</td>
<td>1892 to 1894</td>
<td>Biography and mythology</td>
<td>Biography and mythology</td>
<td>American history and civil government</td>
<td>Greek and Roman history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salt Lake City public school course of study</td>
<td>1900 to 1901</td>
<td>Stories of King Arthur and American national heroes</td>
<td>Selected stories from mythology and biography</td>
<td>American history to 1763</td>
<td>Civil government and American history</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>9th grade</th>
<th>10th grade</th>
<th>11th grade</th>
<th>12th grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Committee of Ten (Sponsored by N.E.A. and A.H.A.)</td>
<td>1892 to 1894</td>
<td>French history</td>
<td>English history, medieval and modern history</td>
<td>American history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salt Lake City public school course of study</td>
<td>1900 to 1901</td>
<td>English history and Roman history</td>
<td>General history and Roman history</td>
<td>English history and civil government</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Rugg, 1923, pp. 62-63; Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1900-1901, pp. 101-103.
reasonable to assume that the state favorably received the Committee's report by adding to the curriculum courses in world history.

As soon as the Committee of Ten reports were published specialists in subject-matter wrote textbooks with systematic, elaborate, and organized facts as suggested for study by the Committee. There was evidence that the proposals of the Committee were favorably received throughout the nation. Dexter's study of the offerings in history in 1894 in forty high schools throughout the United States and the offerings of 160 high schools in 1904, ten years later, revealed the following facts: (1) a definite increase in the number of schools offering American history (from 57 to 86 per cent); (2) an increase in the offering of English history (from 39 per cent in 1894 to 51 per cent in 1905); (3) an increase in schools offering French history (from none in 1894 to 7 per cent in 1904); and (4) an increase in schools offering an intensive study of one specialized field or topic (from none in 1894 to 5 per cent in 1904) (Dexter, 1906).

National influences from the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association, 1899, compared to the Utah course of study for the public schools, 1903-1908

Since the founding of the American Historical Association in 1884, many aspects of history, including writing, research, and the teaching of history in the schools, have been carefully examined. Of all the reports, the one published in 1899 by the Committee of Seven deserves special consideration. It suggested a secondary school history program which became the pattern for high school history for years (American Historical Association, 1899).
The report by the Committee of Seven recommended four blocks of history in the last four years of high school: (1) ancient history for the first year; (2) medieval and modern history for the second year; (3) English history for the third year; and (4) American history and civil government for the fourth year. A comparison of the Committee's recommendations and the course of study recommended for the Utah high schools from 1903 to 1908 is found in Table 7.

Although the Committee of Seven's recommendations in the ninth, tenth, and eleventh grades does not reflect the exact course work in the course of study for the Utah high schools, it is remarkably similar if Utah's grade level placement is ignored. For example, ancient history in the Committee's program is placed in ninth grade but is located in the eleventh grade for the Utah schools; English history is placed in the eleventh grade by the Committee compared to Utah's placement in the tenth grade; Utah's European history is in the ninth grade and the Committee's placement of medieval and modern history is in the tenth grade. It seems reasonable to assume from the titles that the twelfth grade offering would be similar.

The tremendous influence of this report was attested to by Wesley and Wronska (1958, p. 44) with the statement that this was the "... most influential report ever prepared in the field of social studies." Tryon (1935) stated that the document came to be looked upon without parallel in its field and that for two decades following its appearance, high school history courses in the United States were almost entirely dictated by it, with about one-third of the high schools of the country adopting the report.

In 1942, Edgar B. Wesley had this to say about the report:
Table 7. Comparison of the Committee of Seven's recommendations, 1896-1899, with the Utah course of study for the public schools, 1903-1908

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>9th grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Committee of Seven</td>
<td>1896 to</td>
<td>Ancient history with study to embrace the Middle Ages closing with the establishment of the Holy Roman Empire (800), or death of Charlemagne (814), or with Treaty of Verdun (843)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(American Historical Association)</td>
<td>1899</td>
<td>Medieval and Modern history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>English history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>American history and Civil Government</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State of Utah</th>
<th>1903 to</th>
<th>12th grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Recommended course of study for high schools)</td>
<td>1908</td>
<td>Ancient history and Civics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: American Historical Association, 1899, pp. 34-35; Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1903-1908, pp. 112-113.
In spite of the quaintness of some aspects of the report it is even yet a vigorous and persuasive document. Its timeliness, its specificity, and its completeness within the area treated led to its immediate acceptance. As late as 1911, 85 per cent of the high schools in the North Central Association offered ancient history, 80 per cent medieval and modern history, 64 per cent English history, and 86 per cent American history. These percentages were, with the notable exception of English history, even higher in 1916. (Wesley, 1942, p. 209)

National influences from the Committee of Eight of The American Historical Association, 1909, compared to the Salt Lake City public schools course of study, 1924.

The Committee of Eight sponsored by the American Historical Association (1904-1909) devoted time to the study of the history taught in the elementary and junior high schools. The Committee consisted of four college professors, two superintendents, and two teachers. Questionnaires were sent out to selected schools in the nation to determine the existing course content. The plan of this Committee was that history teaching should be focused around American history. The report stated, "Our aim is to explain the America of today, its civilizations, its institutions and its traditions. America cannot be understood without taking into account the history of its people before they crossed the Atlantic." (American Historical Association, 1909, p. viii). The work of the Committee resulted in a systematic plan involving grades one through eight. Table 8 presents a comparison of the Committee's recommendations (1909) with the Salt Lake City public schools course of study (1924).

The report of the Committee of Eight was widely adopted after the 1920's, especially in grades six through eight of the city school systems. The rural schools could not do all the Committee proposed for
Table 8. Comparison of the Committee of Eight's recommendations, 1905-1909 with the Salt Lake City public school's course of study, 1924

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Committee of Eight, American Historical Association's recommendations, 1905-1909</th>
<th>Salt Lake City, Utah public schools course of study, 1924</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6th</td>
<td>European setting, early inventions, Greek, Roman, and medieval geography, history, discoveries, and explorations</td>
<td>Stories of later American history, industrial and social growth, interrelations of city's health, garbage and water systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7th</td>
<td>Colonial history and revolution</td>
<td>Geography of North America, American beginnings in Europe, commission form of government in American cities, state constitution of Utah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th</td>
<td>American history, 1787 to 1876, recent European history</td>
<td>Early American history with special attention given to relations between the United States and European countries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: American Historical Association, 1909, pp. 22-91; Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1924, pp. 14-18.
each grade, so they were content with an approximation (Tryon, 1935). The course of study for the Salt Lake City public schools contained a book list for each grade and subject. One textbook used in the seventh grade Salt Lake City schools entitled American Beginnings in Europe was "... prepared in harmony with the report of the Committee of Eight." (Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1924, p. 16) Evidence points to the fact that the Salt Lake City course of study was planned and worked out as a result of the Committee's recommendations for the teaching of history in the grades cited.

Influences of the Committee of Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of secondary education of the National Education Association, 1916

It would appear that the National Education Association has relinquished its leadership in the field of social studies from 1897 to 1916. The Association gave evidence that it had again assumed leadership in the realm of secondary education with the announcement in 1913 by the United States Bureau of Education of the appointment of a Commission for the Reorganization of Secondary Education. The Commission was made up of seventeen committees, dealing mostly with the high school subjects. Of the many committees the one which dealt with the social studies in the junior and senior high schools made its report in 1916 (United States Bureau of Education, 1916). Provisions were made for both the 6-3-3 and 8-4 plans of school organization. The following list indicates the major features of the plan for the junior high school grades:

Grade 7--Geography, European history, civics
Grade 8--Geography, American history, civics
Grade 9--Civics, economic and vocational, and economic history (United States Bureau of Education, 1916, p. 15)

In grade seven, geography and European history were to be taught for half a year each, with civics either as a phase or as a separate subject for one or two periods a week. A second suggestion was to make European history the core subject around which geography and civics were to be correlated. Similar adjustments and alterations were made for the other two grades.

The following suggestions were made for the senior high school years:

Grade 10--European history to 1700
Grades 11 and 12--European history since 1700
   (1 or \(\frac{1}{2}\) year)
   American history (1 or \(\frac{1}{2}\) year)
   Problems of American Democracy (1 or \(\frac{1}{2}\) year)
(United States Bureau of Education, 1916, pp. 36, 52)

The revolutionary report by this committee resulted in (1) a new course in problems of democracy (social, political, economic), (2) one full year in the American history course, (3) reduction of time spent on ancient history, and (4) an increase in the time spent on modern European history.

Tryon (1935) claimed it would be difficult to overstate the influence of the report of this Committee--that the multitude of present-day high schools offering a course in American democracy, and the common use of the term "social studies" may be directly traced to it.

The term "social studies," according to the Committee of 1916, is "... understood to be those whose subject matters related directly to the organization and development of human society, and to
men as members of social groups." (United States Bureau of Education, 1916, p. 9) Under this statement the Committee included geography, history, civics, and problems of democracy (social, economic, and political). The expression "social sciences" was often used as an equivalent for the "social studies" but Wesley emphasized the distinction by stating that the social studies are "... the social sciences simplified for pedagogical purposes." (Wesley, 1942, p. 6) The expression social studies has proved so convenient that it rapidly acquired general currency in American discussions of education.

An examination of the reports by the United States Office of Education for the school years 1933 and 1934 yields information that Utah's offerings and registrations of social studies subjects were, for the main, influenced by the 1916 report of the Committee of Social Studies. Geography was placed in the seventh grade as a full year course, American history in the eighth grade as a full year course, and civic government as a half year course. World history, American history, and problems of American democracy were dominant in the last four years of the Utah high school registration along with some offerings in community government, civil government, sociology, and economics (United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, 1938).

World history as a frequent social studies offering did not appear until the 1920's. Table 9 indicates that approximately half of the total high school enrollment finished at least three years of social studies. Between 1928 and 1934 the percentage of students taking American history was much greater than world history, but enrollment in world history gained some and included 11.92 per cent of the students
Table 9. Relationship of world history offerings to other social studies courses in high schools of the United States for the selected years of 1922, 1928 and 1934

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1922</th>
<th>1928</th>
<th>1934</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Percent of total</td>
<td>Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of students</td>
<td>2,155,460</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>2,596,630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American history</td>
<td>329,565</td>
<td>15.29</td>
<td>517,325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English history</td>
<td>61,766</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>25,203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ancient history</td>
<td>371,392</td>
<td>17.23</td>
<td>301,794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medieval and modern history</td>
<td>330,836</td>
<td>15.35</td>
<td>327,313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World history</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>175,628</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The percentage in 1934 of Utah’s secondary students enrolled in history in contrast to the nation’s average for total registrations in history is shown in Table 10.

Between the 1930’s and the 1960’s world history has increased as a percentage of enrollment in Utah social studies courses. For 1960-1961, United States history held the highest percentage of pupil enrollment; followed in order by world history, state history, ancient and medieval history, and modern history (United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, 1965).

Utah laws and the teaching of history

The place of history in the Utah school curriculum was thoroughly established by law in 1896. The law regarding the teaching of patriotism came under a statute regarding “Prohibited Doctrines and Moral

Table 10. Percentage of Utah’s secondary students enrolled in history in contrast to the nation’s average in 1934

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>World history</th>
<th>Ancient history</th>
<th>Medieval and modern history</th>
<th>American history</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Continental United States</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utah</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Instruction." It prescribed the following:

No atheistic, infidel, sectarian, religious, or denominational doctrine shall be taught in any of the district schools of this state. Moral instruction tending to impress on the minds of the pupils the importance of good manners, truthfulness, temperance, purity, patriotism and industry shall be given in every school district . . . . (Laws of Utah, 1896, p. 487)

It was especially evident toward the end of World War I and during the 1920's of a national consciousness directed toward our American heritage. In Utah a state law was enacted requiring the teaching of the Constitution of the United States in all public and private schools (Laws of Utah, 1923, p. 4). During this period one-third of the state legislatures enacted laws that prescribed the teaching of the federal constitution (Pierce, 1926).

When the 1911 high school law was enacted, provision was made for the State Board of Education to prescribe the course of study for high schools (Laws of Utah, 1911, p. 101). Under the provisions of this 1911 statute, the State Board of Education established accreditation for the high schools of the state. The State Board minutes of August 29, 1911, list the requirements as follows:

Elementary algebra, 1 unit; plane geometry, 1 unit; American history and civics, 1 unit; agriculture, ½ unit, (3 hrs. per wk. for yr.); elementary science or physical geography, ½ unit; domestic science or art, ½ unit; three units in English. (Utah Board of Education, Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1911 p. 189)

During the ensuing years emphasis was placed on all phases of public school standards due to the 1918 proposal for educational plans calling for a 6-3-3 arrangement (Utah Board of Education, Office of the State Superintendent, 1918). Periodic adjustments were made in the
public school program of studies by the State Course of Study Committee. A rather complete chart of their action taken June 21, 1937, of all subjects was included in the Utah School Report issues in 1938. The report is shown in Table 11. An examination of the program indicates that social studies was required in every grade except the tenth, where it was optional. In the seventh grade old world history and Utah history were required; eighth grade listed United States history; ninth grade posted citizenship; tenth grade world history was optional with local districts; eleventh grade listed American history and government; and twelfth grade required problems in American life.

Final adjustment to the program of studies by the State Course of Study Committee came in 1944. Very slight adjustments were made from the 1937-1938 recommendations. For comparison purposes the social studies subjects, only, are listed in Table 12. (The original source listed all school subjects). Old World history was dropped in the seventh grade and the tenth grade was the only grade not requiring a social studies class.

The program of social studies in Utah schools remained unchanged from 1944 until 1956. During that year the State Board of Education and the State Course of Study Committee authorized a study of school graduation requirements (Utah School Report, 1954-1956). The result was the 1958 program of social studies for Utah schools. All subjects were listed in this undertaking, but only the social studies are

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2 Hereafter to be cited as Utah School Report except in the Literature Cited section which lists the Utah Department of Public Instruction as author.
Table 11. Program of studies adopted by the State Course of Study Committee, June 21, 1937, for Utah high schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>7th grade</th>
<th>8th grade</th>
<th>9th grade</th>
<th>10th grade</th>
<th>11th grade</th>
<th>12th grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>5R</td>
<td>5R</td>
<td>5R</td>
<td>5R</td>
<td>5R</td>
<td>5G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ut. Hist. &amp; Geo.</td>
<td>5R</td>
<td>5R</td>
<td>5G</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2G</td>
<td>5G</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bus. Math.</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2G</td>
<td>5G</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5R</td>
<td>5R</td>
<td>5R</td>
<td>5G</td>
<td>5G</td>
<td>5G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phy. Educ. and Healthd</td>
<td>5R</td>
<td>5R</td>
<td>5R</td>
<td>5G</td>
<td>5G</td>
<td>5G°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts: Music Art</td>
<td>Req.</td>
<td>Req.</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 11. Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>7th grade</th>
<th>8th grade</th>
<th>9th grade</th>
<th>10th grade</th>
<th>11th grade</th>
<th>12th grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Voc. Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>An. Hus. 5G</td>
<td>Div. Farming 5G</td>
<td>Marketing 5G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Econ.</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Arts</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>G</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


aThis program is the official action of the State Course of Study Committee appointed by law. Departure therefrom should be made only by written permission of the State Director of Secondary Education.

bThe "5" indicates the number of recitations weekly. "R" indicates that the subject is required. "G" means subject is optional but taken through guidance to fit interests or needs of pupil.

cIt should be noted that English is required every year except the 12th in which it is optional. (The local district may require it.) Social studies is required yearly except for the 10th grade in which it is optional. Local districts may make it a requirement.

Algebra is placed in the 10th grade and Geometry in the 11th. Mathematics is elective above the 8th grade. However those students going on to college must have it and faculties should see that they get it.

The time allotment is not indicated for vocational electives nor fine arts, the inference being that these courses should be made to fit the needs of the pupils and the facilities of the school.

dPhysical Education and Health may include instruction in Hygiene, Physiology and Eugenics.

e10 hours health and Physical Education required in last three years of high school.
Table 12. Program of social studies for Utah secondary schools, 1944

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>7th grade</th>
<th>8th grade</th>
<th>9th grade</th>
<th>10th grade</th>
<th>11th grade</th>
<th>12th grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Utah Hist.</td>
<td>5R</td>
<td>Neighbors</td>
<td>5G or R</td>
<td>&amp; Gov't</td>
<td>5R</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1946a, pp. 10-11.

aSocial studies are required yearly except for the 10th grade in which it is optional. It is recommended that 11th grade remain required, that a choice be made between 10th grade social studies and 12th grade.

bThe "5" indicates the number of recitations weekly. "R" indicates that the subject is required. "G" means the subject is optional but taken through guidance to fit interests of pupil.
presented in Table 13. Amendments to the social studies program have remained unchanged from 1958 to 1967. The present program requires Utah history, 1/2 contact point, in the seventh grade; United States history, 1 contact point, in the eighth grade; world geography, 1/2 contact point, in the ninth grade; American history, 1 contact point, in the eleventh grade; and 1 contact point from the choice of world history, America's social and economic problems, or 1/2 contact point from sociology, world geography, or economics.

State courses of study in history for junior and senior high schools

The state had no uniform course of study for high schools in 1896, so the responsibility of determining subject-matter content rested with the districts. The studies of the high schools in Salt Lake City in 1900 were composed of classical, scientific, English, and commercial business courses (Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1900-1901). All subjects of study were listed under these major studies.

The course of study in 1918 covered the elementary grades as well as the junior high and senior high grades. The 1918 published course of study for the junior high school grouped the school subjects as "required" and "elective." The seventh grade history offering was entitled "European Beginnings of American History," while the eighth grade subject was, "United States History, including Current Events."

3In Utah, a "contact point" is defined as a unit of credit given upon satisfactory completion of a course the duration of which shall be at least fifty minutes multiplied by the number of days in the school year for the senior high school and a class period held each day all year long for the junior high school.
Table 13. Program of social studies for Utah secondary schools, 1956

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>7th grade</th>
<th>8th grade</th>
<th>9th grade</th>
<th>10th grade</th>
<th>11th grade</th>
<th>12th grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(\frac{1}{2}R)</td>
<td>1(^c)R</td>
<td>(\frac{1}{2}R)</td>
<td>0 or R</td>
<td>1R</td>
<td>0 or R</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1958, pp. 29-33.

\(^a\)Any secondary school, on a personal guidance basis may exempt any student from meeting any one unit or its equivalent of these requirements provided the number does not exceed five per cent of the class enrollment, and any student may be exempted from meeting two units of the requirements, provided the number of students so exempted does not exceed two per cent of the class enrollment.

\(^b\)One unit in addition to American history and government is required in grades 10-12. The unit may be from one or a combination of the following: world history, one unit; America's social and economic problems, one unit; sociology, one-half unit; world geography, one-half unit; or economics, one-half unit.

\(^c\)The "1" indicates the number of "contact" units (representing fifty minutes multiplied by the number of days in the school year for the senior high and a class period held each day all year long for the junior high). "R" indicates that the subject is required. "0" indicates that the subject must be offered in the school.
The history courses for the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades included American history, Utah or local history, European history, and ancient history (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1918b).

Revisions in the secondary schools course of study took place in 1923, 1929, 1934, 1947, and 1961 (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1923b, 1947a and 1961; Utah School Report, 1929-1930 and 1935-1936). These changes reflect the growth of Utah history in the seventh grade, United States history in the eighth and eleventh grades, and world history in the tenth grade.

In 1965 a syllabus for advanced placement in United States history was published. This manual was prepared to help meet the needs of the gifted student for use in the twelfth grade (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1965).

**District courses of study in history for junior and senior high schools**

The public schools of Salt Lake City presently require the following classes in history: Utah history and the West, grade seven; United States history, grade eight; world history, grade ten; and United States history, grade eleven. Separate publications for most subjects were published in 1964. Numerous courses of study, in the subject of history, by the Salt Lake City public schools date back before the turn of the century.

The history curriculum or course of study offering in the Granite school district compared favorably with the state minimum program for the secondary schools, as outlined by the Utah State Department of Public Instruction. Table 14 indicates how this school district exceeds the minimum requirements.
Table 14. Comparison of the Granite School District's secondary social studies program with the minimum requirements of the Utah Department of Public Instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Dist. program</th>
<th>State min. requirements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Utah Hist. and Com. Problems</td>
<td>1 unit (2 sem.)</td>
<td>1/2 unit (1 sem.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>U. S. History and Personal Citizenship</td>
<td>1 unit (2 sem.)</td>
<td>1 unit (2 sem.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Geography and Wld. Aff.</td>
<td>1 unit (2 sem.)</td>
<td>1/2 unit (1 sem.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Junior high school summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>3 units (6 sem.)</th>
<th>2 units (4 sem.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Dist. program</th>
<th>State min. requirements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>World History to 1815</td>
<td>1/2 unit (1 sem.)</td>
<td>1 unit (2 sem.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>American History to 1880</td>
<td>1/2 unit (1 sem.)</td>
<td>Am. Hist. and Gov't</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>America in Modern World History</td>
<td>1/2 unit (1 sem.)</td>
<td>1 unit (2 sem.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>U. S. Political and Economic Institutions</td>
<td>1/2 unit (1 sem.)</td>
<td>One or a combination of the following courses:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Contemporary American</td>
<td>1/2 unit (1 sem.)</td>
<td>World History</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Problems or Sociology</td>
<td></td>
<td>Contemporary Problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>America's Role in World Affairs or</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sociology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comparative Political and Economic Systems</td>
<td></td>
<td>Economics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>World Cultures</td>
<td></td>
<td>World Geography</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Senior high school summary

|                            | 3 units (6 sem.) | 2 units (4 sem.) |

New viewpoints in history

The study of world history since World War I has included units dealing with social, economic, and cultural subjects. After World War II still more units of study were added to deal with the new non-Western countries. The mere adding of studies from the non-Western civilizations does not make for universal history. A global approach of world history will not ignore the achievements and contributions of Western civilizations but will allow the secondary student to see that culture in its true interrelationship with other cultures.

Global history does not diminish or eliminate the importance of the history of individual nations. The interaction of three great civilizations—the Hindu, the Islamic, and the Western Christian—temper the ethnocentric interpretation of history (Stavrianos, 1962).

The making of world history truly global in scope has imposed problems of making the world an enlarged neighborhood. No longer are world cultures slighted and overlooked. The Middle and Far East, Latin America, and Africa are viewed in their interdependence with other world nations and people to provide unity to the human past. Stavrianos commenting on world history being almost completely West-oriented said:

It is true that here and there units are added dealing with non-Western areas. But notice that China is dragged in to prepare the ground for Chinese Gordon; Japan in order to get ready for Commodore Perry; India for Robert Clive, Africa for Cecil Rhodes and David Livingstone, and so forth. In other words, non-Western areas are considered only when the West impinges on them. This, of course, is not World History. Perhaps it can be defined as the History of Europe and Its Overseas Expansion, but it certainly is not World History in any meaningful sense. (Stavrianos, 1962, p. 131)

The need for a new and truly universal history, to be global history, free of any Western or European-centered bias was planned by
I. S. Stavrianos in his *Global History of Man* (1966) which was recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction in 1967. Stavrianos planned his secondary textbook on an arrangement of required "core" chapters and optional "region" chapters, and in making use of the "flashback" method.

In considering the specific content of the current offerings of American history textbooks on the secondary level, there is a marked improvement in the treatment of the Negro and other minority groups. While no one book deals adequately with the Negro in American history, there is improvement in the composite of most textbook content. The origin of the Negro and his African cultural roots are more clearly understood in textual content dealing with the Supreme Court decision of 1954 and the riotous present. The improvement of the Negro's condition within the pages of the American history textbook has assisted the American Indian and other racial minority groups into the realm of better recognition. *Land of the Free* (1966) an American history textbook for seventh and eighth grade level students by Caughey, Franklin, and May was recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction in 1968. This secondary textbook attempts to set a standard for other textbooks on this subject with the major theme of describing American history with a diverse people of many different national origins in a diversified environment during the past three centuries.
Nineteenth century geography textbooks

In the nineteenth century the public school textbook underwent development which was in accord with the times—they changed. The content was usually simple, brief, and encyclopedic with emphasis upon memorization. The following introduction from the first lesson in an 1811 textbook entitled *A Short But Comprehensive System of the Geography of the World* by Nathaniel Dwight, serves as an example. It will be noted that one of the striking features in the print of this text is the letter "s" (ʃ).\(^4\)

Q. What is GEOGRAPHY?
A. Geography, in its most general sense, is the science of the earth (confining of land and water) and its productions.

Q. How great a proportion of the earth is covered with water?
A. About three fifths of the whole.

Q. What number of square miles doth the earth contain?
A. It is computed to contain one hundred and ninety-nine million, five hundred and eleven thousand, five hundred and ninety five square miles.

Q. How many square miles are there of sea, and of parts unknown?
A. One hundred and sixty million, five hundred and twenty-two thousand, and twenty-six.

\(^4\)"S," the nineteenth letter of the English alphabet, in printing used the form (ʃ) to denote a long s. The *Encyclopedia Britannica* (1968, p. 544) stated that "... in the 18th century ... the Gothic or "black-letter" type used by the early printers finally gave place to Roman characters and long s (ʃ) was thus replaced by ordinary s." Due to the limitations of the letters on the typewriter the letter "f" was used.
Q. How many square miles are there of the habitable world?
A. Thirty eight million, nine hundred and ninety thousand, five hundred and sixty-nine.
Q. What are the natural divisions of the earth?
A. The natural divisions of the earth are land and water.
Q. How is the land divided?
A. Into two great continents, called the eastern and western continents.
Q. How are these continents divided?
A. The eastern is divided into Europe, Asia and Africa. The western is divided into North and South America.
Q. Are not these continents divided in a different manner?
A. They are divided into distinct governments.

Dwight's 1811 textbook on geography was published thirty-three years after our independence from England. According to the author the text was "Principally designed for children and common schools ... by way of question and answer." (Dwight, 1811, preface) The author had obtained, in the introduction of his textbook, the signatures of ten men for a book-testimonial and recommendation. In their endorsement they said, "We with pleasure [pleasure] recommend it to the use [use] of instructors [instructors] as being well calculated to lessen [lessen] their own labours, and to facilitate the means of improvement in the minds of their young pupils."

The content of textbooks in different subject fields during any particular time has varied considerably. One chief reason for this variance was the absence of professional organizations and societies, such as the Association of American Geographers or the American Historical Association, which helped to determine the content of the textbook in each respective subject field. Before the organization of these societies each author could largely determine what his text
would include or omit.

Many nineteenth century geography textbooks in America had very long titles. The titles often presented a description of the book along with the purpose. A marked example was J. Olney's *Modern Geography*. Its full title was:

**PRACTICAL SYSTEM OF MODERN GEOGRAPHY OR A VIEW OF THE PRESENT STATE OF THE WORLD. SIMPLIFIED AND ADAPTED TO THE CAPACITY OF YOUTH. CONTAINING NUMEROUS TABLES,**

Exhibiting the Divisions, Settlement, Population, Extent, Lakes, Canals, and the various Institutions of the United States and Europe, the different forms of Government, Prevailing Religions, the Latitude and Longitude of the Principal Places on the Globe.

EMBELLISHED WITH NUMEROUS ENGRAVINGS OF MANNERS, CUSTOMS, ETC.

ACCOMPANIED BY A NEW AND IMPROVED ATLAS.

(Olney, 1835, title page)

The field of geography

Geography is an "old" subject field. One of the first to systematize geography was Hecataeus of Miletus, who lived before 500 B.C., sometimes called the "Father of geography." As the subject and study of geography has expanded it is often asked if the subject is a natural science or if it is to be classified among the social sciences. Authorities in both fields agree that it must be classed as both, according to the purpose and interpretation of the material. Geography as an independent subject has no rigid boundaries. Professor Robert M. Brown
reveals a physical bias with the following statement:

Geography deals with the relationships which exist between man and his physical environment. The study of man's physical environment is called physical geography or physiography. Geography comprehends more than physiography and less than the study of man. It is the study of the acts of man that are influenced by his environment. . . . It is the cold in the Arctic, is a statement of meteorology or climatology, not of geography. The Eskimos wear furs, is a statement of fashion or custom, not of geography. Because it is cold in the Arctic region, the Eskimos wear furs is a statement that shows the relationship of physical environment to organic effect, and it is therefore geographical in character. (Dawson, 1927, pp. 28-29)

Dr. Isaiah Bowman in a report of the Commission on the Social Studies in the Schools stated:

Geography is only in part "objective science," composed of outward things called geographical arranged in accordance with their intrinsic relations, without regard to human purpose, design, or relationship. There are items of knowledge employed in geographical thought which may be treated scientifically in a strict sense. That is to say, their occurrence and behavior conform to physical laws. For example, the movements of the tides can be and have been calculated and treated as sequences of movements (high and low water) that conform to rules. Despite numerous and peculiar local variations these movements can be predicted with fair accuracy for long periods of future time. But all of the data of geography cannot be so organized, because many of them are entangled with (at present) unpredicatable variables—human beings organized in societies and in course of development.

Thus while particular scholars may confine their attention almost entirely to so-called "objective earth facts," those who select earth facts and organize them in relation to mankind are operating with respect to social knowledge and thought as well as with respect to earth facts. (Bowman, 1934, pp. 224, 226)

Geography, like history, was an important part of education in the early schooling of Colonial America, long before it was adopted formally as a school subject. It was a practical subject and of interest to people desiring knowledge of navigation as well as the phenomena of the heavens and earth.
The general purposes for the presentation of geography in schools were: (1) it was useful, (2) it served to promote good citizenship, (3) it enabled one to appreciate art, literature and science, and (4) it served for purposes of mental and moral discipline (Roorbach, 1937). Jedidiah Morse, sometimes called the "American father of geography," having written his first geography in the United States said, "There is not a son or a daughter of Adam, but has some concern in both geography and astronomy." (Morse, 1806, title page) In his Elementary Geography, Guyot (1868, preface) stated the main purpose of geography was "... to impress upon the memory most firmly and clearly, those geographical facts and ideas appropriate to the age of the pupils." Smiley's Encyclopedia of Geography expressed "The value and importance of the study of geography are so obvious as to require little illustration." (Smiley, 1839, preface)

The teaching of geography was influenced by the idea of mental discipline in the catechetical texts which encouraged the question and answer method; however, the training of memory became the chief purpose of most teachers. Roorbach (1937) suggested that as late as the 1870's singing recitations became a familiar method with verses and songs in geography set to music. Although emphasis on rote recitation did persist it did not proceed unchallenged.

The content of geography undoubtedly presented difficulties to the curriculum makers of the past. The different fields included ancient, sacred, medieval, modern, universal, physical, and political geographies.

Early American geography textbooks

A mild form of nationalistic spirit was expressed in the 1806
edition of Morse's *Geography Made Easy*. In the section of the book marked advertisement, he said:

> Our young men, universally, have been much better acquainted with the geography of Europe and Asia than with that of their own state and country. The want of suitable books on this subject has been the cause, we hope the sole cause, of this shameful defect in our education. Till within a few years, we have seldom pretended to write, and hardly to think for ourselves. We have humbly received from Great-Britain our laws, our manners, our books, and our modes of thinking; and our youth have been educated rather as the subjects of the British King than as the citizens of a free and independent republic. But the scene is now changed. The revolution has been favorable to science in general; particularly to that of the geography of our own country. (Morse, 1806, advertisement)

Many of the earlier authors seldom interpreted the facts presented in their geography books in relationship to each other. The contents of most of the early geographies containing questions and answers consisted of a body of unrelated facts concerning the world and its people. The inter-relatedness was overlooked. Appleton's *Standard Higher Geography* used in the territorial schools of Utah, favored developing relationships for increased comprehension. In the preface the author, D. Appleton said,

> Geography thus taught ceases to be a dry assemblage of isolated details, to be forgotten as soon as learned, and is made to appear in its true light—as a science based on principles which explain its facts and connect them in a consistent whole. (Appleton, 1881, preface)

The author seemed to be stressing the development of cognitive skill as well as factual memorization.

Provisions for individual differences were made by some authors. Cornell wrote a systematic and graded series of school geographies, and on the title page of her *Primary Geography* the following quotation appeared: "First the blade, then the ear, after that the full corn in
the ear." She attempted to render the branch of geography "... as palpable to the understandings of pupils as some of the other branches of their education." (Cornell, 1857, preface) She attempted to give students "one thing at a time" as the readers, spellers, arithmetic and other subjects which had appeared in graded series, had done earlier.

James Monteith's geographical series were adapted to every grade. His First Lessons in Geography, Introduction to Manual, and Manual of Geography were designed for children receiving their first lessons in geography. Monteith's Comprehensive Geography and Physical and Political Geography were for the intermediate and higher grades.

Some authors of textbooks planned their books for specific purposes. Monteith claimed his Comprehensive Geography would save pupil time in learning due to the "... one leading feature [of the book] ... that the student learns all about one country or state at a time." (Monteith, 1875b, preface)

Ned Culler analyzed 97 geographies published between 1840 and 1890, and found a number of different plans or combinations of plans followed in presenting the materials. Culler's averages were: general geography, 40.1 per cent; United States, 29.8 per cent; other North American countries, 6.2 per cent; South America, 4.5 per cent; Europe, 8.4 per cent; Asia, 5.5 per cent; Africa, 3.7 per cent; and Australia, 1.9 per cent. His conclusion was that by 1890, no common practice was followed. Books analyzed before the printed date of 1840 devoted 15.5 per cent of the space to general geography compared to those from 1840 to 1890 that averaged 40.1 per cent. While the space devoted to the United States
and Australia remained constant, the European space decreased from 20.7 per cent to 8.4 per cent, while the Asian space changed from 10.9 to 5.5 per cent (Nietz, 1961).

The one characteristic of geography textbooks that changed most from the earlier to the later periods was size. Two reasons for the increase in size is apparent, due to the larger size of type in the later books and the inclusion of maps, charts, and graphs in the geographies which required larger books. Culler found that the average size of geography books published during the 1840's was 39 sq. in.; during the 1850's, 73.2 sq. in.; during the 1860's, 72.2 sq. in.; during the 1870's, 91.3 sq. in.; and during the 1880's, 98 sq. in. The geographies of the 1880's were more than three times as large as those published before 1840 (Nietz, 1961).

Considerable differences existed between various authors on the content of geography textbooks. For example, Morse's A New System of Geography (1824) in dealing with the United States covered the following topics: population and rate of increase, classification of inhabitants, water and land transportation, religion, commerce, exports, imports, colleges, revenue and expenditure, and public debt. Dwight's Short But Comprehensive System of the Geography of the World (1811) asked 24 questions in catachetical fashion, providing answers about the United States of America and New England. Guyot in Elementary Geography (1863) devoted most of the space on direction and distance, home, occupations, definitions, United States by regions, and other countries.

Similar topics were treated in the following decades of the nineteenth century. Cornell's Elementary Geography (1879) dealt with
geographical position, occupations, Eastern and Western hemispheres, governments, religions, United States by regions, and other areas of the world. In Swinton's *Introductory Geography* (1882) the topics were direction and distance, products, natural features, Eastern and Western hemispheres, governments, religions, chief cities, and government. A general pattern of content was beginning to emerge in the latter part of the nineteenth century.

**Geography textbooks in Utah in the nineteenth century**

In the Spring of 1852, Brigham Young delivered a discourse in the Salt Lake City tabernacle in which he said, "We want every branch of science taught in this place that is taught in the world." (Young, 1859, p. 317) In the opinion of the writer this was a noble endeavor for the new inhabitants of Utah. Geography, as an educational subject, was not excluded in the early schools (Deseret News, 1852, p. 3).

The Utah Territorial legislature in 1860 required the district school leaders to maintain certain types of information on a term report in which geography was one of the prescribed subjects (Laws of Utah Territory, 1860, p. 221). Although geography was taught in the public schools from the earliest times, it was not required by law until 1890. Every teacher in the district schools was to teach the various subjects required, which included geography (Laws of Utah Territory, 1890, p. 121).

The Utah Territorial Report of the Superintendent (Commissioner) of Schools of Utah from 1861 to 1896 lists a small number of geography textbooks. These books along with authors were mentioned, recommended,
or adopted, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author and Geography Textbook</th>
<th>Year(s) of Recommendation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monteith's Geography (ies)</td>
<td>1864, 1870, 1872, 1874</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guyot's Geography</td>
<td>1882</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appleton's Elementary Geography</td>
<td>1882, 1892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appleton's Higher Geography</td>
<td>1882</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scribner's Geographical Readers</td>
<td>1887</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From this limited information provided by the territorial schools it would appear that James Monteith and Arnold Guyot were the two authors referred to along with the publishing firms of Appleton and Scribner. Since a number of textbook publications on geography were written by these authors and publishers it is difficult to list specific textbooks used in Utah. For this reason some of the most popular geographies will be listed under these authors and publishers.

James Monteith's Elementary Geography, was taught by means of pictures, maps, charts, diagrams, map drawing, and blackboard exercises. Throughout the book, directions were given to teachers as to the best way to prepare and conduct the lessons. Large and small printing was used throughout the text for emphasis. For example,

The land which lacks rain all the year is that which extends from the SIERRA NEVADAS EASTWARD TO AND BEYOND THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS. The driest region comprises NEVADA, UTAH, COLORADO, ARIZONA AND NEW MEXICO: some parts of which are as barren as a desert. (Monteith, 1874, p. 47)

First Lessons in Geography by Monteith treated the general features of this subject "... such as the locality and description of continents, countries, states, rivers, mountains, and etc., without dwelling prematurely upon details which embarrass the learner in his first effort." (Monteith, 1875b, preface) All maps used in this book were free from meridians, parallels of latitude, and any over-abundance of names which would detract from a student just able to
Comprehensive Geography by the author Monteith included local, physical, descriptive, historical, mathematical, comparative, topical, and ancient geography. Each of these terms were defined in his method of instruction. Full size maps were throughout the text which measured 10 inches by 12 inches (Monteith, 1875a).

The intermediate and higher grades were intended for Monteith's Physical and Political Geography. This text was divided into short paragraphs so that the beginning of each in prominent type was suggestive of the subject and the questions. The intended purpose was to impart valuable information and "... especially to cultivate the learner's powers of observation and reasoning." This book contained many materials normally found in an atlas and was according to the author, "... especially valuable for its easy style of presenting geography as a science." (Monteith, 1876, introduction)

James Monteith's New Physical Geography was noticeably advanced from his other writings. It was designed for grammar and high schools, and colleges (Monteith, 1885).

Arnold Guyot, born and reared in Switzerland and later employed by the Massachusetts State Board of Education, was both a lecturer and an author on the subject of geography. His first publication was published in 1849, entitled The Earth and Man. He later wrote a graded series of geographies. In 1866 Guyot published a Primary and Common School Geography. Several years later he prepared an Elementary Geography for primary classes, an Intermediate Geography for the middle grades, and a Grammar School Geography for high school use (Nietz,
The last three textbooks mentioned are probably the texts used in Utah schools due to their accessibility in Utah libraries. Guyot's Elementary Geography (1868) was located in the John R. Park textbook collection, and contained the following instructions for teachers demonstrating directions in geography:

East and West. East is the direction in which the sun rises, or comes into sight in the morning. West is the direction in which the sun sets, or goes out of sight in the evening.

EXERCISE--Point to the place where the sun rises. In what direction are you pointing? Point to the place where the sun sets. In what direction are you pointing?

What objects can you see toward the place where the sun sets? In what direction from you are those objects? What can you see toward the place where the sun rises? In what direction from you are those objects? Name something in this room which is east of you. Name something which is west of you. Do you know of any place which is east of this house? Can you think of any thing which is west of it? (Guyot, 1868, p. 6)

Appleton's Standard Elementary Geography (1880) and Appleton's Standard Higher Geography (1881) were copyrighted by the D. Appleton Company. These textbooks, used in Utah schools, were graded for individual differences among students. The size of the earlier publication measured 7 1/2 by 9 inches while the later text measured 10 by 12 inches and included large maps.

Scribner's geographical readers, referred to in the recommended list of school textbooks by the Utah Territorial Superintendent, were probably similar to the Geographical Reader and Primer (1882). Several geographical readers are listed by the U. S. Catalog, Cumulative Book Index (1912). The list is not specific as to which texts in the Scribner geographical readers were used in Utah schools.

The lack of written record makes the determination of nineteenth
century geography textbooks in Utah difficult to determine. With the majority of the Utah schools during the territorial period being ungraded schools extending through the eighth grade, it is not possible to state which textbooks were used on the various grade levels. It seems logical that geography textbooks with titles like: "First Lessons," "Introduction," or "Elementary" were utilized on the elementary level of instruction while titles of "Comprehensive," "Physical and Political," or "Higher Geography" were used in the more advanced classes of geographical instruction. Textbooks in geography were listed in this study without reference to elementary or secondary use.

The use of textbooks was wide and varied throughout the schools of Utah. This was due largely to their increased availability, and the rather late (1876) mandatory law requiring the uniform use of textbooks in Utah. One of the best single collections of nineteenth century geography textbooks in this area is in the John R. Park collection at the University of Utah. Dr. Park served as the first State Superintendent of Public Instruction from 1896 to 1900. This was a critical period in Utah history during the transition from territorial status to statehood. See Appendix B for a listing of geography textbooks located in the John R. Park collection.

**Developments in geography education in the United States to 1892**

The leading position of geography in the early schools of this country may be due to the many children of the colonial period who became acquainted with the elements of geography through listening to the conversations of sailors, trappers, explorers, and other persons whose interests made travel and a knowledge of that subject necessary.
While no record of geography instruction in the common schools during the colonial period was found, the first school geography courses offered in the secondary schools of the United States consisted of general world geography (Mayo, 1965).

Until the 1820's the textbooks on geography written for what is now the junior high school level were generally encyclopedic. They were to be memorized and basically descriptive rather than explanatory. The teaching method of beginning with the whole and analyzing through to the smaller parts was employed by all the authors. The contents of the textbooks included a general view of the world, the continents, countries, and the states (Rumble, 1946).

By the 1820's, the various movements to improve American education had begun to effect changes both in geographical textbooks and in methods of teaching. The Pestalozzian ideas from Prussian Europe reflected changes in this country. The Pestalozzian methods were primarily based on the use of studies through the child's sense perceptions. The American educators who traveled to Europe during this part of the nineteenth century and came into contact with the Prussian school system were no doubt eager to spread the teaching of geography by the drawing of maps, the study of the pupil's home region, and the observation of globes. By 1860, geographical globes were standard equipment in nearly all school systems in the country. Many schools had the common practice of having the globes constructed of slate, on which the student or the teacher could draw with chalk the physical features of the earth. Rosen describes a typical geography exercise before the Civil War.
A pupil was sent to the blackboard to draw from memory a map of Italy. Having drawn the parallels and meridians, he sketched with rapidity and accuracy, its lines of seacoast and continental boundaries, the course of the rivers and mountain ranges, and located the most important towns, cities, and places of historical interest, at the same time giving an oral description of the most prominent geographical features delineated with a statement of interesting facts, etc. . . . (Rosen, 1957, p. 406-407)

By the 1850's the majority of public secondary schools were offering an increase in the number of geography courses which were becoming broader in scope. The first physical geography textbook appeared in 1855, with a text treating natural phenomena only, and it was divided into three basic parts: the atmosphere, hydrosphere and lithosphere. Other textbooks added parts on the physical geography of the United States, with plants and animals. Popular authors of physical geography included, S. S. Cornell, James Monteith, David Warren, and Arnold Guyot (Mayo, 1965).

That portion of geography which concerns itself with spectacular phenomena like earthquakes, volcanoes, and geysers, was before 1873 called physical geography. This type of geography appealed to the sense of awe and wonder. In the schools the study of physical geography began to displace locational geography despite the growing discontentment among educators and geographers alike, concerned over the content and methods of geography instruction. In 1873 the publication of Guyot's *Physical Geography* "... ushered in a new era of geography teaching." (Rosen, 1957, p. 407)

Arnold Henry Guyot (1807-1884) came to Massachusetts from Switzerland. He brought with him the enthusiasm for Pestalozzian methods used mainly through the medium of pictures in his physical geography. In his later life he was employed as a professor of geography at Princeton
University and his publication Physical Geography (1873) was considered a "milestone" in geography with the many beautiful illustrations and fine maps printed in multicolor. The popularity of Guyot's work was evidenced by a virtual revolution among textbook writers of geography. The author, Rosen (1957), suggested that even though Guyot changed the entire structure of geographic instruction, his scientific philosophy was being undermined by the widespread acceptance of the doctrine of evolution in which Darwin explained the concepts of heredity, variation, adaptation, and natural selection on the basis of a new aspect of physical geography called "physiography" or a description of the ever changing features of the earth's surface.

According to Rumble (1946), after 1850 in addition to classes in geography, the common and grammar schools were devoting a short period each day, usually fifteen minutes in length, to presenting material by way of oral lessons. Much of the subject-matter from the oral lessons came from physical geography. From about 1850 to 1880, high schools in the nation commonly offered one or more science subjects in the first year. The science usually taught was either physical geography or physiology. During the last decades of the nineteenth century, physical geography, while still popular, was unable to hold an equal place with physiology.

Sidney Rosen suggested that the teaching of geography never acquired the support from colleges that was needed in the nineteenth century. He stated,

Geography never equalled mathematics and history in importance as a college entrance requirement. This change was well substantiated by the lack of qualified teachers. Few specialists in geography were being turned out by the
colleges and universities. In 1897, for example there were only three professors of geography in the entire United States: Davis at Harvard, Tarr at Cornell, and Libby at Princeton! (Rosen, 1957, pp. 407-408)

By the end of the nineteenth century, the trend was to substitute biological sciences for physical geography at the ninth-grade level and to offer physical geography material in the upper grade levels. In 1892, due to the popularity and non-popularity of geography in the schools, the Committee of Ten of the National Educational Association decided to consider the status of school geography (Mayo, 1965).

National influences from the Committee of Ten of the National Education Association, 1892

The group on geography instruction of the Committee of Ten held meetings in Chicago, Illinois, during December, 1892. The ten members of the conference concerned with the teaching of geography were as follows:

Thomas C. Chamberlin, University of Chicago
George L. Collie, Beloit College
W. M. Davis, Harvard University
Dewin A. Hamlin, Rice Training School, Boston
Edwin J. Houston, Central High School, Philadelphia
Mark W. Harrington, Weather Bureau, Washington, D. C.
Charles F. King, Dearborn School, Boston
Francis W. Parker, Principal of Cook Country Normal Schools, Englewood, Illinois
G. M. Phillips, Principal of the State Normal School, West Chester, Pennsylvania
Israel G. Russell, University of Michigan

In an attempt to raise physical geography to the scholarly status of Latin, Greek, and mathematics in the public schools, the famous report of the Committee of Ten of the National Education Association stated their recommendation that physical geography should contain
elements of botany, zoology, geometry, physics, meteorology, history, and English. In their statement they recommended that physical geography should be an established course of study in the elementary grades (primary and grammar school), and early high school, with physiography pursued in the later high school grades. Physical geography was to include the detailed study of the features of the earth in relation to the forces that create and destroy them, while physiography, in addition to being a study of the formation and features of the earth's surface, is also the study of the seas and their relationships to the land. Also recommended was a more advanced form of geography which would relate specifically to the features of the earth's surface.

The major results of the Committee of Ten's action was the introduction of physical geography laboratories into the high school, and the acceptance of physical geography as a high school requirement for graduation to coincide with college requirements for admission (Rosen, 1957).

In the opinion of Lawrence Cremin, the Report of the Committee of Ten had a wide acceptance which was "... overwhelming, and within a decade after its publication most American secondary schools had moved into line behind its proposals." (Cremin, 1965, p. 9)

The result of the Report of the Committee of Ten, concerning physical geography, was a repeat of the trend which had begun in the 1850's which originally resulted in the establishment of the teaching of geography in the public schools. The statement of emphasis by the Committee resulted in a revitalization for the study of geography.
Utah textbook adoptions in geography from 1896

The state superintendent of public instruction was no doubt aware of national changes in the instruction of geography when he said in 1896, "The geographies should go, because they are behind the times. We have used them for ten or fifteen years, and the teaching of that science has made rapid strides, and we want books up to date." (Utah School Report, 1896-1897, p. 70). In the following year the adopted textbooks for use in the district secondary schools included Frye's Primary Geography and Frye's Complete Geography (Utah Edition) (Utah School Report, 1897-1898).

By 1927 the following geography textbooks (including title, author, and publisher) for junior high school were listed:

MACMILLAN CO., San Francisco, Calif.:
Advanced Geography (complete)
Advanced Geography, Part One
McMurry & Parkins Series

Required Supplementary
AMERICAN BOOK CO., Chicago, Ill.:
Carpenter's Geographical Readers:
Africa
Australia
Carpenter's New Geographical Readers:
Europe
Asia

RAND, McNALLY & CO., Chicago, Ill.:
Crissey, The Story of Foods

Optional Supplementary
RAND, McNALLY & CO., Chicago, Ill.:
Huntington's Asia
(Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1927, p. 13)

The number of geography textbooks approved for the year 1947 included six for the junior high school with the study of geography specifically listed for the seventh grade (Utah Department of Public
Instruction, 1947b). A greater variety of textbooks in geography were adopted for 1959. The secondary texts were listed for use in various grade combinations ranging from seven through twelve. The total number of secondary texts approved for 1959 was nine (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1959b).

A multitude of different grade combinations were attached to each approved textbook for the year 1967. The secondary schools for grades seven through twelve listed one-hundred eleven for geography. Many of these were for enrichment and remedial purposes. Most of the books were listed separately under the heading of geography but others were under the heading of combined geography, history and other (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1967b).

It is evident that geography, due to the age of the specialist, could be subdivided into a large group of derivative or allied sciences: geology, mineralogy, oceanography, meteorology, climatology, biology, demography, and etc. This stratification is apparent upon examination of present-day geography textbooks.

A survey of materials available on general topics of geography is staggering to the imagination. The study of countries and regional geography from available textbooks leaves little to be desired. Few textbooks on Utah geography, however, are available.

Professor Mosiah Hall in 1912 published a book entitled Geography of Utah. Although the book contained only eighteen pages it was one of the first attempts to describe the size and surface features of Utah. Hall, the state high school inspector for Utah, prepared this text for the secondary level.

In 1923, Lofter Bjarnason, the state supervisor of grammar grades
and junior high schools of Utah published a textbook entitled *The Geography of Utah*. The book was published by Macmillan publishing company with a later revision in 1932. Frequent references to the book are found in numerous courses of study listing elementary and junior high school textbooks for the 1920's.

Two separate publications by Ward J. Roylance have been useful in the public junior high schools of Utah. The 1962 publication date of *Materials for the Study of Utah's Geography* contains tables, charts, graphs, and maps presented in narrative style. Roylance's *Materials for the Study of Utah's Counties* with selected materials about Utah counties was published in the same year.

David E. Miller stated, "I have long felt that Utah's history can be better understood and appreciated if some basic knowledge of the state's physical geography is also known. . . ." (Miller, 1964, preface) Utah's physical geography of mountain ranges, valleys, major streams, etc., is part of Professor Miller's well prepared *Utah History Atlas*. Various maps and explanations are contained in the study of explorations, migrations, founding and settlements, and economic developments which are of significance in Utah's past. This publication has been useful as a teacher reference.

**Geography offerings and enrollments in Utah schools since 1893**

The *Manual of Public Schools of Utah Territory* (1894) suggested geography be taught in grades three through nine. Oral geography was taught in the third grade in which the study of natural geographical features from direct observation were enlarged upon. Map drawing
according to scale was outlined for the fourth grade along with frequent lessons on the geography of Utah. Grades five through nine were given assignments in *Appleton's Standard Higher Geography* and *Monteith's New Physical Geography* with lessons each week to be alternated with history (Utah Territorial Schools, 1894).

The Salt Lake City public schools for 1896-1897 assigned the study of geography to the third, fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh grades. The minutes per week allotted for the above mentioned grades averaged over 230 minutes out of a weekly timetable of 1500 minutes for each grade. The various classifications of geography were given as suggestions for teaching:

**Mathematical geography.** Review upon shape, size, and daily motion of the earth. How we know earth is a sphere. Axis of earth, equator, poles. Position of earth as to rays of sun; effect on distribution of heat; illustrate by drawings. Lead pupils to understand that hottest parts of the earth are near the equator and that heat diminishes toward the poles. Teach effect of this upon plant and animal life.

Keep a daily weather record, and have pupils tabulate results in neat and permanent form.

Have daily observations on the apparent height of the sun for some weeks before and after December 21st.

Examine the shadows cast by a window frame having a southern exposure. Note throughout the year the changes in position on the horizon of the sun's setting.

Do not attempt the explanation of any of these or similar phenomena until by continued observations upon them the pupil's interest has been awakened.

**Local geography.** Draw map of the central part of the city, proceeding in each direction in turn from East Temple and South Temple Streets. Locate prominent buildings on the map; mark the courses of the railroads, of City Creek, of the main car lines; show Liberty Park and the cemeteries. Teach the government of the city, its purposes, and how they are affected. Develop the idea of a state.

**Physical geography.** Forms of water; liquid, solid, gaseous. Show by experimental formation of vapor. Rain, dew, frost, snow, ice, clouds, winds. Water seeking its level; origin of springs; collection in reservoirs; our local water
It seems only logical to conclude that the instruction of geography in the Salt Lake City schools for 1896-1897 was influenced by the recommendations of the Committee of Ten Report, 1892. The teaching of physical geography was to include elements of botany, zoology, geometry, physics, meteorology, history and English and was to be an established course of study in the elementary grades with physiography or physical geography in the later high school grades. The contents of the geography course of study in the elementary grades was similar to the recommendations of the Committee of Ten, while the instruction of physical geography was taught in the twelfth year under the scientific course.

State and district courses of study in geography since 1896

The state course of study for the public schools of Utah, 1908-1913 had a total of 23 pages devoted to the study of geography which amounted to over 14 per cent of the total manual. The proposed study of geography was based on the recommendations of the Committee of Ten, with grades seven and eight assigned various general and specific topics in geography related to the earth, its environment and inhabitants which included a special outline for the study of the geography of Utah. The ninth and tenth grades both had a subject offering of physical geography which was recommended by the Committee of Ten. There was no eleventh or twelfth grade offering of meteorology or geology (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1908-1913).
By 1918 the study of geography was basically unchanged from practices described a decade earlier, except that geography was studied in relation to nature study. In the junior and senior high school geography was absorbed into the "science" area and taught as a separate subject in the seventh grade along with current events, botany, zoology, physics, chemistry, geology, and astronomy which were part of the geographic education which the Committee of Ten recommended. An offering of commercial geography with some implications of vocational training was probably ushered in as a result of the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. The acceptance of geography as a high school requirement for graduation was accomplished through the seventh grade course (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1918a, 1918b).

Mentioned earlier was the fact that the major results of the Committee of Ten's action was the acceptance of physical geography as a high school requirement for graduation to coincide with college requirements for admission, which was accomplished in Utah in 1911, and the introduction of physical geography laboratories into the high schools. The first physiography laboratory in Utah was reported in 1923 by the state high school inspector (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1923a).

Between the 1920's and the 1930's the study of physical geography associated with the general sciences saw a shift in which geography tended to shift to human geography, more closely associated with the social studies. With geography associated with the social studies the scholarly bodies of material from which they were drawn were not fully reflected. Although it is difficult to say when the change took place in Utah, by 1928 the state course of study included geography in with
the social studies rather than the natural sciences. The course was placed at the seventh grade level and divided into general world geography and the geography of Utah. The study included mathematical geography along with physical, regional, economic, and commercial geography (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1928b).

The suggested units of study for world geography in the Social Studies Course of Study for Secondary Schools (1947) were global geography, the relationship between climate and man, our natural resources, the life processes of civilization, and story of nations. The study of world geography was required for one-half year in the seventh grade. There was no other mention of geography for the junior or senior high schools in this state course of study.

A geography guide was prepared in 1964 to bring up-to-date the resources for the teaching of geography in the Salt Lake City schools. Various ideas and considerations have been utilized from other geography studies throughout the nation to make this guide called Social Studies: Grade Nine Geography one of the best available in Utah (Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1964c).

Geography was taught along with elements of nature, meteorology, plants, and animals in the first, second, and third grades during 1896-1897. During the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh grades Frye's geography textbooks were correlated with their study. Pupils were encouraged to collect and study soils, classify rocks, draw maps, read books on travel and stories of people and places, and spend careful study on the geography of Utah. On the high school level physical geography was offered (Utah School Report, 1896-1897).
During the school year of 1933-1934, the offering of geography in both the junior and the senior high schools of the state reflected a larger enrollment for the intermediate grades. The offering of geography as a full year course or as a half-year course is indicated in Table 15.

Geography as a full-year course in the seventh and eighth grades was receiving a larger enrollment than as a half-year course. Although geography was offered during the last four years of high school, the number of students registered was meager, and half-year registration was preferred over a full year.

Between the 1930's and the 1960's various changes took place on both the national and the local scene which affected the subject of geography within the school curriculum. In Utah, geography as separate subject did not often appear in the programs of the last four

Table 15. Offering of geography in the seventh and eighth grades and the last four years of high school in Utah, 1933-1934

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Number of schools reporting</th>
<th>Registrations in geography</th>
<th>Last 4 years of high school</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Grades 7 and 8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Full year courses</td>
<td>Half year courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2,346</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utah</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>326</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

years. Rather, it became fixed in the registrations of the junior high school grades throughout the nation. In Utah it is more often found on the ninth grade level than on the seventh and eighth grade level as indicated in Table 16. This survey was carried out by the United States Office of Health, Education, and Welfare during the 1960-1961 school year to provide information concerning various subjects offered and the number of pupils taking the course. Although the number of schools in Utah which replied to the printed questionnaire for the survey, numbered only sixteen, the larger number of half-year enrollments does compare with the state requirement of one-half unit of world geography recommended for the ninth grade.

National developments in geographic instruction affecting Utah

In the first decade of the twentieth century changes in education appeared which indicated general science courses were beginning to

Table 16. Geography enrollment in Utah for grades seven and eight, 1960-1961

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Number of schools reporting</th>
<th>Enrollment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Half-year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utah</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1,105</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

replace physical geography and physiography. Dr. H. W. Fairbanks, in 1910, pointed out the growing dissatisfaction in physical geography.

It has been some years since the report of the Committee of Ten which resulted in the inauguration of a new departure in physical geography teaching. To many the results do not seem to fulfill the expectations and they have been casting about for something which shall better serve as an introduction to formal science in the latter years of the high school course. In Calpointe as in other parts of the country, there are those who for a long time have been advocating a course combining the elements of the various sciences for the first year, and this idea has at last found an actual expression. ... because of wrong ideas as to what physical geography should be for the first-year high school pupils, because of the wrong conceptions of laboratory work, and too formal demands of college entrance requirements, and finally because of the still widely held view that anybody can teach physical geography whether he has had any preparation or not, the matter has reached such a stage that we have got to defend one of the most practical as well as broadly cultural subjects of the whole high school curriculum. (Fairbanks, 1910, pp. 761-762)

One geographer describing the average physiography class taught in the schools said it is like the

... dry bones without the flesh and spirit, as if each daughter born took something away from the mother. This is unnatural; bearing is not a process of subdivision and dismemberment of the parent.

And so earth study having been dismembered as each new science, physics, chemistry, mineralogy, botany, zoology—was evolved, the remnant has been stuffed out with what is not living physical geography, and the result is we have a corpse, or mummy, a manikin, in place of a live science. (Paddock, 1904, pp. 162-163)

Some of the causes that led to substitute general science for physical geography according to Dr. Fairbanks were:

1. The complete ignorance of the meaning of the simplest physical phenomenon on the part of pupils entering the high school.

2. The growing feeling on the part of many science teachers that in order to maintain the technical standards of their work, and satisfactory university requirements, an introductory science course was needed.

3. A conviction on the part of many, due to lack of
knowledge of the possibilities of the subject, that physio-
ography or physical geography could not offer this prelimi-
nary training. (Fairbanks, 1910, p. 763)

By 1910 the general science course in the schools was a reality
and was well on its way in gaining popularity. The dull and uninter-
esting subject of physical geography as a subject was being pushed
out by the new interest that centered on general science (Mayo, 1965).
While some were attempting to keep physical geography and physiography
alive in the high schools, their battle was a losing one. The pro-
ponents mocked the physiography course with statements such as:

... storms should come under meteorology; the study of
the composition of water under chemistry; the character-
istics of water under physics; and the consideration of
the vegetable and animal life, in the water, under biol-
ogy. ... If physical geography is to supply instruction
in all of these details; it should be honest and change
its name to general science. (Rowell, 1911, p. 119)

The percentage of high school students in the nation in 1922
electing physical geography had decreased to 4.3 per cent from 21.5 per
cent in 1905, and 18.3 per cent were enrolled in general science (Rosen,
1957).

While a factual rebellion in memory work was being conducted oppos-
ing descriptive geography some textbook authors played an important role
in improving geography instruction. Physical geography remained the
basis for the study of geography which tended to shift to human geo-
graphy. Ralph Tarr and Frank McMurry were two authors who helped shift
the emphasis of physical geography to mankind. The Tarr and McMurry
series appeared in three-book and five-book combinations after the turn
of the century and were used in both elementary and secondary schools.
Their books returned to local geography which had been tried in the
middle of the nineteenth century. Home geography was introduced along
with emphasis upon generalizations designed for the age and experience of the pupils. Their textbook plan was based on Pestalozzian principles of teaching, as was Guyot's series. The Tarr and McMurry books helped solidify the trend away from the study of physical geography (Whipple, 1933).

In the early 1900's the study of economic geography became an important part of the geography curriculum. Industrialization and commercial advances had made demands on industry for better trained graduates. The re-designing of geography for the terminal needs of high school students rather than the college preparatory student was thought the best way to prepare for life.

With the study of economic geography becoming increasingly popular, due primarily to a natural consequence of what Schlesinger called

The crumbling of national isolation, [when] . . . industrialists found they needed to look elsewhere to market their growing surplus of goods, and capitalists began to scan the globe for opportunities to supplement their domestic investments. (Schlesinger, 1941, p. 256)

It was during this period that the political and economic power of the United States began to grow and isolationism was ended at the conclusion of the Spanish-American war.

With the ushering in of vocational education with the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917, classes in commerce and business became common in the schools. Classes in commercial geography had been a part of the school curriculum prior to 1900, but during the second decade a decided increase took place. Even though there was a rise of general science courses in 1910 with physical geography virtually absorbed into the program, there was on the other hand, commercial geography increasing. A survey of 371 high schools in 1930 showed that commercial geography
was being taught in 238 with physical geography in 79. Several years later during a 1935-1936 survey of 575 high schools in Illinois, the results showed that 357 of them offered commercial geography. The percentage of schools which offered this subject was 62 per cent for both surveys. The geography courses offered in 23 schools were titled: high school geography, human geography, social geography, human ecology, and world geography (Wesley, 1942).

The development of the junior high school had some effect upon geography. Wesley commenting on geography in the junior high schools said,

For several years, however, the new organization simply took over from the elementary schools the geography which was being taught in grades seven and eight, and from the high school the geography which was being taught in grade nine. A study of 75 junior high schools made in 1916 shows that geography was taught in 72 of them, being offered in grade seven in 54 schools and in grade eight in 18 schools. Other studies show some decline in the popularity of geography throughout the decade of the 1920's. A study of 301 junior high schools made in 1930 indicates an even greater loss in popularity.

Geography was taught in grade seven in 151 of these schools. Another study, completed in 1932, shows that geography in the junior high schools had a separate treatment in 43 of 63 cities of more than 50,000 population.

The geographic content in junior high schools has probably not been lessened; it has been absorbed into fusion courses. In the study just cited, fusion courses were offered in 77 schools in grade seven, in 65 schools in grade eight, and in 35 schools in grade nine. (Wesley, 1942, p. 193)

While all these influences were affecting the study of geography a noted geographer and director of the American Geographical Society spoke strongly about the study of geography and its humanization, in relation to the social sciences. The result was a volume entitled, Geography and Its Relation to the Social Sciences, which was part of a Report of the Commission on the Social Sciences of the American Historical Association,
and published in 1934. The author of this volume, Isaiah Bowman said:

Geography has an important place in the social studies not by "proving" things about complex reality, but by introducing a point of view, by expertly handling specialized data, and by expressing generalizations with the same caution that the chemist exhibits when he thinks he has discovered a new mode of occurrence. . . .

The world is not merely a collection of "factors" or conditions and laws, but a series of processes always but partially worked through and then halted or deflected by new or modified processes. Only by seeing life "on the run" do we see life at all. So long as geography concerns itself primarily or chiefly with the fragments of life that happen to be in apparently recognizable relation to physical "factors," so long will it be of limited value in the study of society, however valuable it may be, as physical science, to anyone who happens frequently to require data about the earth. To look at natural regions and social forms and processes in relationship to them is to be aware of a very complex reality. . . . (Bowman, 1934, p. 31)

From about 1930 until the time of World War II the gradual absorption of the physical geography or commercial geography courses into the social studies course took place. The 32nd Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education reported that geography was beginning to lose its separate identity in the public schools (Whipple, 1933).

While the appeal of social studies was winning out, Wesley felt that social studies should demonstrate that school subjects need not fully reflect the scholarly bodies of material they were drawn from. This assisted in popularizing the needs of pupils and of providing pupil growth rather than mere storage of information for the future (Wesley, 1942).

By the year 1934 the number of high school pupils electing physical geography was only 1.6 per cent, with 4 per cent enrolled in commercial geography classes. Many of the nation's liberal arts
collages no longer during the 1930's accepted geography for admission. The removal of physical geography from the admissions list of Harvard University took place in 1936. This same year was the last time for the publication of the College Board examination in geography. Only a ghost of geography remained with a few elective courses (Rosen, 1957).

During World War II the subject of geography had some degree of rebirth. A faculty member of the University of Chicago laboratory schools surveyed the social studies courses offered in the nation's public schools during 1944-1945. Although there was great diversity in the survey findings, the clearly marked tendency of offerings at the various grade levels was as follows: grade seven, United States history and geography; grade eight, United States history and geography; grade nine, civics and geography. One part of the survey dealt with the courses added or dropped during the last five years and those mentioned in geography were—global geography, economic geography, air-age geography, commercial geography, global neighbors, and world geography (Merideth, 1945).

Despite some evidence of rebirth of geography as a subject of study it was losing ground in the junior high schools. In grades seven and eight during 1933-1934 the percentage of pupils electing geography courses was 29 per cent, whereas in 1946-1947 this number had dropped to 15.6 per cent (Anderson, 1950). By 1965 government statistics indicate that geography as a separate subject in grades seven and eight enrolled 30 per cent of the pupils of those grades, a decrease since the 1949 study. However, most of the 14 per cent of the seventh and eighth grade pupils enrolled in the course labeled
"social studies" had geography as part of their program. In the last four years of high school, one pupil in fourteen had a course in geography, whereas one in eighteen was reported in 1949 (United States Office of Health, Education and Welfare, 1965).

Professor Paul Hanna of Stanford University in 1966 commenting on this unfortunate period of fading geographic education in the United States said:

During the past quarter century there has been a slowly developing inverse relationship between the accelerating importance of geography in our daily lives, on the one hand, and a decreasing emphasis of geographic education in our schools and colleges, on the other hand. It would appear that as direct life experiences and the mass media focus our attention more and more on the significance of the location and special distribution of social, economic, and political facts and events, we pay less and less attention to preparing our young through formal curriculum to comprehend the structure or relationships that exist between the natural conditions of one's environments (one's habitat) and the skills with which to deal rationally with matters that have geographic aspects. (Hanna, 1966, p. v)

The National Council for the Social Studies in 1953 published a book entitled, The Social Studies in the Senior High School—Program for Grades 10, 11 and 12. A pattern of subject offerings most frequent at that time for grades nine through twelve were as follows:

"Grade 9—community civics and vocation; grade 10—world history; grade 11—American history; grade 12—problems of American democracy." (Johns, 1953, p. 4) No mention was made of geography in the social studies program of the American high school.

Geography education in Utah

The 1911 high school law of Utah established accreditation for the high schools of the state. The requirement of one-half unit of physical geography or elementary science was established (Utah Board
of Education, Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1911). The elementary science as a substitute for physical geography was similar to the national trend in which general science courses in the school were slowly replacing physical geography.

The program of studies adopted by the State Course of Study Committee in 1938 required Utah geography along with history for the seventh grade. Five recitations were required weekly (Utah School Report, 1936-1938). The geography requirement in Utah schools remained unchanged until 1956, when it was changed to a one-half year course and placed in the ninth grade. It remained on the required list (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1958).

The 1916 report by the Committee of Social Studies by the National Education Association recommended that grades seven and eight be taught geography, history, and civics. Geography was to be taught for one-half a year with history planned for the other half, with civics either as a phase or as a separate subject for one or two periods a week (United States Bureau of Education, 1916). The influence of the report of this committee and the present-day offering of geography in Utah at the junior high school level is a practice that may be traced directly to it.
The teaching of civics

Many of the subjects in the curriculum of the American school had their origin in Europe. The practice of teaching the various subjects from textbooks was brought from Europe. The subjects of reading, writing, spelling, grammar, geography and European history and the textbooks from which they were taught, had European beginnings. However, the teaching in the United States of political science (civil government or civics) and American history originated here, following our independence from England. According to Nietz (1961), civil government was not commonly taught in the European schools. It was necessary that a better understanding of the practices and principles of our new government be taught in the schools.

Materials about the Constitution were included in the school histories and geographies following the Revolutionary War. In the early nineteenth century, schools began offering courses in government, constitution, and law. From the 1830's to the 1860's one of the most frequently mentioned subjects in history and geography textbooks was that of government. Although there was a great variety in the terms used to indicate courses in government, by the year 1866, according to Wesley (1942), the term "civil government" had become the mode.

Definitions

In viewing the values that are claimed from materials used in the teaching of political science, it is essential to have a clear definition of terms. In addition to political science, the terms civil
government and civics are sometimes used synonymously. The following definitions may help to clarify these terms:

Political science. Political science can be said to concern itself primarily with the study of the "political" (i.e., the state-building) qualities in man, expressed in "politics" (i.e., in all those relationships and activities which characterize man's response to his quest for security and a binding social order). And since these relationships and activities center around the state as their organizational framework, political science has often been defined as the systematic study of the state and of the processes governing its internal and external relations. Obviously so comprehensive a field of study will have many subdivisions and many points of common interest with other disciplines. (Dunner, 1964, p. xv)

Civics. The term "civics" is now generally employed to refer to the teaching of civil government in our elementary and secondary schools and in colleges. The term "civil government" which was formerly very commonly used for describing this study, had been abandoned, because in its interpretation it was usually narrowed down to a study of the mere framework of government. The word "civics" is said to have been introduced by Henry Randall Waite, and had the advantage over the term "civil government" in that it is now generally understood to include: (1) ethics, or the doctrine of duties in society; (2) civil policy, or governmental methods and machinery; (3) history of civic development and movement. (Monroe, 1926, Vol. II, p. 24)

Wesley (1942, p. 188) further clarified the use of these terms by his statement, "By 1914 'civic' instead of 'civil government' had become the accepted term. The word 'civics' appears to have been introduced about 1885 as a simple yet inclusive synonym for political science." The word "civics" became increasingly popular after 1900 and was used interchangeably with "civil government" meaning some kind of instruction of government in the schools. In the report on The Teaching of Government made by the American Political Science Association in 1916, civics seemed to have received more attention in the elementary and secondary schools for instruction in the social studies (Wesley, 1942).
Early American civics textbooks

One of the first civil government textbooks used in the United States was Elhanan Winchester's *A Plain Political Catechism Intended for the Use of Schools in the United States of America: Wherein the Great Principles of Liberty, and the Federal Government Are Laid Down and Explained by Way of Question and Answer*, which was published in 1796. The first American geography, Jedidiah Morse's *Geography Made Easy*, published in 1806, contained a description of governments in several of the states. Other early books included Arthur J. Stansbury's *Elementary Catechism on the Constitution* (1828) and Noah Webster's *Elements of Useful Knowledge* (1806) which contained a study of the constitution.

The aims for the teaching of civil government were sometimes stated in the prefaces or introductions of the textbooks but usually were left to be inferred from the content, the manner it was presented, or the distribution of emphasis given various topics. An analysis of the title page of S. G. Goodrich, better known by his pen name of "Peter Parley," presented the intended purpose in his book, *The Young Americans* (1842):

"Under the idea that this book may be introduced into our common schools, I have therefore sought to set forth the necessity of honesty in politics; hoping to do something to restore to favor that good old world, "so weary stale and unprofitable" to hack politicians--patriotism." (Goodrich, 1842, p. iv)

Andrew W. Young (1884, preface), stated that "There is probably none to deny that the study of the principles of political science is a necessary part of a liberal education." The expressed aim of Young's *Government Class Book* was:
The aim of this book, in supplying a want believed to exist, is to present, in such form as to be used chiefly as a textbook for schools, a broad and comprehensive view of the principles of government and law in the United States (which are substantially the same throughout the country), and thus to teach the young the varied rights and duties of a citizen in relation to his government and his fellow-citizens. (Young, 1884, p. iv)

Another frequently mentioned aim was to prepare youth concerning the rights and duties of citizenship. Calvin Townsend's *Analysis of Civil Government* (1868) was designed as a "Class-Book for Use of Grammar, Normal, and High Schools, Academies, Seminaries, Colleges, Universities, and Other Institutions of Learning." (Townsend, 1868, title page) Townsend further stated,

> For several years, there has been a growing conviction among educators, that civil government should be added to the list of studies in all our schools of the higher grades, and in the advanced classes of the common school for the school boy of to-day becomes the voter of to-morrow. (Townsend, 1868, title page)

Elisha P. Howe attempted to teach through questions and answers the principles of civil government in her textbook, *Young Citizen's Catechism, Explaining the Duties of District, Town, City, County, State, and United States Officers* (1867). Questions on United States public officials included the following:

> What are the qualifications for senator?
> He must be thirty years of age; he must have been a citizen of the United States for nine years; and must be an inhabitant of the state from which he is chosen.
>
> What are the general powers and duties of congress?
> To pass laws for the regulation of the general government, to impose duties, to collect taxes, to provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States, to borrow money on the credit of the United States, and such other duties as are specified in the constitution.
>
> What is the compensation of the members of each house?
> Three thousand dollars per year each.
>
> Are they entitled to any further compensation?
> Yes; a mileage fee of eight dollars for every twenty miles of direct route from their residence to Washington. (Howe, 1867, p. 73)
Elisha P. Howe's method of teaching the principles of civil government in her textbook through questions and answers was marked by standardization and formalism. The training of memory became the chief purpose of the author. The accumulation of factual information, often unrelated and unorganized, provided little mind growth and mind development.

The nature of civic education in Utah schools prior to 1896

While data is lacking on the use of material from the field of political science in Utah prior to 1892, there is evidence concerning the nature of this material. Generally speaking, the emphasis in these books was on the Constitution, government, and law, with the major emphasis upon the Constitution of the United States. While political science was closely affiliated with history during Utah's Territorial period the emphasis was still on historical study.

Burke Hinsdale, whose book How to Study and Teach History (1897) explained in a chapter entitled "Teaching Civics" how history and civics are related and that the two subjects are commonly taught by the same teacher. His comments summarize the conditions in Utah prior to 1892. Hinsdale said,

For a decade and more increasing attention has been paid in our schools to teaching the branch of study called Civics or Civil Government. The aim has been to teach certain facts and principles relating to government in general, and to our own Government in particular, in such a manner as to enlarge the intelligence of the pupils, and to inspire them with the spirit of civic duty and of patriotism. The tendency is a healthy one. Civics is closely affiliated with history; it is emphatically an historical study. On the one hand a knowledge of political science is necessary to the successful pursuit of history; on the other, history is the torch that illuminates political science. Indeed, the two studies are so closely related that they can be carried on together with hardly more expenditure of time and
effort than either one alone—that is, if really valuable work is done. In the elementary and the high school the two subjects are commonly taught by the same teacher. These facts are a sufficient reason for closing this book with a chapter on Teaching Civics. (Hinsdale, 1897, p. 315)

The Territorial Commissioner of Utah schools in the statistical report of 1892 listed the total number of pupils enrolled in civil government at 338. With the average daily attendance at over thirty-one thousand students, this was approximately .01 per cent enrolled in civic education (Utah Territory, Report of the Commissioner of Schools, 1892-1893). This was apparently the beginning of separate instruction for civil government and history in Utah.

The first mention of materials from the field of political science was in the Manual of the Public Schools of Utah Territory (1894). Civics was listed for one-half year study in the eighth grade with the textbook of Dole's American Citizen (1891) to be used. The ninth grade offering was civil government with the student textbook of Macy's Our Government (1890). In addition the teacher reference books included Peterman's Elements of Civil Government (1891) for the first part of the course and Townsend's for the latter part. The textbook by Townsend was not named by title but was probably Analysis of Civil Government (1868) or A Short Course in Civil Government (1875). By 1896 the number of students enrolled in civil government courses throughout Utah numbered 688, which included fifteen of the twenty-seven school districts reporting this subject was offered (Utah Territory, Report of the Commissioner of Schools, 1896).

In addition to the texts carried over from the early territorial period and available for use in Utah schools, a growing number of newly published books after statehood was indicative of the national and state
emphasis upon this subject.

An analysis of the several textbooks first recommended for use to the pupils and teachers in the Territory of Utah reveals the content emphasis. A small but forward-looking book by Charles F. Dole entitled *The American Citizen* (1891) was designed for the upper grades of grammar schools and in high school. In the preface, the author suggests that few students were expected to go to college or to take a thorough course in political economy or politics but all must become citizens and that the object of his book was to illustrate the moral principles which underlie the life of civilized man. The table of contents of Dole's book reveals its focus:

**PART FIRST. THE BEGINNINGS OF CITIZENSHIP**

**CHAPTER**

I. The Family and Its Government
II. The Schoolroom and Its Government
III. The Playground: Its Lessons
IV. The Club or Debating Society
V. Personal Habits. The Condition of Good Citizenship
VI. The Principles That Bind Men Together
VII. The Different Duties Men Owe Each Other

**PART SECOND. THE CITIZEN AND THE GOVERNMENT: OR THE RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF CITIZENS**

**CHAPTER**

VIII. The Purpose of Government
IX. Various Forms of Government
X. Local Government; or Government by the People Themselves
XI. The States and Legislative Governments
XII. The People Acting in Congress
XIII. Cities and Their Government
XIV. The Machinery of Government
XV. The Judicial Branch of Government; or the Courts and the Laws
XVI. The Treasury and the Taxes
XVII. The School System
XVIII. The Civil Service and the Offices
XIX. Voting
XX. Political Parties
XXI. Government by Committees, by Politicians, by Public Opinion
XXII. The Citizen's Duties to His Government
XXIII. The Abuses and Perils of Government
XXIV. Facts Which Every Citizen Should Know
XXV. Improvements in Government, Radicals, and Conservatives

PART THIRD. ECONOMIC DUTIES: OR THE RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF BUSINESS AND MONEY

CHAPTER
XXVI. What Wealth Is
XXVII. The Conditions of Wealth
XXVIII. To Whom Wealth Belongs, and How It Is Divided
XXIX. The Institution of Property
XXX. Honest Money
XXXI. Capital, Credit, and Interest
XXXII. Labor and Competition
XXXIII. The Grievances of the Poor
XXXIV. The Abuses and the Duties of Wealth
XXXV. Buyers and Sellers; or the Mutual Benefit
XXXVI. Employers and the Employed; Their Interests in Each Other

PART FOURTH. SOCIAL RIGHTS AND DUTIES: OR THE DUTIES OF MEN AS THEY LIVE TOGETHER IN SOCIETY

CHAPTER
XXXVII. The Rights and Duties of Neighbors
XXXVIII. The Treatment of Crime
XXXIX. How to Help the Poor
XL. The Great Social Subjects
XLI. The Problems of Temperance

PART FIFTH. INTERNATIONAL DUTIES: OR THE RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF NATIONS

CHAPTER
XLII. International Law and How It Grows
XLIII. The Rights of Nations
XLIV. The Duties of Nations
XLV. War and Arbitration; Patriotism

(Dole, 1891, table of contents)

The content of this volume by Dole compared with earlier texts of the nineteenth century indicates that emphasis was upon the citizen while earlier texts emphasized the United States Constitution and the national government, which according to Tryon (1935, p. 277) was the
"... dry-as-dust treatment of the machinery of the federal government..."

The small sized book of Jesse B. Macy entitled *Our Government: How It Grew, What It Does, and How It Does It* (1890) measured 5 by 7 1/2 inches in size and contained 289 pages. While Macy discussed the federal constitution and the national government this was not done at the expense of other important topics. His volume was divided into six parts and gave consideration to the topics of township, county, state, territorial government, interior department, treasury department, post-office department, and the war and navy departments.

Peterman's *Elements of Civil Government* (1891), suggested as a teacher reference book for instructing civil government in the public schools, stated:

> Every school should teach, and every child should study, the principles of our government, in order that by knowing his country better he may learn to love it more. The first duty of the school is to teach its pupils to love "God, home and native land." (Peterman, 1891, p. 7)

Topics emphasized were: family, school, town, state, United States, government, law and liberty, suffrage and elections, and legislation.

Of the two textbooks by Calvin Townsend, *Analysis of Civil Government* (1868) and *A Short Course in Civil Government* (1875) suggested for teacher reference in Utah, it is not known which was used because only the author's name was listed with no name of the textbook. Both of these texts conspicuously stand out in the content-area with a lion's share of attention devoted to the United States Constitution and national government. It seems logical to assume that other textbooks on civil government prior to Dole, Macy, Peterman and Townsend
were used in Utah. However, the study of civil government in Utah Territorial schools owes its greatest debt to the field of American history where content from political science was most frequently found.

Civic education in Utah schools, 1897-1910

Between the years 1897 and 1910 the United States Bureau of Education provided a list of subjects taught and the number of pupils pursuing these subjects. Between 1897 and 1906 the title "civics" was used in describing the subject offering, but in 1909-1910 the term "civil government" was used. The per cent of pupils in public high schools of Utah pursuing the subject of civics/civil government for years between 1897 and 1910 is compared with the national percentage in Table 17.

Speaking for the country as a whole, the per cent for the years included in Table 17 indicated a decline for each period. Just why this per cent dropped from 22.74 in 1897-1898 to 15.55 in 1909-1910 is not easy to account for. Perhaps this decline was the reason for the concern with civics by the 1916 organization of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in social studies. While Utah's enrollment in this subject was fairly consistent from 1897 to 1910, percentage-wise it was approximately one-half of national enrollments in civics. There was little evidence to indicate why high school enrollments in civics in Utah were lower than for the nation as a whole, except for the fact that Utah was in the early stages of statehood.

The course of study published in 1894, Manual of the Public Schools of Utah Territory, placed civics in the eighth grade and civil government
Table 17. Comparison of the Continental United States per cent of pupils pursuing civics/civil government in public high schools with the Utah high schools, 1897-1910

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geographical location</th>
<th>Year and percentage of students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1897-98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continental United States</td>
<td>22.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utah</td>
<td>9.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


in the ninth. Fourteen years later the State Course of Study (1908-1913) included in the offerings of all grades in the elementary schools of Utah a combination of some history and civics. All grades from one through eight, were to receive civic education. Tryon (1935) mentions that a good deal of civics was taught in the elementary schools in connection with history but the separate subject of civil government was at a low ebb in the nation in 1910-1911.

It will be recalled that the Committee of Eight of the American Historical Association reporting in 1909 made specific recommendations concerning the teaching of civics in the elementary grades. With civic instruction not specifically provided before 1908 in the elementary schools, and with a definite plan of instruction for grades one through eight proposed from 1908-1913, it seems reasonable to assume that the national influence of the Committee of Eight was an influencing agent
in Utah.

One must go to textbooks of civics and civil government to determine the major content of secondary school courses. While there is no data as to the exact circulation of any text, one is reasonably sure of discovering what was taught by examining a few typical ones. The texts used were from general appearances so much alike that a detailed analysis of each seems unwarranted. The following list of texts in civil government used in Utah schools from early statehood to past the turn of the century is not complete but representative. The list is arranged chronologically and includes the source of the textbook recommendation.

1. Charles Nordhoff, Politics for Young Americans (1881) recommended in the Manual of Public Schools of Utah, 1894, p. 76.


3. Arthur W. Dunn, The Community and the Citizen (1907) recommended in the Course of Study for the Public Schools of Utah, 1908-1913, p. 73.

4. J. A. James and A. H. Sanford, Government in State and Nation (1907) recommended by the Course of Study for the Public Schools of Utah, 1908-1913, p. 73.

In the foregoing list there is some evidence of a departure from the old order in civil government textbooks. The books by Nordhoff and James and Sanford followed the old formal pattern which emphasized machinery of government rather than functions. The texts by Dunn and Fiske seemed to have broken away from the traditional civil government approach and included new material. The text The Community and the Citizen, by Arthur W. Dunn, published in 1907 was intended primarily for grades eight and nine. From the following chapter headings one
can see evidence of the emergence of a new focus:

I. The Beginnings of a Community
II. What is a Community?
III. The Site of a Community
IV. What the People of a Community are Seeking
V. The Family
VI. Some Services Rendered to the Community by the Family
VII. The Making of Americans
VIII. How the Relations Between the People and the Land Are Made Permanent and Definite
IX. How the Community Aids the Citizen to Satisfy His Desire for Health
X. How the Community Aids the Citizen to Protect His Life and Property
XI. The Relations Between the Community and the Citizen in His Business Life
XII. How the Government Aids the Citizen in Business Life
XIII. Waste and Saving
XIV. How the Community Aids the Citizen in Transportation and Communication
XV. How the Community Aids the Citizen to Satisfy His Desire for Knowledge
XVI. How the Community Aids the Citizen to Satisfy His Desire for Beautiful Surroundings
XVII. How the Community Aids the Citizen to Satisfy His Religious Desire
XVIII. What the Community Does for Those Who Cannot or Will Not Contribute to Its Progress
XIX. How the Citizens of a Community Govern Themselves
XX. Some Defects in the Self-Government of Our Communities
XXI. The Government of Rural Communities: Township and County
XXII. The Government of the City
XXIII. The Government of the State
XXIV. The Government of the Nation
XXV. How the Expenses of Government Are Met

(Dunn, 1907, table of contents)

The center of interest in Dunn's textbook for grades eight and nine was the community. The material on government appeared in the last chapters with the approach being from the local to the national government. While this was not entirely new in book publishing according to Tryon (1935, p. 292), it did represent "... a revolution in the realm of civics in the schools." The revolutionary aspects of Dunn's volume
were: (1) major emphasis upon the community and its various aspects; (2) emphasis on participation in community life by the pupils; (3) citizenship participation by the pupil encouraged; (4) emphasis upon physiology rather than the anatomy of the government of county, state, and nation; and (5) the changing of memorization and recitation in civics to the actual living in one's daily life (Tryon, 1935). The adoption of the textbooks by Dunn and Fiske in Utah marked the end of the "old civics" in the schools.

National events in the field of civics affecting Utah

Since the meager beginning made in the third quarter of the nineteenth century, the teaching of civics has progressed through three stages: (1) the study of the constitution in which civic instruction was based primarily on taking up the constitution clause by clause; (2) the deductive method which began with the provisions of the constitution and continued on to the names, terms, salaries, and the normal functions of government; and (3) the new form of course commonly referred to at this time as the "new civics" or "community civics" which begins with community needs and the methods by which government satisfies these needs. This later course is based essentially on the theory that those things which are near at home are more vital and should receive consideration prior to those more remote, or of less direct significance (American Political Science Association, 1916). While this progress in teaching of government related chiefly to instruction in elementary and secondary schools, no person would be likely to deny that American history and civics were often combined
as subjects within the scope of history until an arrangement was made for use of a civics manual.

While the chief interest and emphasis was upon history in the report by the Committee of Ten in 1892, the subject of civil government received some attention when it was recommended that the subject be associated with both history and geography. It was to be introduced "... into the grammar school by means of oral lessons, and into the high school by means of a textbook." (American Political Science Association, 1916, p. 9)

The report by the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association in 1896 recommended four "blocks" of history in the last four years. For the fourth year American history and civil government were recommended. However, the primary consideration of the American Historical Association was with the study of history.

The Committee of Eight of the American Political Science Association (APSA) completed their report in 1908 and recommended that history and civics should, so far as possible, be taught as allied subjects in the elementary school with the emphasis at one time upon history and at another time upon civics. The following extracts from the report suggest their point of view concerning civics:

We believe that elementary civics should permeate the entire school life of the child. In the early grades the most effective features of this instruction will be directly connected with the teaching of regular subjects in the course of study. Through story, poem, and song there is the quickening of these emotions which influence civic life. The works and biographies of great men furnish many opportunities for incidental instruction in civics. The elements of geography serve to emphasize the interdependence of men --the very earliest lesson in civic instruction. A study of pictures and architecture arouses the desire for civic beauty and orderliness. (American Political Science Association, 1916, p. 14)
With the provision made for the beginning of civic instruction in grades one through four, the Committee of Eight suggested that approximately twenty minutes a week for a half-year be provided for civics in grades five and six, forty minutes in grade seven, and sixty minutes in grade eight.

As the American Historical Association made contributions to the teaching of history and civics in the elementary and high school grades, the American Political Science Association (APSA) in 1903 became interested in civics in the schools. Several committee reports by the APSA presented the first systematic effort toward improving instruction in the field of political science. These reports appeared under the authorship of the "Committee of Five," and the "Committee of Seven."

The Committee of Five was appointed in 1907 and rendered its report in 1911. Attention was given to the relation of history and government in the social studies curriculum. The recommendation of the committee was that the teaching of local government should be introduced into all the grades beginning not later than the fifth. The instruction was to take the form of observations of political life by the class under the direction of the teacher. In the eighth grade more formal instruction in local, state and national government was to be given using an elementary text and some reference books. The work on the subject was to cover one-half year. While the emphasis in the elementary grades was to focus mainly on the local and state governments the recommendation for the high school was to proceed from the local to the study of the state and then to the national government. The study of American government was to follow history with a requirement of one-half year in the twelfth grade. Additional electives in
larger city high schools were suggested (American Political Science Association, 1916).

The Committee of Seven sponsored by the APSA is not to be confused with the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association in 1899. While the latter was concerned with the study of history, the former organization presented their report in 1916 in a volume entitled The Teaching of Government, which contained a report on the teaching of civics in the American public schools and colleges. The Committee of Seven of the APSA suggested that between the ages of 12 and 15 the instruction in the junior high school was to center on community civics which was within the pupil's experience along with the treatment of the machinery of government. The advanced course in civics was recommended for the high school but the report did not state in which year it was to be offered nor whether it was a one year or a half-year course (United States Bureau of Education, 1915).

The Social Studies Committee report by the National Education Association in 1916 was also influential in determining the content of civics and government courses in the schools. In the seventh grade, civics was recommended as a part of geography and European history, each taught for one-half year, or to be segregated as a separate subject for one or two periods a week. The eighth grade course was to include United States history and civics for one-half year each. The alternative plans for civics in the ninth grade included the following:

(1) Civics: Continuing the civics of the preceding year, but with more emphasis upon State, national, and world aspects -- \( \frac{1}{2} \) year.

Civics: Economic and vocational aspects -- \( \frac{3}{2} \) year.
History: Much use made of history in relation to the topics of the above courses.

Or, (2) Civics: Economic and vocational, economic history -- 1 year. (United States Bureau of Education, 1916, p. 15)

The twelfth grade offering recommended by the Social Studies Committee report in 1916 was the problems of American democracy course in which "... the principal claimants for position were political science (government, 'advanced civics'), economics and sociology in some more or less practical form." (United States Bureau of Education, 1916, p. 52)

The various committee reports by the American Political Science Association, American Historical Association, and the National Education Association materially shaped school courses in the great task of civic education.

Utah textbook adoptions in civics and government after 1910

The major content of courses in civics and government in the junior and senior high schools of Utah can be determined to some degree by examination of the textbooks used. The limits of historical study are to be realized in that evidence is lacking as to how these textbooks were used in the classroom. A representative list of the texts recommended for use in the schools of Utah during the second and third decade of the present century is provided which includes author, title, publishing date, and source of textbook recommendation.


2. Roscoe Lewis Ashley, The American Federal State (1911) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1913, p. 97.
3. Roscoe Lewis Ashley, The New Civics (1917) recommended in the Salt Lake City Public Schools Courses and Outlines, 1917, p. 48.

4. Thomas H. Reed, Form and Functions of American Government (1917) recommended in the Salt Lake City Public Schools Courses and Outlines, 1917, p. 48.

5. Milton Bennion, Citizenship (1917) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1918b, p. 88.

6. Ray O. Hughes, Community Civics (1917) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1918b, p. 46.

7. William B. Munro and Charles E. Ozanne, Social Civics (1922) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1923b, p. 49.

8. George Thomas, Civil Government of Utah (1912) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1927, p. 19.

9. Howard C. Hill, Community Life and Civic Problems (1922) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1927, p. 6.

10. Walter R. Hepner, The Good Citizen (1924) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1927, p. 6.

Since the publication of Arthur W. Dunn's The Community and the Citizen in 1907, the emphasis by civics textbook writers has been on the various aspects of group life and social living. Community civics meant emphasis upon the local community as well as the nation and the state with implications of community cooperation through government. An analysis of the table of contents in the text by Walter R. Hepner, The Good Citizen (1924), indicates how community activities, citizenship and American ideals were incorporated:

I. Introductory--Our Life Together
II. The Child in the Family
III. The Citizen's Community Life
IV. Education in the Community
V. The Church in the Community
VI. The Newspaper in the Community
The main topic of interest in Hepner's book was the community. Noticeably lacking was emphasis on the state and national government and international relations.

The content of textbooks on civics and government were greatly influenced by the 1915 bulletin issued by the United States Department of Education, entitled "The Teaching of Community Civics." The following elements were suggested as topics: (1) health, (2) protection of life and property, (3) recreation, (4) education, (5) civic beauty, (6) wealth, (7) communication, (8) transportation, (9) migration, (10) charities, (11) correction, (12) how governmental agencies are conducted, (13) how governmental agencies are financed, and (14) how voluntary agencies are conducted and financed (United States Bureau of Education, 1915). A sizeable number of these topics were found in the Hepner text.

Milton Bennion's Citizenship (1917) was widely used in Utah schools. Bennion, a Utahn, experimented with his book for six years
in teaching senior high school students and University of Utah freshmen. The outline of this book was published in 1913 by the Utah State Board of Education and the subject was taught successfully for several years prior to its publication in 1917. The purpose of Bennion's text was "... to stimulate appreciation of ethical principles and the development of worthy social ideals and to indicate how these ideals may find expression." (Bennion, 1917, p. viii) Bennion, an accepted scholar, emphasized in Part I of his textbook, "community civics" through an understanding of our social inheritance and political problems. Part II was entitled, "The Responsibilities of Citizenship" involving the individual, family, community, city, state, and nation. Part III presented lesson outlines of the text, a sample of which can be viewed on page 147. Bennion's textbook methodology was predominantly expository.

At least one textbook was designed to embody the outline suggested by the Committee of the American Political Science Association in 1922. This text was proposed for civics in the high school and was used in Utah. The text, Social Civics (1922) by William B. Munro and Charles E. Ozanne set the standard for subsequent ones (Tryon, 1935).

The textbooks adopted for use in Utah's public secondary schools from the 1930's to the 1960's were listed in publications by the Utah Department of Public Instruction. Prior to 1930 all adopted textbooks were listed in state course of study manuals.

and Changing Cultures (1932) was a self-contained elementary treatment of world cultures starting in the period of the Middle Ages and providing background on the progress of Western democracy in various countries (Rugg, 1932). A total of thirteen twelfth grade textbooks were adopted for school use in problems of American democracy (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1939).

In 1947 textbooks concerned with civic education were listed under social studies. The number of textbooks for the ninth grade course of civics totaled nine, while the American problems class for the twelfth grade numbered twenty-three. Ray O. Hughes' Building Citizenship (1933) had as central themes the good citizen in the community, the government, and economics. Approximately one-third of Hughes' text was devoted to each of these three aspects. The problem of conservation of natural resources was more noticeable in some of the 1947 textbooks than in those of previous years. Renner and Harley's Conservation and Citizenship (1940) concerned with natural and human resources and their proper use was designed for the ninth grade (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1947b).

In 1959 seven textbooks were adopted for American government and seven for civics on the secondary level. As before, textbooks concerned with any phase of civics were listed under the heading of social studies (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1959b). The 1967 textbook listing of the secondary texts for civics numbered twenty-four while the twelfth grade American government texts numbered twenty-five (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1967b).

The content of textbooks drawing on materials from the field of political science from the 1920's to the 1960's was numerous and varied.
It was evident that specialists designed textbooks for furthering civic education by the study of specific topics. While these topics were numerous they reflected the emerging problems of government. The two civic textbooks for senior high school, Hartley and Vincent's *American Civics* (1967) and Rienow's *American Government in Today's World* (1966) represent recent developments today in civics which roams widely. These authors present all aspects of American government--the workings of the legislative, executive, and the judicial branches; the roles of political parties, elections, and the nature of voting behavior; state and local government; problems of federalism, and so forth. Apart from this, in contrast to earlier textbooks like Hill's *Community Life and Civic Problems* (1922) used during the 1920's and 1930's in Utah, attention is focused in current civic textbooks upon international relations, defense policies, international organization and law which were noticeably lacking in civic textbooks several decades ago.

**Civic education enrollments in Utah schools since 1910**

In the short span of years between 1910 and 1920 the number of students enrolled in Utah public schools rose from 59,700 to 119,034. The number of pupils enrolled in the subject of civil government for 1910 was 3,918 or 6.57 per cent of all enrollments while a decade later the per cent was 21.1 (Utah School Report, 1909-1910; 1920-1922; United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, 1925).

All teachers of civics in Utah in 1920 were required to procure and read two bulletins on community civics published by the United States Bureau of Education. They were bulletin No. 23 published in 1915 and bulletin No. 28 published in 1916 (Utah Department of Public
Instruction, 1920). These bulletins amplified the recommendations of the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association which recommended civics for the ninth grade and problems of American democracy for the twelfth grade. Citizenship rather than the demands of the disciplines was to be the primary goal of instruction.

The national recommendations of 1915 and 1916 were recognized in Utah secondary schools. The junior high offering of community civics (one-half credit) was counted toward graduation requirements. The senior high school offered a one-half year course in civics and ethics (Utah School Report, 1915-1916, 1916-1917).

The publication of the Supplement to the Course of Study in Civics (1920) marked the real beginning of civic education in Utah resulting from recommendations of the Committee on Social Studies. Civics was taught in most grades of the public schools of Utah after 1915. The Supplement to the Course of Study in Civics (1920) set forth a course of study in civics for the elementary, junior, and senior high schools. Table 18 contains the number and per cent of pupils pursuing civics in the public secondary schools for the years 1921-1922 and 1927-1928.

The number and per cent of pupils pursuing the subject in 1921-1922 for Utah and the nation was not large. While the number 416,329 seems large, it is in reality small when thought of in relation to the number in schools that could have been pursuing civics in 1921-1922; even in per cent, 21.1 is not substantial. The distribution of pupils in civics for the year 1927-1928 indicated that there were more pursuing "community civics" and "civics other than community." The overall average for Utah in 1927-1928 was slightly less than for the
Table 18. Comparison of the number and per cent of pupils in the public high schools of Utah and the Continental United States pursuing various civics courses during the scholastic years 1921-1922 and 1927-1928

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State or area</th>
<th>Civics 1921-22</th>
<th>Civics 1927-28</th>
<th>Community civics 1927-28</th>
<th>Civics other than community 1927-28</th>
<th>All types of civics 1927-28</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utah</td>
<td>2,773</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>1,879</td>
<td>10.64</td>
<td>1,247</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

continental United States. The percentage of secondary students in Utah and the continental United States for 1933-1934 who were pursuing offerings from the field of civics is viewed in Table 19. A noticeable decrease from the enrollment of the 1920's is evident.

The enrollment of students in problems in American democracy and civil government was considerably less for both Utah and the continental United States in comparison to community government. While the per cent of secondary students in Utah was less in problems of American democracy and civil government than for the continental United States, the average of 16.2 per cent in community government helped provide an average of 7.5 per cent for all fields in political science for Utah, slightly higher than the 6.6 per cent for the continental United States for 1933-1934.

The years between the 1930's and the 1960's saw many changes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State or area</th>
<th>Prob. of American democracy</th>
<th>Community government</th>
<th>Civil government</th>
<th>Average for all fields in civics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Continental United States</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utah</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

affecting the curriculum in the field of civics. The 1911 high school law which included civics with history as a requirement for high school graduation was changed in 1932 to three required classes. Citizenship in grade nine, American history and government in grade eleven, and problems in American democracy in grade twelve were established. In 1944 the ninth grade offering was called citizenship and American neighbors while the eleventh and twelfth grade courses remained the same. During 1956 the program of social studies was revised and the ninth grade class in citizenship and American neighbors was changed to a one-half year required class of world geography. The eleventh grade class of American history and government remained as a required course along with the twelfth grade course of problems in American democracy. Table 20 indicates enrollments in classes in civics in Utah for 1960-1961.

For 1960-1961 the number of full-year enrollments in civics for grades seven and eight was larger than half-year enrollments. Civics and government in grades eleven and twelve for the twenty-two schools reporting favored the full-course as did the thirty-six schools reporting on the course of problems in American democracy. The enrollment in 1960-1961 of secondary civics students in Utah in the seventh, eighth, ninth, and tenth grades and civics, government and problems in American democracy in the eleventh and twelfth grades indicated enrollments favoring full-year courses. The national picture was similar to Utah except that nationally half-year courses were more prevalent for civics in grades seven and eight.
Table 20. Number of public secondary students in Utah enrolled in classes from the field of civics, 1960-1961

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Civic education</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Civic education</td>
<td>Building good citizens has always been a primary objective of Utah public education. Despite widespread agreement on this purpose, however, there has always been disagreement on how this was to be accomplished. Over the years, our legislative bodies have established many laws and regulations telling citizens what they must not do. Unfortunately, there are few statutes to tell us what we should do in order to participate effectively and constructively in our democratic society. There are, of course, certain citizenship responsibilities that</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
we are obligated to assume by law, such as paying taxes, serving on juries, and performing military service. These duties are mandatory and there is no way to avoid them save for certain exceptions provided for by law.

Many important citizenship duties are voluntary rather than mandatory, and the fate of a democratic society depends on how well these voluntary duties are performed. They include such matters as voting, keeping well informed, serving in public office, and helping with the work of political parties.

In a survey of requirements for citizenship education among the 50 states of the United States in 1963, it was found that in states where the term "citizenship" was used in statutes there was a variety of emphasis and connotations. Some states did not mention "citizenship" specifically. To gain some understanding of what the states considered necessary to provide knowledge and training for good citizenship a list of essential courses or topics were listed in a questionnaire, with a request that topics specifically referred to by statute be checked by each state. In the final tabulation, twenty-one subjects were used. Each topic is followed by the number of states in which it is required by statute.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>No. of states</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>United States or American history</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Declaration of Independence</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Federalist papers</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constitution of the United States</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American institutions and ideals</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State history</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constitution of the State</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principles of representative government</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patriotism</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flag education</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duties of citizenship</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>No. of states</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States government</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State government</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local government</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civics</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Election laws</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political party structure</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political party operations</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communism</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Robert A. Taft Institute of Government, 1963, pp. 108)

Of the 50 states, Alaska, Hawaii, and Kentucky checked none. One state checked only one course and this was Utah (Constitution of the United States). Two states (Idaho and Wyoming) checked two topics each. Fifteen of the states checked more than half of the topics with Pennsylvania and Mississippi checking all except Communism and Economics. The most frequently required topic, Constitution of the United States, was checked by 41 states.

Courses of study during the territorial period

Dole's American Citizen was suggested as the textbook for the one-half year study of eighth grade civics in the 1894 course of study entitled Manual of the Public Schools of Utah Territory. The ninth grade study of civil government was to "... commence with the home and handle subjects within the actual grasp of the pupil, moving upwards along the line of related powers until the learner has mastered the objective phase of the subject ..." (Utah Territorial Schools, 1894, p. 78) The class objectives were:

1. To form an acquaintance with modes of government, particularly our own government.
2. To inculcate patriotism, political morality, etc.
3. To train to habits of obedience, industry, and integrity.
(4) To prepare for citizenship of highest, noblest rank. (Utah Territorial Schools, 1894, p. 78)

The Salt Lake City Public Schools for 1895-1896 were instructed in the teaching of United States history that the "Training in patriotism...is to be regarded as one of the leading duties of the teacher; but patriotism disassociated from knowledge of a nation's history would be of an empty sort." (Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1895-1896, p. 96) Civil government as a subject of study was outlined as a one-half year course with United States history as the other half-year course in the fourth year of high school which was a recommendation of the Committee of Ten, 1892-1894, and the Committee of Seven in 1896. (See Tables 6 and 7). The textbooks were listed under the topic of history and included the following: Montgomery's English History, Meyer's General History, Johnston's Constitutional History of the United States, and Macy's Our Government (Salt Lake City Public School, 1895-1896).

State and district courses of study since 1896

The Committee of Ten (1892) greatly influenced the secondary schools of Utah beginning in 1897-1898. Teachers were instructed in their preparation for teaching to read carefully two or three books on civics to insure an interesting presentation. The teacher reference books on the high school level for 1897-1898 had been expanded to nineteen textbooks listed under history and civics (Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1897-1898).

The Course of Study for the Public Schools of Utah (1908-1913) with reference to civics bears a remarkable resemblance to the Com-
mittee of Eight's recommendations by the American Historical Association in 1904-1909. History was to be emphasized at one time and at another time civics was to be taught. Provisions were set forth in this course of study for civic instruction to begin with kindergarten and continue through grade eight. Both civics and history textbooks were listed by title and author and the subject-matter to be covered was listed by first, second, third, and fourth quarters for the school year. On the high school level a course in civics and history was offered in the third and fourth years (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1908-1913).

In 1913 the state course of study listed two classes of civic government and ethics of citizenship as requirements for graduation. William B. Gittens' Government and Politics in the United States (1911) was the suggested text for civic government in which the use of "... town warrants, legislative bills, sample ballots, presidential messages, and the like" were to be used. (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1913, p. 42)

The course of study in 1918 (Utah Department of Public Instruction) was examined on the elementary and secondary levels to determine the degree of influence, if any, that the 1916 Committee of Social Studies or the 1916 Committee of Seven (American Political Science Association) had on the content of civics and government. Inasmuch as the Committee of Social Studies (1916) was primarily concerned with the realm of secondary education, it would seem reasonable to assume, that the Utah course of study in 1918 in the elementary grades was influenced by the 1916 report of the Committee of Seven (APSA) rather than the National Education Association Committee on Social
Studies.

The state recommended a junior high course of study in 1918 and the civic portion was identical to the 1916 report by the Committee on Social Studies. In grade seven community civics, European beginnings of American history, and geography were listed, with no provision for combining or separating the subjects and with geography minimized. Grade eight included United States history, some geography, and current events. The course of study for grade nine was entitled "descriptive civics," and covered the major topics of community life, forms of government, methods of taxation, and the citizen. The textbook for the full-year course in grade nine was Hughes' *Community Civics* (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1918a).

While the Social Studies Committee report of 1916 recommended that the grade twelve problems of American democracy course include materials from political science (government, "advanced civics"), economics, and sociology, the Utah course of study in 1918 listed separate classes in civics, economics, and sociology. The two civics classes of civic government and ethics of citizenship which were offered in the 1908-1913 course of study remained unchanged. (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1918b).

In 1920 the Utah high school course in civics was called American citizenship. Assignments from Reed's *Form and Functions of American Government* (1917) and Bennion's *Citizenship* (1917) were given in a series of lessons and problems, totaling over 122 during the school year. A glimpse of the methods used may be derived from the following sample:
Lesson 1. Government and Why We Should Study It.
Text: Reed, pp. 1-7
Problems: What services ought the state to perform for its citizens? State the relative importance of these services. What should be the citizen’s attitude toward his government?

Text: Bennion, p. 181. Questions on Chapter XV.
Problem: What is a democratic government. Show its superiority to other types of government. (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1920, p. 18)

The Supplement to the Course of Study in Civics (1920) was evidently a supplement to the 1915-1916 course of study in Utah, and had the distinction of being the first and only state publication dealing exclusively with civics. Other publications since have correlated civics with other phases of study in the social studies. The Supplement to the Course of Study in Civics marked the real beginning of civic education in Utah and that the report of the Committee on Social Studies (1916) was responsible is attested to in the forward of this publication.

Various possible courses and combinations were listed in the 1923 course of study for twelfth grade subjects. The following courses, which somewhat resemble the 1916 recommendations of the Committee on Social Studies, were listed: "Citizenship (1/2 unit) and American Government (1/2 unit) or 1-unit combination of these two subjects; Citizenship (1/2 unit) and Sociology (1/2 unit) or 1-unit combination; Sociology (1/2 unit); and Economics (1/2 unit)." (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1923b, p. 46)

The present-day problems in American democracy course was suggested for Utah schools in 1930. The course of study outlined for grade twelve was organized under either of two plans:
(1) A course in general social science in which economic, sociological, and ethical principles and problems are combined and correlated.
(2) Three consecutive courses of approximately one-quarter each, given in the following order: economics, sociology, citizenship. The first plan, while more difficult to organize, is preferable. (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1930, pp. 22-23)

Between the 1930's and the 1960's the course offerings in civic education in Utah schools have remained virtually unchanged despite numerous curriculum revisions. Although the ninth grade course of citizenship was no longer placed on the required list for graduation as a separate class, a variety of phases of citizenship education were included in grades seven, eight, and nine in the courses of Utah history, United States history, and world geography after 1956. Some degree of civic education was emphasized in the high school in the courses in world history, United States history, and the twelfth grade course of problems in American democracy. The Utah course remains at the present time about the same, with reference to graduation requirements, as it did in 1930.

The Granite school district published in 1962 a course of study entitled United States Political and Economic Institutions which was designed for grade eleven, with a unit in politics concerned with state government, national government, and the American political party system. The grade twelve course of Contemporary American Problems (1964) was designed for students to understand the major political, social and economic problems confronting our democracy. Comparative Political and Economic Systems (1963) for grade twelve was concerned with studies in democracy, socialism, totalitarianism and communism.
ECONOMICS AS A SUBJECT IN UTAH'S PUBLIC
SECONDARY SCHOOLS: 1847-1967

Economics and political economy

Economics, formerly known as political economy, as a school subject has a history that extends back into the early territorial period in Utah's schools. Recognized as a school study under the name of "political economy," economics did not receive widespread recognition in Utah until the second decade of the present century. In one way economics is by no means a new subject, and in another way it has always been a new subject. The subject has gained ground as a school study so slowly that it remained in a stage of infancy until recent times.

Values of economics as a school subject

Economics or political economy is the study of those human relationships which concern men in their efforts to gain a livelihood, individually and collectively. Economic problems are as old as man himself. Champlin (1868, p. 7) defined political economy as "... strictly speaking, state-economy as opposed to family-economy or individual economy." Under this definition the individual problems of any particular person were justified only if they threw light upon the economy of all the people.

Political economy never enjoyed a large position in the school social studies curriculum until after it changed its name to economics. According to Wesley (1942, p. 194), "Political economy was too inclu-
sive and too abstract for ready adoption in the schools." Although the advocates of those teaching political economy claimed disciplinary, civic, ethical and cultural values, it never gained a large following until changes were made in the name, content, and objectives.

Although political economy was taught in some of the public schools throughout the nation, only about 5 per cent of the schools offered the subject prior to 1900 (Wesley, 1942). The Committee of Ten of the National Education Association recommended in 1893 that political economy should not be taught in secondary schools but should be included as economic topics only, in classes of United States history, civil government, and geography (United States Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1892-1893).

The term political economy gradually fell into disuse and the simpler term economics came into being. In 1885 the American Economic Association was organized and used the term "economic" rather than "political economy" in the new national organization (James, 1910). The name selected by Alfred Marshall for his new book in 1890 was Principles of Economics. The term political economy was gradually replaced by the word economics around the turn of the century in the school curriculum.

Economics as a school subject, unlike political economy, was concerned with the individual as well as the state or national economy. While the four divisions of production, consumption, distribution, and exchange were retained in the name-change more emphasis was placed on relating material to current affairs.

Present-day economics is defined by McConnell (1963, p. 25) as ". . . the social science concerned with the problem of using or
administering scarce resources (the means of producing) so as to attain
the greatest or maximum fulfillment of our unlimited wants (the goal of
producing)." Economics is concerned with the individual, state, and
nation in doing the best with what we have, with unlimited wants and
limited resources.

The values claimed for the study of economics as an independent
subject of study include the following:

(1) Provides valuable knowledge concerning man's
social environment and earning a living;
(2) It equips a democratic citizenry to render funda-
mental decisions intelligently;
(3) Although not a vocational discipline, economics
may provide the individual with a correct understanding
of money, capital, and distribution and the ability to
do productive, intelligent thinking on economic matters.
(McConnell, 1963, p. 18)

Economic instruction in Utah
before 1900

In 1841, several years before the mass Mormon exodus to Utah,
John C. Bennett, Chancellor of the University of Nauvoo in Illinois,
received approval from the Board of Regents for a number of textbook
adoptions for use in the common schools. Among the various subjects
of reading, spelling, grammar, arithmetic, and geography was listed
a book on political economy by John McVickar, entitled Outlines of
Political Economy (1825). This book reflected the Ricardian views
of economics (Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, 1841).

There is no substantial evidence, other than McVickar's textbook
in 1841, of the existence of political economy in Utah's secondary
schools before the turn of the century. If it were possible to base a
generalization on the absence of data, one would be justified in saying
that political economy as an independent subject of study was practically
an unknown subject to Utah students before 1900. Although political economy was lacking as a separate subject in the school curriculum it seems fairly certain that due to theological and moral training in Utah, careful management of money and personal assets would not be neglected, but rather would be included in other subjects offered in the public schools.

On the college level the influence of political economy was felt in a small way. The University of Utah (Deseret) offered only one class in political economy in 1868-1869 and continued the same offering to 1892-1893. The Utah State University (Agricultural College of Utah) offered one class in 1890-1891 and the first offering of economics at Brigham Young University was in 1904-1905. This offering in economic education undoubtedly had some effect upon the secondary schools of Utah.

For the country as a whole there is little available evidence relative to the extent to which political economy found its way into the public schools before 1900. Tryon (1935) reported that in 1900-1901, for 146 public high schools in the fifty largest cities in the nation, there were but 987 pupils enrolled in economics. That was .82 per cent of the total enrollment in these schools.

Development of economic materials in the nation before 1900

Some of the textbooks used in the secondary schools of the nation included the following: Fawcett's Political Economy for Beginners (1880), Fawcett's Manual of Political Economy (1888), Bastiat's Essays on Political Economy (1877), Wayland's Elements of Political Economy
(1860), and Leverson's *Common Sense, or First Steps in Political Economy* (1876). Some of the titles are indicative of attempts to reach the secondary schools. The contents of Chapin's *First Principles of Political Economy Concisely Presented* (1879) presented the basic framework of production, consumption, distribution, and exchange which has adhered to, in large measure, to the present.

Part I. PRODUCTION.
- Chapter I. Labor.
- Chapter II. Capital.
- Chapter III. Co-operation of Capital and Labor.

Part II. CONSUMPTION.
- Chapter I. Involuntary Consumption.
- Chapter II. Voluntary Consumption
- Chapter III. Public Consumption.

Part III. DISTRIBUTION.
- Chapter I. Remuneration of Labor.
- Chapter II. Remuneration of Capital.
- Chapter III. Distribution of Profits.
- Chapter IV. Revenue of the Government.

Part IV. EXCHANGE.
- Chapter II. Money an Instrument of Exchange.
- Chapter III. Credit an Instrument of Exchange.
- Chapter IV. Banks and Paper Money.
- Chapter V. International Trade.

(Chapin, 1879, table of contents)

Gooch suggested the following general patterns took place in secondary school economics prior to 1900:

1. Attempts were made to adapt the materials from a college to the secondary school level.
2. High school economics assumed the general outline or pattern (for four divisions of production, distribution, exchange, and consumption) to which it has adhered in large measure down to the present.
3. Some attempts were made to include materials on current problems. Many of these, however, were far removed from the experience of the average student or citizen.
4. A more scientific attitude was assumed with respect to controversial issues. Thus attempts were made to
include materials designed to show why different groups or parties might take opposed positions on certain questions. (5) Less of the political or governmental and more of the social aspects of economics crept into the content. This foreshadows dropping the term "political economy" and substituting the term "economics." (Gooch, 1940, pp. 22-23)

By 1900 the typical content of a course in political economy on the high school level was based on textbook content in four traditional divisions of economics. In addition to material on production, consumption, distribution, and exchange there was usually some additional material on practical economics.

Economics as a separate subject

Charles F. Dole's American Citizen (1891 was the textbook selected in the Utah territory for the study of civics and "... was to be used in connection with reading, history or geography, or in a separate class as the teacher desires." (Utah Territorial Schools, 1894, p. 76) Dole's book was a good example of how economic topics were included in classes of United States history, civil government and geography, and not as a separate class in political economy. This practice, traced back to the recommendation of the Committee of Ten in 1893, was carried out in the school curriculums of Utah. Dole's book dealt with economic topics such as wealth, property, capital, credit and interest, labor and competition, and the abuses and duties of wealth.

During the first three decades of the present century economics gained a foothold in the program of studies of Utah high schools. For the school year ending in 1903 there were 20 students or 3.8 per cent of the total enrollment of all high school students receiving separate class instruction in political economy. One year later the name used
in the course of study was changed from political economy to economics (Utah School Report, 1902-1903 and 1903-1904).

Economics was listed as a separate offering in the high schools of the state in 1903. Prior to this date all instruction was correlated with the teaching of United States history, geography, and civil government (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1903-1908). A number of new approved textbooks in economics appeared during the next two decades. The following list is representative of economics textbooks published between 1899 and 1929.

1. Henry W. Thurston, Economics and Industrial History for Secondary Schools (1899) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1903-1908, p. 114.

2. Charles J. Bullock, Elements of Economics (1905) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1913, p. 97.

3. Richard T. Ely and George Ray Wickers, Elementary Principles of Economics (1914) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1918b, p. 96.

4. Henry R. Burch, American Economic Life (1921) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1927, p. 9.

5. Charles M. Thompson, Elementary Economics (1925) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1927, p. 9.

6. Thames R. Williamson, Introduction to Economics (1923) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1930, p. 27.

7. Thomas Nixon Carver, Principles of Rural Economics (1911) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1930, p. 27.

8. Thomas Nixon Carver, Elementary Economics (1920) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1930, p. 27.

9. Ray O. Hughes, Fundamentals of Economics (1929) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1930, p. 27.
Certain important aspects of content were evident in these textbooks. The divisions of production, consumption, distribution, and exchange were dominant with additional materials from the related fields of industrial history, political science, and sociology often included. More emphasis was placed on the social point of view with less emphasis on governmental or political economy. All of the textbooks listed used the name "economics." The books by Thurston and Carver concerning industrial and rural economics discarded the traditional four divisions of the subject for preference topics peculiar to agriculture and industry.

In 1921-1922 economics was included for the first time in the listing of data of pupils and subjects of study since 1899 by the United States Bureau of Education. The facts relative to economics in Utah and the nation for the years 1921-1922 and 1927-1928 are shown Table 21.

In Utah, economics made a slight gain between 1922 and 1928 in the per cent of pupils pursuing the subject, while for the nation the per cent dropped from 4.3 per cent in 1922 to 3.4 per cent in 1928. While this might be explained on the national level by the adoption of the course in problems of American democracy, this did not hold for Utah until after 1930. Nevertheless, it seems evident that economics as a subject in the secondary schools gained some ground during the 1920's.

Economics offerings and enrollments in Utah schools since 1930

In Utah, during the 1930's and 1940's, economics was taught mainly on the high school level, and had not made an appearance on the junior
Table 21. Economics in the public high schools of Utah and the Continental United States during the scholastic years ending in 1922 and 1928

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Schools reporting on studies offering economics</th>
<th>Pupils pursuing economics in schools reporting studies</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1922</td>
<td>1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utah</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continental United States</td>
<td>1,347</td>
<td>1,970</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

high school level, as it had in fifty-five cities throughout the United States in 1932 (United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, 1932).

Economics as a separate class during 1933-1934 had a 10.4 per cent enrollment of all high school students in Utah. This was double the 4.9 per cent for the continental United States. In both Utah and the nation this subject was taught mainly as a one-semester class (United States Department of Interior, Office of Education, 1938).

The course in economics continued to maintain a fairly stable position showing only slight changes in percentage of pupils enrolled for 1960-1961, as compared to 1933-1934. Half-year enrollments of economics were predominant while the twelfth grade offering of problems of American democracy (containing topics on economics) was mainly a full-year course. The appearance of consumer education offered in home-economics departments of the state had a small enrollment for 1960-1961. Consumer education classes, somewhat similar to economics, stressed the practical side of economics including consumer protection (United States Office of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1965). With the rise of additional classes closely related to economics, including problems of American democracy, the fairly stable position of economics in the 1960's compared with past student enrollments may not indicate any loss of popularity for the subject but merely a change in curricular organization.

National developments in economics

Instruction affecting Utah

Following the 1893 recommendation of the Committee of Ten that political economy should not be taught in the secondary schools but
should be included only as topics in United States history, civil government, and geography, emphasis upon the study of economics did not attain national attention until 1916. In that year the Committee on Social Studies under the leadership of the National Education Association recommended for the ninth grade several alternative programs, one of which included economic and vocational education to be correlated with civics. The Committee report in 1916 expressed the belief that no one plan should be recommended as best for every school, but that individual schools should adapt recommendations to local circumstances (United States Bureau of Education, 1916).

The culminating course of social studies in the last year of the high school also received attention in 1916. With conflicting claims for the twelfth year it was decided,

... not to discard one social science in favor of another, nor attempt to crowd the several social sciences into one year in abridged forms; but to study actual problems, or conditions, as they occur in life, and in their several aspects, political, economic and sociological. (United States Bureau of Education, 1916, p. 53)

One of the chief aims in the "problems" course with reference to economics was:

Labor supply and other industrial problems (on the side of "production"). Standards of living, not only of the immigrants, but also of native Americans as affected by immigration (on the side of "consumption"). Relation to the problem of land tenure in the United States. (United States Bureau of Education, 1916, p. 54)

Recent steps to improve economic understanding took place in 1959 by the American Economic Association which appointed a Committee on Economic Education. This committee included a 13-man textbook study committee assigned to analyze the economic content of textbooks being used in high school social studies courses in economics, problems of
American democracy, and United States history. Their report was published as a supplement to the American Economic Review in 1963 entitled "Economics in the Schools," which reported that United States history and other courses provide fertile ground for planting and nourishing seeds of economic understanding. In all of the textbooks analyzed topics like Hamilton's financial program, opposition to centralized banking, demands for cheap money, changing role of government, rise of big business, organized labor, the farm problem, international trade, and the great depression are handled descriptively, but opportunities for analysis are bypassed.

... attention is focused on the political manifestations of economic forces rather than on an analysis of basic economic relationships. Rarely are economic forces analyzed as important determinants of social action outside the political sphere .... (Textbook Study Committee of the American Economic Association, 1963, pp. 25-26)

The committee's findings suggested important areas in which secondary textbooks should be strengthened for a more careful treatment of economic matters.

In 1960 the American Economic Association appointed a National Task Force on Economic Education, composed of independent well-known economists and educators, to describe for high school administrators and teachers a minimum core of economic understanding fundamental to good citizenship. The need for such a statement by the professional body of the American Economic Association had been widely voiced by teachers, administrators, school boards, and leading citizens. The report of the Task Force, Economic Education in the Schools, was published in 1961. Some 250,000 copies of this report were distributed to laymen, administrators, and teachers throughout the United States.
The report concluded that (1) goals for economic education in the past have not been clearly defined for students in the high schools; (2) better-trained high school teachers are critically needed to improve economic understanding provided by the schools; (3) there is insufficient good teaching material available for improved teaching of economics in the schools; (4) tests for progress are lacking for without goals for economic education it has been impossible to test for attainment of economic understanding; and (5) that there is little likelihood that economic understanding in the high schools will improve greatly unless individuals and organizations favoring economic education in education, business, agriculture, and labor get more sympathetic and coordinate their efforts (Bach and Sanders, 1965).

On November 15, 1962, the incorporation of the Utah Council on Economic Education took place. The Utah Council on Economic Education as an independent, non-profit, non-political organization was organized to work cooperatively with the National Joint Council on Economic Education. The purpose of the Utah organization was to work cooperatively with the Utah Department of Public Instruction, the public schools, and Utah universities and colleges for the development and improvement of programs in economic education (Utah Council on Economic Education, 1962).

The Board of Directors of the Utah Council on Economic Education have made numerous recommendations. These recommendations dealt with problems of teacher preparation and re-certification, the development and distribution of classroom resource materials on economics, the provision of additional inservice training programs for teachers in
addition to summer workshops and the implementation of the recommenda-
tions of the National Task Force on economic education (Utah Council

Textbooks on economics since 1930

Most of the economics taught in the high schools of Utah have been
offered in courses in economics or problems of American democracy. In
examining the textbooks which appeared during the decades since 1930
one finds little to differentiate them from the preceding periods. The
traditional organization of production, consumption, distribution, and
exchange is still evident but some texts are oriented to how-to-do-it
consumer education. Nevertheless, in examining the textbooks of the
1930's in contrast with those of the 1960's, one is not struck by great
dissimilarities.

Economics textbooks on the approved Utah textbook adoption list for
secondary schools in 1939 included the following: Fundamentals of Eco-
nomics, Economics in Everyday Life, Economic Problems of Today, Everyday
Economics, and Economics and Business (Utah Department of Public Instruc-
tion, 1939). The 1967 textbook adoption list included twenty-four books
with the word economics in the title. Such titles included Modern Eco-
nomics, Our American Economy, Understanding Our Economy, Consumer
Economics, and Economics of American Living (Utah Department of Public
Instruction, 1967b). With textbook adoptions in economics on a four-year
rotation basis, the number of texts from 1939 to 1967 numbered fifty-
seven. This included only those with the word economics in the book
title and not textbooks in problems of American democracy unless the
title contained the word economics.
Nevertheless, during the years between the 1930's and the 1960's some changes did affect the textbooks. Due to better teacher preparation those responsible for providing instruction in economics became more active in determining content. With courses of study and other teaching materials available the influence of the textbook lessened bringing less uniformity in content. Some attempts were made by textbook authors to organize economics texts into a social setting. Examination of recent texts revealed that with rare exceptions social implications of economic activities are now recognized. A comparison of two textbooks, one in economics by Holt and one in consumer economics by Wilhelms and Heimerl is shown in Table 22.

The textbook by Holt, *Economics and You* (1964), provided a subject-matter coverage of the traditional four divisions of economics. The economic issues of agriculture, big business, labor relations, public finance, international trade, business cycles, comparative economic systems, and economic growth are also covered. While the economic roles of government at the various levels were presented, scant attention was paid to the individual buyer or worker. The 1964 publication by Holt was influenced by the James B. Conant report which stated that the public high school youth were not being sufficiently challenged and a reform of instructional methods and materials was necessary (Conant, 1964).

The text *Consumer Economics* (1959) by Wilhelms and Heimerl discussed such problems as consumer problems, social security, housing, health and medical care, and installment buying. While a functional view is provided, the significant economic topics of international trade, business cycles, money and banking, etc., are lacking. The
Table 22. A comparison of two economics textbooks adopted for school use in Utah

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 1. Our Capitalist Society</td>
<td>Chapter 1. The Business World We Live In</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNIT I. Consumption: Using Goods and Services</td>
<td>Chapter 2. The Consumer and His Economic Problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 2. You Are the Consumer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chapter 3. Principles That Influence Your Buying</td>
<td>UNIT II. Managing Your Money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 4. Outside Factors That Influence Your Buying</td>
<td>Chapter 3. Budgeting for the Individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 5. Helping and Protecting You—the Consumer</td>
<td>Chapter 4. Budgeting for the Family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chapter 6. Substitutes for Money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNIT II. Production: Making Goods and Providing Services</td>
<td>UNIT III. Using Credit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 7. Production: Making the Things We Need</td>
<td>Chapter 7. Credit and the Consumer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chapter 8. The Role of Land in Production</td>
<td>Chapter 8. Installment Credit</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chapter 10. The Use of Land and Natural Resources</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chapter 11. Labor's Part in Production</td>
<td>UNIT IV. Good Buymanship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 12. Capital As a Factor in Production</td>
<td>Chapter 10. Planning Before Shopping</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chapter 14. The Organization of Corporations</td>
<td>Chapter 12. Improving Advertising Standards</td>
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<td>Chapter 14. Using Ratings and Certification Labels</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNIT III. Exchange: From the Producer to the Consumer</td>
<td>Chapter 15. Shopping Know-How</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 16. How Goods Are Exchanged</td>
<td>UNIT V. Buying Insurance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chapter 17. Money</td>
<td>Chapter 16. Social Insurance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chapter 18. American Monetary History</td>
<td>Chapter 17. Life Insurance</td>
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<td>Chapter 18. Accident and Health Insurance</td>
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<td>Chapter 19. Property Insurance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chapter 19. Using Credit</td>
<td>UNIT VI. Buying Housing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 20. Value and Price</td>
<td>Chapter 20. Housing and the Consumer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 21. Banking</td>
<td>UNIT VII. The Law and the Consumer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 23. The Stock Market</td>
<td>Chapter 22. Legal Aspects of Buying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 25. Inflation and Deflation</td>
<td>Chapter 24. Consumer Protection by Law</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chapter 26. Measuring Economic Growth</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chapter 27. Transportation and Communication</td>
<td>UNIT VIII. Buymanship and Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 28. International Trade</td>
<td>Chapter 25. Buying Protection Against Disease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 29. Tariffs: Government Regulation of Imports</td>
<td>Chapter 26. Buying Expert Care When Ill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chapter 27. Buying Opportunity to Live Well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNIT IV. Distribution: Sharing the Fruits of Production</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 30. Rent for the Landowner</td>
<td>UNIT IX. Investments in Good Living</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 31. Wages for the Worker</td>
<td>Chapter 28. Investing in Yourself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 32. Labor Unions</td>
<td>Chapter 29. Investing in Your Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 33. Labor versus Management</td>
<td>Chapter 30. Investing in Leisure Time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 34. Legislation Affecting the Worker</td>
<td>Chapter 31. Investing in Your Career</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 35. Interest for the Lender</td>
<td>Chapter 32. Investing in Your Personality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 36. Profits for Business</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 37. Government Finance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 38. The Taxes We Pay</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 39. Government Regulation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 40. Wartime Economics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 41. World Peace and the Challenge of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1959 publication was reflecting the life adjustment curriculum of the late 1940's which attempted to increase the effectiveness of efforts through education to meet the imperative needs of all youth (United States Office of Education, 1948).

The textbook by Dunwiddie and Kidger, Problems in Democracy (1965), was designated for the twelfth grade in the course offering of problems in American democracy. This book like others in the field considers problems of an economic, social, and political nature. The chapter headings concerned with economics follow:

UNIT IV. Economic Problems
Chapter 11. Financial Security
Chapter 12. Consumer Economics
Chapter 13. Improving Labor-Management Relations
Chapter 14. Business Enterprise in America
Chapter 15. Conservation
Chapter 16. Problems of American Farmers
(Dunwiddie and Kidger, 1965, table of contents)

This approach by Dunwiddie is similar to that of many authors of textbooks in American problems. The question yet to be answered is, should problems be used to teach economics or should economics be presented as prerequisite to understanding a problem?

Economics education in Utah

Various courses of study published by the Utah Department of Public Instruction since the turn of the century have listed classes in economics which would be accepted toward high school graduation. Although these classes were valid toward graduation they were not placed on the required list with other social studies classes. The first time economics was required as a topic in a course was in 1937, when the subject was included with materials from the field of political science and sociology in the course of study for the twelfth grade problems in

In 1944 the program of social studies was revised and the State Board of Education recommended that a choice be made between the tenth grade offering of world history and the twelfth grade class of problems in American democracy (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1948a). Some revision in the social studies took place in 1956 when United States history and government were required in grades ten through twelve (1 unit), with one additional unit from one or a combination of the following: world history, (1 unit); America's social and economic problems, (1 unit); sociology, (1 unit); world geography, (1/2 unit); or economics, (1/2 unit) (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1958).

The offering of economics from 1956 to 1967 remained the same. Classes in the subject were valid toward satisfactory completion of filling group requirements in social studies for graduation, but were not required.

The competency level of senior high school students with respect to economic concepts and understandings was investigated by Madsen (1961) in Utah and found to be generally lacking in being able to recognize, define, and classify economic concepts from literature of economic issues. Madsen recommended improvement of the status of economics as a course offering.

State and district courses of study in economics since 1900

The state course of study for 1903-1908 provided no written instruction in teacher preparation for an economics course. The class was to be taught in the first-half of the fourth year in the high
schools of Utah. The textbook used was Thurston's *Economics and Industrial History for Secondary Schools* (1899). During 1903 the total enrollment registered for economics in Utah was twenty students. This was apparently the first time the subject was offered as a separate class (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1903-1908).

Bullock's *Elements of Economics* (1905) listed in the state course of study for 1908-1913, and again in the state high school course of study for 1913, provided evidence that economics continued to be taught during the period. A total absence of instructions to teachers of economics in both courses of study was noted. The 1913 manual cited one additional text, that of Carver's *Rural Economics* (1911), and stated that "In its general treatment this course is much more simple than Economics proper, and yet it is logically adapted to the senior year." (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1913, pp. 42-43)

Additional information on the same class entitled "rural economics" stated that there was no good reason for giving this course in the city high schools since it was particularly agricultural in nature, and for that reason the class of "economics" was provided. Bullock's textbook was to be used in this class. The following introductory statement was provided:

This course, [economics] pursuing the indicated text, should cover in a general way, the field of economic science. While the subject as Bullock treats it is in no wise simple, it is yet not too difficult for careful and detailed study by high school students. (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1908-1913, p. 162)

The economics course was to be academic in nature and was essentially different from the course in rural economics.

The first material provided for the teachers of economics in a
Utah course of study was in 1918. The two textbooks, Bullock's *Elements of Economics* (1905) and Ely and Wicker's *Elementary Principles of Economics* (1914) were recommended for a full year's course for the senior high school.

The following instructions were given:

... it is intended that teachers apply the principles of the general course to the dominant industries of the community. Rural economics, labor problems, finance, transportation, exchange, all receive more complete detailed treatment in communities where there are real problems of industrial life. Economic conditions are changing rapidly and the government is assuming more active control over the production and exchange of wealth, so the teachers should be able constantly to supplement the text material with definite information of conditions as they exist to-day. (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1918b, p. 96)

An outline was provided in the 1918 course of study which covered the essential material in the two textbooks. Notice was given to teachers to make applications to local conditions where possible.

Instructions were brief but more definite in the 1923 *Utah Course of Study for the Secondary Schools*. The objectives of the course in economics, which included "Rural Economics," as well as "Economics," included the understanding of conditions of production, distribution, and consumption of wealth through the following:

1. The relations between capital and labor.
2. The organization and conduct of business.
3. The various kinds of industries.
4. Natural and social values in land.
5. The economical use of labor on land.
6. The organization and management of transportation system.
7. Banking, money, and interest as factors in modern business. (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1923b, p. 52)

The specific aim of economic instruction was "... not commercial success, but preparation for life." The special values to be obtained were ethical values, vocational values, and cultural values. "Problem"
assignments were suggested in order to "... realize that the subject has to do with actual life of men." (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1923b, p. 52). Field excursions to local manufacturing plants, banks, clearinghouse centers, stock exchanges, etc., were suggested along with two pages of sample questions for recitations to be used in providing instruction on the subject.

The State Course of Study for Senior High Schools in 1930 placed the study of economics, as had all other courses of study, in the twelfth grade. Two plans were outlined in which the school districts were provided with a choice. The first plan called for a general social science course in which economic, sociological, and ethical principles were to be combined and correlated. The second plan called for consecutive courses of approximately one-quarter each, given in the following order: economics, sociology, and citizenship. A "problems" approach was provided in a sample unit on taxation in which the student was to grapple with the subject through problem solving. Textbooks by Williamson, Hughes, and Carver were suggested. The recommendations of the 1916 Committee on Social Studies in economics were followed in Utah with a choice of two separate plans for the senior year course (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1930).

With the pattern of economic education in the problems of American democracy course established in the final year of high school in 1930, this pattern was followed somewhat in 1947, with the exception of new materials in the form of several textbooks and other reference materials as well as projects designed to relate economic activities to institutions (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1947a).
The first course of study by the state devoted exclusively to the subject of economics was published in 1959. The manual Economic Education: A Supplement for the Secondary Schools suggested procedures for implementing the program of economic education in all social studies courses on the secondary level. Major topics included: personal and family economics, choosing a vocation, human resources, natural resources, capital resources, forms of business organizations, local and regional economy, money, banking and credit, international trade, problems of economic stability, government in economic life, comparative economic systems, and automation. One area not previously mentioned in any other economic publication was how to relate economics to other subject areas of the secondary school such as mathematics, science, language arts, industrial arts, and agriculture (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1959a).

Viewing the whole range of economic education in Utah, changes were made, but the varied and practical learning activities which characterize economic education on the secondary level today were not extended downward into the elementary grades. Instruction below the secondary level in this subject was largely neglected or was placed in the elementary curriculum chiefly as a component of formal geography.

The 1961 state curriculum guide, Social Studies for Utah Schools, offered a general framework for the local districts and individual teachers. On the secondary level the field of economics was amalgamated with the following subjects:

Grade 7 Utah history and community problems (A study of the economic development of Utah including agriculture, minerals, natural resources, industrial,
water and power, transportation and communication, and tourist promotion).

Grade 8 United States history (A study of the foundations for the modern economic system of our country).

Grade 9 World geography (A study of the resource distribution and its economic implications).

Grade 10 World history (A study of the economic and political developments in the emergence of the modern world).

Grade 11 United States history and government (A study of the growth of our economic system with reference to the State Economic Education Supplement).

Grade 12 Contemporary social and economic problems (A study of the problems of man's relationship to economic environment including personal and family economics, choosing a vocation, business organization, money, credit, banking, labor-management relations, business cycle, comparative economic systems, government's role in the economy, and foreign trade and foreign aid). (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1961, pp. 145-193)

In 1964, the Utah Council on Economic Education joined cooperatively with the National Joint Council on Economic Education in embarking upon a five-year program for improving economic understanding in the nation's schools. Thirty major school systems in the nation phased into the project over a three-year period for development of intense curricular materials. An ad hoc committee, known as Developmental Economic Education Program (DEEP) was commissioned to undertake the program in an effort to discover effective ways to: (1) build economic understanding into school curricula at all grade levels; (2) improve teacher preparation in economics; (3) develop and evaluate new teaching materials at all grade levels; and (4) disseminate the results (Joint Council on Economic Education, 1964, printed brochure).

Thirty project school systems geographically dispersed throughout
the nation were selected. The diversity of city, county, state and parochial systems were to provide the experimental context for exploring those ingredients essential to a planned kindergarten through twelfth grade economic education. The Granite school district in Salt Lake City was one of the thirty school systems selected. The ideas and materials emanating from DEEP and the cooperating schools will hopefully embody a multiplier effect to reach other school systems throughout the nation.

By September, 1967, the implementation and trial of economic materials into the seventh, tenth and eleventh grades was used district-wide in Granite school district as a part of the DEEP program. The most significant future for DEEP is in the inclusion of economics in courses at every grade level in the future curriculum. A thorough evaluation of students' economic understanding will be made in 1969.
PSYCHOLOGY AS A SUBJECT IN UTAH'S PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS: 1847-1967

Psychology in the secondary school curriculum

Like most of the modern sciences of human behavior, psychology may be thought of as being both a very old and a very new field of study. It may on the one hand be viewed as a very old subject extending back to the earliest period of systematic philosophical inquiry; and on the other hand it may be looked upon as one of the most recent claimants for recognition among the modern sciences.

The earliest date in which psychology was introduced into the secondary schools of the nation as a separate subject of instruction appears to be "about 1910" (Harris, 1939). Coffield and Engle (1960) reported psychology had been in the secondary school curriculum since 1895. Psychology was added to the Utah school curriculum for the first time in the Salt Lake City high schools as an elective subject for a one-semester class in 1921 (Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1921). Course materials with psychological content had, of course, been in the schools of Utah and the nation long before 1895, 1910, or 1921, but in such courses as science, physiology, or hygiene.

Psychology textbooks

Elements of psychology were found in biological science textbooks used in Utah schools before psychology became an independent and separate subject. Smith's *Elementary Physiology and Hygiene* (1884), Lincoln's *Hygienic Physiology* (1891), Macy and Norris' *General Physi-
ology for High Schools (1900), and Huxley's Lessons in Elementary Physiology (1900) recommended for use in Salt Lake City high schools for 1893-1894 and 1902-1903, contained materials that were substantially derived from physiology and anatomy, but also involved elements of psychology.

Carpenter (1963) claimed that several textbooks of "mental philosophy" were available before the nineteenth century with treatises on the mind and its marvelous workings. He further stated that the early mental science books found a place in the schools before the biological sciences did.

Both Roback (1952) and Louttit (1956) present evidence that psychology, in one form or another, had been taught in the nation on the secondary level for well over a century. Roback estimates that over one-half million textbooks in psychology were sold between 1831 and 1881. Of seventy psychology textbooks by American authors published prior to 1890, at least seven were designed specifically for use in high schools. During the 1880's psychology textbooks with a viewpoint of mental science began to appear and within "... a decade and a half after David J. Hill's Elements of Psychology (1886) a dozen texts something on the order of Hill's were in print--an old subject under a new guise." (Carpenter, 1965, p. 244)

While a number of states were offering psychology as a separate subject after the turn of the century, widespread interest in the teaching of psychology in secondary schools apparently emerged in the 1930's (Noland, 1966).

One of the first textbooks on the subject of psychology suggested
for use in the schools of Utah was Hoffding's *Outlines of Psychology* (1892) (Utah Territorial Schools, 1894).

**High school psychology textbooks in the twentieth century**

Frandsen (1941) investigated the status of high school psychology in Utah and reported a dearth of textbooks suitable for teaching the subject. One former teacher of psychology in the Michigan City high school in 1939 wrote:

> One of the greatest obstacles to the introduction of psychology at the high school level is the lack of textbook material definitely written for high school pupils by psychologists who know psychology but have had training and experience in secondary education. (Engle, 1939, p. 51)

A careful analysis of all territorial and state publications by the Utah Board of Education for textbook materials in the field of psychology confirms a definite dearth in this field. The earliest textbook with the title of psychology, which was then associated with science, was Baldwin's *Elementary Psychology and Education* (1892) suggested for use in the first semester of the twelfth year of high school for the year 1894-1895 (Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1894-1895). This text was, according to the title page, prepared especially for high schools and normal schools. The table of contents of Baldwin's textbook reveals the areas emphasized in the various chapters.

**PART I. INTRODUCTORY LESSONS**

Chapter
I. Attention
II. Instinct
III. Important Terms Examined
IV. The Sensorium
V. Sensation

**PART II. THE PERCEPTIVE POWERS**

Chapter
VI. Sense-Perception, or Sense-Intuition
VII. Conscious Perception, or Self-Consciousness
The major topics of Baldwin's book were designed in accordance with prevailing notions of mental development, starting with the introductory chapter on the span of attention, instinctive acts, and a definition of important terms, etc. This work was intended expressly for introductory classes in this subject.

The study of psychology in Utah from the 1890's to the 1940's was apparently taught from the biological point of view, specifically in relation to physiology (Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1921). Although separate classes of psychology were taught during this fifty year period,
only biological science textbooks were listed in the courses of study and textbook adoption lists, which evidently placed this course offering with the sciences rather than the social sciences.

In 1947 Engle's *Psychology: Its Principles and Applications* (1945) was approved for high school use in Utah (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1947b). This textbook was designed for an elementary course in psychology for students in both the final years of high school and the beginning years of college, and has been used through the 1950's and 1960's (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1951; Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1964a). The objectives of a course utilizing this textbook should be:

1. High school psychology should be taught in such a way that it is practical and enjoyable. No emphasis should be placed on any particular school of psychological thought;
2. the scientific point of view should be maintained;
3. pseudo-psychology should be exposed, and, at the same time, the pupil should develop a wholesome attitude toward scientific psychology;
4. problems of personal adjustment, both present and future, should be stressed, so that the pupil will better understand himself and others and so that he may avoid undesirable tension;
5. attention should be paid to social problems in the hope of improving social conditions;
6. assistance should be given in vocational guidance and vocational success;
7. the pupil should be assisted to become an efficient student; and
8. assistance should be given in problems of present boy-girl relationships and in preparation for future home membership. (Engle, 1950a, pp. 343-344)

From the unit and chapter headings listed below it was noticeable that Engle's 1950 textbook in psychology was designed for use in courses in the social sciences rather than in the sciences.

UNIT I. What Is the Science of Psychology?
Chapter
1. "Mind Meddling" vs. Scientific Psychology
2. Misunderstood Problems of Psychology

UNIT II. Patterns of Human Behavior
3. Personality--What It Is and How It Is Measured
It will be observed that Engle's textbook was based on practical topics and avoided adherence to any particular theory of psychology. Terms used were technical but extensive jargon peculiar to psychology was avoided. Throughout the text supplementary reading was provided. The student was introduced to the scientific method, the fields of personality and intelligence, and normal and abnormal psychology.

The total absence of other psychology textbooks, other than Baldwin's Elementary Psychology and Education (1892) and Engle's Psychology: Its Principles and Applications (1945, with later revisions in 1950, 1957, 1964), on approved state textbook lists may be evidence that this subject has not been too popular as a separate subject in Utah schools. Information regarding the use of textbooks in all schools of Utah states the following:
Whenever no basal, co-basal, or multiple-basal adoption is made, a district may buy supplementary books, or not buy supplementary books, as the district may desire. If a textbook has not been adopted for a particular subject which is offered in a high school, then the board of education may select any appropriate text. (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1955b, preface)

With a limited number of textbooks in psychology placed on approved listings for Utah since the beginning of the twentieth century, it would seem logical to assume that school districts have been reluctant to include psychology as a course offering in the curriculum. The psychology textbook situation in Utah is a reflection of the major weakness of high school psychology courses throughout the nation which have suffered from the lack of suitable textbooks (Noland, 1966).

T. L. Engle, by far the most prolific investigator and writer on the subject of high school psychology in recent years, published in 1950 a study in which thirteen books, listed in Appendix C, were analyzed for subject-matter content. The data in Table 23 present a general view of content of present-day psychology textbooks used in high schools throughout the nation.

Engle's analysis reveals high school textbooks tended to stress mental hygiene, personality, and learning. Although 12.4 per cent of all textbook content involved biological foundations this was less than college textbooks for elementary courses according to Wolfe (1947) who made a comparable study of college textbooks. Engle's survey of high school materials and Wolfe's study of college textbooks indicated that high school textbooks tended to devote more space than did college textbooks to personality, personal problems, mental hygiene, vocational guidance, and adjustment.
Table 23. Subject-matter analysis of thirteen high-school textbooks in psychology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General topic</th>
<th>Per cent of 5,407 pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mental hygiene</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality and interperson relationships</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological foundations</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational guidance and adjustment</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social problems</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous, blank pages, general pictures</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statistical techniques and concepts</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Engle, 1950a, p. 344
Although the analysis in Table 23 provides an over-all picture of recent psychology courses in high schools, as revealed by the textbooks, Engle pointed out that authors differed to a great extent in the topics discussed and in the amount of space devoted to particular topics. In order to obtain a more detailed study seven textbooks, from the thirteen textbooks listed in Appendix C, were selected. These books were selected because they presented a fairly general picture of psychology. The selected books were: Averill (1), Crow and Crow (2), Engle (3), Geisel (4), Josey (5), Sorenson and Malm (12), and Woodworth and Sheehan (13), respectively. The data from the analysis of these seven selected psychology textbooks are provided in Table 24. As viewed in Table 24, the general topical classification for the thirteen textbooks was broken down into more detail for the seven books given special study.

The subject-matter of the topic, mental hygiene in Table 24 was general adjustment, emotions, and child guidance while the subtopics of selecting a vocation, avocation, leisure time, home membership, and working efficiency were associated with the topic of vocational guidance and adjustment. Relatively little space was devoted to the technical topic of intelligence and its measurement and statistical techniques in Tables 23 and 24. The per cent of pages devoted to the various topics and subtopics in the subject-matter analysis of psychology textbooks in these two tables was similar, with learning and social problems in Table 23 having a per cent of 17.2 and 6.5 compared to Table 24 with 17.3 and 7.4 for the same topics.

Psychology enrollments in Utah's high schools

There is evidence of some interest in the teaching of psychology
Table 24. Detailed subject-matter analysis of seven high-school textbooks in psychology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics and subtopics</th>
<th>Per cent of 2,809 pages</th>
<th>Topics and subtopics</th>
<th>Per cent of 2,809 pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personality and interperson relationships:</td>
<td></td>
<td>Vocational guidance and adjustment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>Selecting a vocation</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love and marriage</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>Avocation, leisure time, home membership</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>Working efficiency</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental hygiene:</td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General adjustment</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>Social problems:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotions</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>Crime</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child guidance</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>Social attitudes</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>Propaganda</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological foundations:</td>
<td></td>
<td>Introduction:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anatomy and physiology</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Pseudo-psychology</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensation and perception</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>Psychology as a science</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heredity</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Statistics</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Engle, 1950a, p. 345.
at the high school level in Utah since 1900. The year 1921 marked the beginning of separate instruction in psychology in the schools of Utah. During that year the state had 1.5 per cent of all secondary students pursuing the subject, compared to the continental United States percentage of 0.9 for the same year (United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, 1925). For the school year 1933-1934, the enrollment changed little, with Utah's enrollment in psychology numbering 15 students for a full-year course and 434 students registered for a half-year course in four high schools reporting out of a possible forty-eight (United States Department of Interior, Office of Education, 1938).

In 1950 no appreciable percentage difference from previous years was seen in high school enrollments in psychology in the state of Utah. The status of psychology in Utah's high schools compared to other states is presented in Table 25.

As indicated in Table 25, only one Utah high school out of 75 taught psychology. There was no indication of which Utah high school offered the course in psychology in 1950, although the size of the high school was reported as being "small." The states of Arkansas and Kentucky reported 25.0 per cent of their high schools teaching the subject. Engle (1951) reported there was a tendency in the nation for psychology to be taught more commonly in large high schools than in small schools.

The enrollment of public secondary students in psychology in Utah from 1960-1961 showed some increase. Psychology was taught in 21 of the high schools reporting with a half-year enrollment of 2,240 students compared to a full-year enrollment of 539 students (United
Table 25. States in which psychology is taught in high schools, number and per cent of high schools in which psychology is taught, and sizes of high schools in which it is usually taught, 1950-1951

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Number of high schools in state (as reported by State Department)</th>
<th>High schools teaching psychology</th>
<th>Size of high schools in which psychology is usually taught</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>Large</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>429</td>
<td>(125)</td>
<td>(25.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colorado</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>(26)</td>
<td>(6.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idaho</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>&quot;Few&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illinois</td>
<td>903</td>
<td>(14)</td>
<td>(1.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indiana</td>
<td>750</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iowa</td>
<td>845</td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(11.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kansas</td>
<td>669</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>(150)</td>
<td>(25.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maine</td>
<td>248</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Massachusetts</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michigan</td>
<td>687</td>
<td>&quot;Infrequently&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minnesota</td>
<td>530</td>
<td>(25)</td>
<td>(4.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>636</td>
<td>(64)</td>
<td>(10.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montana</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nebraska</td>
<td>537</td>
<td>(40)</td>
<td>(7.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nevada</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 25. Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Number of high schools in state (as reported by State Department)</th>
<th>High schools teaching psychology&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Size of high schools in which psychology is usually taught</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Hampshire</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Jersey</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Mexico</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>(6)</td>
<td>(1.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New York</td>
<td>826</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>959</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Dakota</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ohio</td>
<td>1,400</td>
<td>(28)</td>
<td>(2.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>821</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>381</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>1,183</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utah</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vermont</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>(1.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>515</td>
<td>(29)</td>
<td>(10.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washington</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Virginia</td>
<td>281</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Engle, 1951, p. 468.

<sup>a</sup>Figures in parentheses are approximate or the expression of opinion.

In Utah high schools where the subject is taught it is offered as an elective. In the Salt Lake City public schools the subject of psychology was designed to coincide with sociology, each for a one-semester class to be taken during one of the senior high school years (Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1964e).

The high schools of Utah which have not offered psychology as a separate subject of instruction may present psychological material in connection with other courses. The most frequently mentioned courses on topics in which psychological material is taught are:

- Home economics, homemaking, family relations;
- Social studies, social problems, human relations, sociology;
- American government, American problems, problems of democracy, civics, citizenship;
- Health and physical education;
- Life-adjustment, boy-girl relationships, personal development. (Engle, 1952, p. 34)

State and district courses of study in psychology

The first instructions provided for teachers of psychology in Utah was contained in a publication by the Salt Lake City Public Schools in 1921:

Psychology in the high school is taken up from the biological point of view, regarding consciousness not as a metaphysical entity to be investigated apart from other things, but rather as one among many manifestations of organic life to be understood properly only where regarded in connection with life phenomena. As such, it will afford a valuable rounding out of the study of physiology and contribute in an effective way to the training in pedagogy, of which subject it is an integral part. It is, therefore, recommended for all those who are looking forward to the profession of teaching. (Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1921, p. 37)

With the major emphasis upon the biological rather than the social...
sciences this instruction marked the beginning in 1921 of separate instruction in psychology in Utah secondary schools.

In 1925, a supplement entitled "Character Education" was published by the State Board of Education to accompany the Utah State Course of Study for Elementary and High Schools. The Utah publication was influenced by the National Education Association Character Education Committee Report of Progress, June 1924. The aspects of physical and psychological characteristics of childhood were emphasized. Individual differences were to be recognized in each of the twelve grades of the public school with "character development" stressed in the instruction of literature, mathematics, foreign languages, science, commercial subjects, physical education, music, etc. (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1925). The emphasis in this state course of study was character education but the importance of various elements associated with psychology were recognized.

A second publication on character education entitled Character Education, Supplement to the Utah State Course of Study for Elementary and High Schools was published in 1929. This course of study was more detailed than the 1925 publication. References in the Utah publication were from the United States Bureau of Education publication No. 7 (1926) entitled "Character Education." The areas of personality, psychological principles basic to character education, and physical traits of later childhood were outlined for each subject taught in the elementary and secondary schools of Utah (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1929).

The current course of study in psychology in the Salt Lake City
public schools was prepared in 1964 and has been a one-semester elective course. The course was designed for one-half year and to be correlated with sociology, also a one-half year course. Five resource units for teacher use and a suggested time schedule were included:

Unit I. Psychology and the Scientific Method 2 weeks
Unit II. Learning 4 weeks
Unit III. Patterns of Behavior 4 weeks
Unit IV. Motivation 4 weeks
Unit V. Disorders of Behavior 3 weeks
Review, Semester Final Exam 1 week
(Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1964e, p. 51)

The 1964 course of study in psychology in Salt Lake City public schools contained an overview, outline, suggested text assignments, activities, skills, concepts and generalizations, suggested audio-visual materials, and bibliography listing for each of the major units. The periodical bibliography listed the following periodicals in the field of psychology, available for student use at the University of Utah library:

The American Behavioral Scientist
The American Child
American Council of Learned Societies
American Journal of Psychology
Behavior Science
British Journal of Educational Psychology
British Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology
Canadian Journal of Psychology
Canadian Psychologist
Journal of Experimental Psychiatry
Journal of Industrial Psychology
Journal of Parapsychology
Journal of Personality
Journal of Social Studies
Journal of Experimental Analysis of Behavior
Mental Hygiene
Mind (a quarterly review of psychology and philosophy)
Philosophical Review
Problems of Psychology
Psychological Record
Psychometria
(Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1964e, Appendix I)
Current issues in teaching psychology

With psychology in one form or another being taught in secondary schools in Utah and the nation there are differences of opinion as to whether psychology should be taught more as a separate subject or as part of an integrated social studies or social science curriculum. On the basis of a 1960 questionnaire sent to 390 superintendents, principals, and high school teachers of psychology throughout the nation, the reasons given for not teaching psychology as a separate subject were: (1) an already crowded curriculum, (2) a lack of trained teachers, and (3) a trend toward more intense development of science (Coffield and Engle, 1960). While the first two reasons are true enough, Lucas (1963) pointed out that there exists

... wide agreement among psychologists that regardless of whether psychology is taught as a scientific course with heavy emphasis on the biological, or as a social studies course with emphasis on good emotional adjustment, the scientific nature of the course should be stressed. (Lucas, 1963, p. 524)

Psychologists then are no longer debating about whether psychology should be included in the secondary curriculum, since this seems to be an accomplished fact. Rather, there is an increasing interest in offering assistance to high school teachers of psychology who are cut off from the mainstream of professional psychology. With the choice of textbooks, teaching aids, reading materials, and other supplementary aids for the high school teacher there is needed a closer relationship between the professional organizations of psychology and the secondary schools (Lucas, 1963).

Among the problems associated with the teaching of high school psychology is the lack of supplementary reading materials. Because
of the relatively recent introduction of psychology into most secondary schools the number of volumes in school libraries is scant or non-existent. Engle (1955) reported that in addition to textbooks and workbooks that secondary teachers of psychology use magazines and newspapers for supplementary reading, with 93 per cent of the teachers using psychological articles in newspapers and 90 per cent using psychological articles in popular magazines. Magazines reported being frequently mentioned were: Reader's Digest, Saturday Evening Post, Life, Collier's, Ladies' Home Journal, Look, Coronet, Time, Woman's Home Companion, and Science Digest. Engle (1955) commented that very few teachers make use of the professional journals published by the American Psychological Association and that journals like the Journal of Applied Psychology, Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, and American Psychologist Journal are virtually unknown to secondary teachers.

Elder (1967) reported recent consultation and assistance to teachers of psychology in the high schools by the American Psychological Association, through one of its standing committees, which compiled a list of readings designed to meet the needs of high school students and perhaps to simplify the problems of their instructors. The list consisted entirely of paperbacks and did not include textbooks. While the selection of an appropriate reading list for the high school course was complicated by a number of factors, one group suggested the following titles: Huxley, Brave New World; Golding, Lord of the Flies; Orwell, 1984 and Animal Farm; Salinger, Catcher in the Rye; and Schulberg, What Makes Sammy Run. Representing the "tough-minded" school, another group suggested: Hebb, The Organization of Behavior; Kohler, Gestalt
Psychology is occupying a larger place in the curriculum of the secondary schools of Utah. Despite the fact that psychology appears to be accepted as having merit as a secondary school subject, there seems to be little uniformity regarding its exact role. Additional problems exist regarding the relation of psychology to the over-all social studies area.
Sociology and anthropology in the public schools

Sociology and anthropology are among the newest of the social sciences to find recognition in both the elementary and secondary schools. Many professional educators have watched the rapid growth of these subjects over the last several decades with unquestioning approval. The values that have been claimed for them are in some respects unique and demonstrate expansion of research, school enrollments, and the scope of application in every-day concerns. There has been a marked reshaping of older social disciplines and a coming of age of newer ones. These new excursions into the study of man and his social relationships have profoundly influenced thought and action. Nowhere has the impact been felt more directly than in the social studies programs of the secondary schools.

Sociology

Sociology first made an appearance in the high school curriculum following the establishment of the subject as a field of study in colleges and universities of the nation. Yale University offered the first college course in sociology in 1873. Other universities and colleges soon followed in establishing similar courses (Bernard, 1945).

Elements which were incorporated into the subject-area of sociology had an earlier existence separately or as parts of other subjects. Significant aspects of society which were left-overs from classical
disciplines came into existence as the subject of sociology. The synthesizing of these scattered elements by August Compte, who is regarded as the founder of sociology, along with Herbert Spencer and others, tended to make the subject more scientific. With the passing of time, according to Wesley (1942), sociology achieved a somewhat definite content and various elements were incorporated into the school curriculum.

After 1892 sociology became an accredited university subject (Small, 1916). University sociologists were not ready, however, to recommend the introduction of sociology into the nation's high schools. In 1894, thirty-four leading sociologists throughout the country presented a unified statement that the subject did not belong in the college preparatory school. Three sociologists stated that the subject below the university level would be of doubtful utility due mainly to lack of suitable texts. Only two sociologists of the group presented enthusiastic recommendations for a course in sociology in a college preparatory institution (Hotchkiss, 1929).

By 1911, seventeen years later, sociology was being taught as a separate subject in at least two high schools (Gillette, 1913). During the next four or five years single experiments throughout the country were carried out in the teaching of sociology. The decade between 1918 and 1928 saw a "... steady increase in the number of high schools offering sociology, and offers a reasonably safe basis for the conclusion that sociology has been in general, slowly but steadily increasing in favor as a high school subject." (Hotchkiss, 1929, p. 112)

Certain definite features characteristic of the development of
sociology in the high school were reported by Hotchkiss. These were:

(1) Educational authorities began to awaken to the value of sociology in the high school shortly after the subject became established as a field of instruction in universities and colleges.

(2) There has been a definite trend toward formal instruction in sociology in the high school in the last ten years, [1918-1920] and there has been a steady increase in the offering of the subject year by year. (Hotchkiss, 1929, p. 404)

Values claimed for sociology. In a study of early textbooks used in sociology in the secondary schools of Utah, certain values of sociology as a school subject were brought to light. The values to be discovered in the study of sociology according to Ellwood were "... mastery over life and its conditions; and hence its practical aim is nothing less than to replace the policy of drift which our civilization has thus far largely followed in social matters ..." (Ellwood, 1910, pp. 27-28). Towne claimed the following values of sociology:

... to bring before the students of social problems these facts regarding present-day conditions; to indicate certain weaknesses in our social order; to show what had already been done and is being done toward the elimination of these weaknesses; and to impress upon these students, through the presentation of such facts, the possibilities of wise, sane, constructive, social action. (Towne, 1916, p. viii)

Although Ellwood and Town's texts were two of the most widely used in the subject, the mere citing of these values did not guarantee that they were all realized in high school sociology courses (Dawson, 1926). The authors considered them as objectives to be accomplished. Considered as values, they furnished a point of departure for setting up objectives.

In addition to claimed values of sociology from textbooks, the values desired by students enrolled in one course in sociology included: (1) help him to socialize; (2) prepare to become better
citizen; (3) give him a desire to participate in social problems; (4) broaden vision in social service; (5) provide basis of rights and duties; (6) gain proper balance and adjustment to life; (7) provide aid in selection of proper mates; and (8) increase efficiency in business (Bain, 1926).

**Sociology in Utah's high schools.** Sociology as a subject of study in Utah's high schools has had a short career. It is one of the newest of the new subjects which has been introduced into the high school program in recent years. The first high school class of sociology in Utah was offered in 1913. Just two years before, in 1911, the subject was first taught in two high schools in the United States, one in Hammond, Indiana, and the other in Jacksonville, Illinois (Gillette, 1913).

The 1913 high school sociology class in Utah was described as "... an elementary course dealing with the more vital aspects of the subject as related to local and national conditions." (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1913, p. 43) Five years later the subject was offered as a full-year course in grade twelve (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1918). The percent of Utah's secondary students pursuing the study of sociology during 1921-1922 was 6.6 compared to the continental United States' 2.4 percent (United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, 1925).

During the first two decades of its existence as an independent subject in the high schools of the state, sociology made fairly respectable progress. For example, during 1933-1934 the Utah secondary students enrolled in sociology had increased to 10.2 percent. The enrollment was generally for a half-year course (United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, 1938). The year 1933 marked
the time when sociology, as an independent subject of study in the nation's high schools, attained maturity, when judged by the number of high schools throughout the nation in which it was offered or by the number of pupils pursuing it (Tryon, 1935).

When sociology entered the high schools as an independent subject of study it had been taught in the universities and colleges of the nation for only thirty-five years. Other factors responsible for the slow infiltration of sociology into the schools were: (1) teachers were not prepared to teach the subject due to lack of professional training; (2) lack of agreement among college people that the subject should be taught on a high school level; (3) general lack of understanding among school boards, administrators, and the public as to the benefits of the subject; (4) an overcrowded condition of the high school curriculum when sociology sought admission; and (5) sociology as a separate subject had not been emancipated from being incorporated with history, political science, and economics until the 1920's and 1930's (Tryon, 1935).

When present-day class offering of problems in American democracy was first suggested for Utah schools in 1930, the various disciplines of sociology, economics, and political science were considered. Since that date sociology has had to dwell in the same house with economics and political science. While it achieved some success, from the 1930's to the 1960's no perceptible rise has taken place. During 1960-1961 twenty-five secondary schools in Utah reported separate enrollments in sociology numbering 2,656 students, with a majority of these registered for a half-year course (United States Office of Health, Education and Welfare, 1965). It seems reasonable to conclude that the subject has
attained little significance in the curriculum, except as part of the
course on problems in American democracy.

The content of sociology textbooks on the secondary school level.
From the beginnings of sociology as a high school subject, the content
of sociology textbooks can be determined, to some degree, by the books
used in the classroom. Evidence is lacking as to how these textbooks
were used in the classroom. The content of sociology, prior to becom-
ing a separate subject, was largely a part of the course in community
civics found in the last grade of the traditional eight-year elementary
school or the first year of the traditional four-year high school. A
study by Dickerson of ten civics textbooks in the 1920's was found to
contain some sociology:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Crime, punishment</td>
<td>.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charity, poverty</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The family</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorce</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child labor</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women in industry</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 2.78

(Dickerson, 1924, p. 398)

Only 2.78 per cent of the content of the civics textbooks examined was
differentiated as being within the scope of sociology. With the pas-
sage of time a small demand was created and texts in the field of
sociology began to appear.

Examination of the textbooks recommended for use in the schools
of Utah by the Utah Department of Public Instruction will provide some
picture of the content of courses in the high schools. The following
list of texts in sociology from 1913 to 1930 is thought to be repre-
sentative of the period. Books for the course on problems in American
democracy are not included.


2. Mosiah Hall, A Practical Sociology (1918) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1918b, p. 97.

3. Edwin A. Kirkpatrick, Fundamentals of Sociology (1916) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1918b, p. 97.

4. Ezra T. Towne, Social Problems (1916) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1923b, p. 51.

5. Edward A. Ross, Civic Sociology (1925) recommended by the Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1930, p. 27.

All of these textbooks except Kirkpatrick's Fundamentals of Sociology were listed in the publication Historical Outlook (a journal for readers and teachers of history and the social studies) in 1926 as being some of the "Leading Grade XII Texts." (Dawson, 1926, p. 187) No two sociology textbooks agreed completely in their choice of materials.

The chapter-outline of Ellwood's Sociology and Modern Social Problems (1910) provides information as to the general nature of content.

I. The Study of Society
II. The Bearing of the Theory of Evolution Upon Social Problems
III. The Bearing of Modern Psychology Upon Social Problems
IV. Primary Groups: The Function of the Family in Human Society
V. The Origin of the Family
VI. The Forms of the Family
VII. The Historical Development of the Family
VIII. The Problems of the Modern Family
IX. The Growth of Population
X. The Immigration Problem
XI. The Negro Problem
XII. The Problems of the City
XIII. Poverty and Pauperism
XIV. Crime
XV. Socialism in the Light of Sociology
XVI. Education and Social Progress
(Ellwood, 1910, table of contents)
This chapter-outline by Ellwood was adopted in 1913 for use in Utah and probably served as a basis for textbook teaching with little or no use of supplementary materials. Such topics as poverty, pauperism, crime, population, immigration, the Negro, and heredity received liberal space. The major emphasis, however, was the family which occupied about twenty-five per cent of the entire book.

Mosiah Hall, state high school inspector for Utah, was author of the text *A Practical Sociology* (1918). This book was essentially different from traditional texts in the field. The theme of the book was presented in the opening sentence: "What is wrong with the modern home?" A semidramatic method of conversation is carried out by two neighbors (Mr. Pessimo and Mr. Optime) in a discussion which is controversial in character, first negative and then affirmative, with the decision usually left to the students themselves. In the preface the teacher is counseled by the author to "... keep hands off and allow the students to discuss first one side, then the other, encouraging them to hunt up data of their own." (Hall, 1918, preface) Some of the controversial topics included divorce, bondage of women, marriage, sex education, morality, poverty, and pauperism.

Kirkpatrick's *Fundamentals of Sociology* (1916) attempted to approach the study of sociology from both a scientific and a practical view with topics entitled: evolution, biological view of human development, psychological view of behavior, economic needs, moral and religious needs, and educational needs of society. The book was designed for student reading, discussion, research; each chapter had questions to be answered.

A brief analysis of Towne's *Social Problems* (1916) revealed it
was primarily a summary of the "ills of society" with topics of: population, child labor, women in industry, the sweating system, unemployment, crime, the liquor problem, poverty, and divorce. Wesley (1942, p. 198) described the sociology books of this period: "The typical student was likely to complete the course with a feeling that the times were out of joint and that neither he nor anyone else knew how to set them right."

The book by Ross, Civic Sociology (1925), was designed for training in citizenship or civics through the study of social problems. Such chapters as standards of social distinction, willing obedience to law, independence, and freedom of speech, were an attempt by the author to recapture some of the lost idealism of the fathers of the republic. Both social and civic problems were the chief concerns of this author, which was the customary approach before principles in sociology assumed a definite form.

In 1929 an analysis of textbooks in sociology intended for use in the nation's high schools was made. Nine texts were used in the analysis. The major topic-headings, number of pages, and per cent of total pages devoted to each topic in the nine textbooks analyzed are shown in Table 26.

The topics in Table 26 had the following significance:

Under the first heading there is a considerable range of material. Social theories, origins, objectives and subject-matter are usually discussed. . . .

Material that is classified as economics forms one of the largest items. In several cases a chapter or more is devoted directly to economics. In others, it is used as a background to various social problems such as poverty and dependence. . . .

Under the topic, "Growth of Population," migration, immigration, birth and death rates and the growth of cities
Table 26. Number and per cent of pages devoted to certain topics by nine textbooks in sociology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Total pages devoted to</th>
<th>Percent of grand total of pages devoted to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General, social theory and origins</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>15.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics</td>
<td>459</td>
<td>14.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defectives, crime, poverty</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>12.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civic problems</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>11.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth of the population</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>11.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family origins and problems</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>9.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>9.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>7.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race problems</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>3.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural problems</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heredity and environment</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evolution and psychology</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


are treated. In considering cities, only the factors bearing upon the congestion of the population are considered. Social problems caused by overcrowding, the ability of man to live in great cities and problems peculiar to urban populations are considered under civic problems.

The negro problem constitutes the large part of the pages allotted to race problems. In one text the Chinese and Japanese problem is considered under race problems, in other texts it is treated under migration.

Evolution and psychology are found in a separate heading in only one text. They are used as a background for social origins and customs.

Education and government are considered largely as social agencies. Their connection with social problems is very close but the difference was great enough to warrant a separate classification. (Tryon, 1935, pp. 390-392)

In a number of analyses of high school textbooks in sociology during the 1920's and 1930's it was claimed by Professor Tryon,
(1935, p. 393) "... that a distinctive content for the subject has never been found." In 1951 Professor Hobbs claimed in his analysis on 129 sociology textbooks which were published between 1926 and 1951 that there existed a strong tendency in textbook content toward presenting material in practical terms. Hobbs suggested that some 70 per cent of the chapters were devoted to economic problems, family relationships, education, war, personality, and other topics having a practical relationship to personal experience and concrete social circumstances. The study by Hobbs revealed the following emphasis and trends in topics of sociology textbooks:

1. Personality Formation and Motivation
   a. Cultural, biological, or geographic determinism
   b. Freudian and allied interpretations
   c. Goals of personality development

2. Educational Institutions
   a. Progressive versus traditional educational theories
   b. Goals of the educational process

3. Economic Institutions
   a. Competitive enterprise
   b. Alternatives or goals

4. Governmental Institutions
   a. Definition of democracy
   b. Democracy as a form of government
   c. Existence and significance of social and economic classes
   d. Goals of political organization

5. The Family
   a. Functions
   b. Monogamy
   c. Sex differences
   d. Sex education
   e. Duties and responsibilities of partners in marriage
   f. Divorce—causes; and significance of increased rate
   g. Disorganization and divorce—remedies
   h. Goals relative to family relationships
6. Social Controls
   a. Nature of moral codes
   b. Goals relative to social controls
   c. Efficacy of religious belief as a form of social control

7. Social Disorganization
   a. Definition
   b. Causes
   c. Remedies

8. War
   a. Causes of war
   b. Effects of war
   c. Remedies for war

9. Social Change
   a. Definition
   b. Moral or social values involved
   c. Leaders, nature of and role
   d. Goals of social change
     (Hobbs, 1951, pp. 6-7)

According to Hobbs, practical topics which constituted the bulk of material in sociology texts, were more likely to influence the student. From his textbook comparisons the following trends were noted:
(1) Marked increases occurred in references to other introductory texts and to family and social problems texts. Cultural anthropology, population, race relations, and government references also showed pronounced increases; (2) Marked decreases appeared in relationship to theory, philosophy, biology, and social work. References to studies from the fields of economics, and history also appeared to be decreasing (Hobbs, 1951).

Sociology textbooks adopted for use in Utah schools from the 1930's to the 1960's were generally listed for the twelfth grade under a variety of headings which included sociology, problems in American life, social studies, and America's social and economic problems. The textbook titles for the past four decades indicate the increasing influence of sociology
as a basis for explanation and interpretation of life and society.

Listed below is a sampling from each of the four decades including year recommended, author, book title, and date published.

1939—Paul H. Landis and Judson T. Landis, Social Living (1938)
   Edward A. Ross, Civic Sociology (1925)
   Walter G. Beach and Edward E. Walker, Social Problems and Social Welfare (1937)
   R. W. Gavian, A. A. Gray, and E. R. Groves, Our Changing Social Order (1939)
   James A. Quinn, The Social World (1937)
   E. E. Walker, W. G. Beach, and O. G. Jamison, American Democracy and Social Change (1938)

1943—Paul H. Landis and Judson T. Landis, Social Living (1941)
   James A. Quinn and Arthur Repka, Living in the Social World (1942)
   Emory S. Bogardus and Robert H. Lewis, Social Life and Personality (1938)
   Paul H. Landis, Our Changing Society (1942)

1947—Paul H. Landis and Judson T. Landis, Social Living (1945)
   James A. Quinn and Arthur Repka, Living in the Social World (1942)
   Emory S. Bogardus and Robert H. Lewis, Social Life and Personality (1938)

   Joseph L. Arnold, Challenges to American Youth (1950)

1955—Claude C. Crawford, Living Your Life (1953)

1959—Paul H. Landis, Social Living (1958)

1963—William D. Cole and Charles S. Montgomery, High Schools Sociology (1963)
   Paul H. Landis, Social Living (1961)
   James A. Quinn, Living in Social Groups (1962)

1967—Ruth W. Gavian and Robert Rienow, Our Changing Social Order (1964)
   Marvin R. Koller and Harold C. Couse, Modern Sociology (1965)

(Based on textbook adoption publications of the Utah Department of Public Instruction for the years indicated)
After examination of these textbooks it would seem that a sociological emphasis took place in selection of certain topics rather than others. The so-called practical topics that Hobbs referred to were presented in the textbooks which were used in the courses most frequently offered and which were most popular. A marked increase in the number of pictures was noticeable with the later texts. The major topics of personality, economic problems, family relationships, education, war, etc., presented an over-all coverage of the topics emphasized in sociology textbooks during the past several decades.

Most twelfth grade textbooks for problems in American democracy followed the recommendation of the Social Studies Committee Report of 1916. The textbook contents were usually from the fields of sociology, political science, and economics. Although each textbook varied in content, some contrast was provided between a text used in Utah schools during the early 1960's with a recommended sociology outline. Patterson and Little's *Problems in American Democracy* (1961) contained a section on the social aspects of modern life which draws heavily from the field of sociology. This portion of the text is compared with Professor Tryon's suggested outline for social problems for the high school in the 1930's and is shown in Table 27.

The major topics of economic problems, family relations, education, population, slums, and personality were strikingly similar between Tryon's suggested outline and the sociology section of the text *Problems in American Democracy*.

*Sociology courses of study in Utah.* The senior year was designated for a one-half year course of elementary sociology in 1913. Ellwood's *Sociology and Modern Social Problems* (1910) was the designated textbook.
Table 27. A comparison of a high school text containing a section from the field of sociology with an outline for a high school class in social problems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patterson and Little's Problems in American Democracy (1961), section from the field of sociology</th>
<th>Tryon's suggested outline for the high school class in social problems, 1935</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Part Three: Social Aspects of Modern Life</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Our Diverse and Increasing Population</td>
<td>I. The Study of Society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. The Serious Problem of Crime</td>
<td>III. Problems of the Family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Helping the Physically and Mentally Handicapped</td>
<td>IV. Problems of Sanitation and Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Physical Fitness and Public Health</td>
<td>V. Problems of the State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Eliminating Slums and Modernizing Homes</td>
<td>VI. American Race Problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Education, Recreation, and Leisure</td>
<td>VII. Problems of Organized Industry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Good Family Life for Social Stability</td>
<td>VIII. Problems of Poverty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IX. Problems of Crime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>X. Prohibition and the Liquor Problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>XI. Problems of Defectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>XII. Problems of Religion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>XIII. The Problems of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>XIV. Social Progress</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Patterson and Little, 1961, table of contents; Tryon, 1935, pp. 392-393.
Instructions to the teacher on the subject, which were normally provided in a course of study, were absent (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1913).

The course of study for sociology in the senior high school in 1918 stated,

Traditional sociology touches the vital life interests of the students only very indirectly but there are social problems that lie at the very feet of young men and women in school, the discussion and solution of which constitute the foundation of social activity and good citizenship. (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1918b, p. 98)

These instructions were emphasizing the point that content of the class was not the question, but the adoption to the needs of the students was important for purposes of citizenship. Areas to be covered in the sociology course included the following:

1. The modern home—its weakness; how it differs from the old home; social obligations it is shirking; its strength; better children with brighter outlook; a more wholesome contribution to social welfare; chief problems confronting the home.

2. Social status to-day and evidences of human advancement. There are still those among us, who, looking backwards pay undue homage to the "good old days." Such a frame of mind engenders pessimism and breaks down the buoyant hopefulness of youth. Any study of sociology should emphasize the steady advance of society. Incidentally this will lead to some interesting comparative studies, and if properly conducted will leave in the mind of the student an optimistic attitude toward life and its difficulties.

3. The divorce evil. A study of the underlying causes of divorce; what divorce really indicates and foreshadows; the hope of the future respecting divorce;

4. The bondage of woman; her emancipation at hand. This will lead to study of the position of woman in human society, and should reveal the fact that her position has been steadily improving. It should set emphatically before the students the present relation of woman to the society about her, and her equality with man in civic and industrial affairs. It should concern itself with the influence of democratic institutions upon the development of woman's rights.

5. The Roman family. The relation of women to the society about her in the Roman world will make an interesting comparative study when set side by side with the woman of to-day and her relation to society.
suggested a combination of citizenship (1/2 unit) and sociology (1/2 unit) or 1 unit combination of the two subjects for the twelfth grade. Ellwood's Sociology and Modern Social Problems (1910) was the basic sociology textbook used in Utah, with supplementary readings from Towne's Social Problems (1916), Hughes' Problems of Democracy (1922), Munro and OZanne's Social Civics (1922), Morehouse and Graham's American Problems (1923), and Long's Government and the People (1922). The only suggestion provided for the teaching of the course was that "Special emphasis should be given to problems that have local or contemporary interest. In this connection use should be made of current newspapers and magazines." (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1923b, pp. 51-52)

In 1930 the combined and correlated subjects of sociology, ethical principals, and economics were to be given in one class, or a student choice of three consecutive courses in each of the three subjects was to be provided. Instructions in the course of study for 1930 were minimal in considering teaching methods and materials for sociology. Ross' Civic Sociology (1925) was the basic textbook, with Burch and Patterson's Problems of American Democracy (1922) suggested as a general reference text (Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1930).

One of the most complete courses of study in sociology on the high school level appeared in 1946. Produced by the Salt Lake City public schools it was entitled A Guide to Activities in Sociology. The course was designed as a separate course in sociology for either one-half or a full year. Each unit of study contained a teacher overview, suggestions for student attitudes and interests to be developed,
initiatory activities, student understandings to be developed, references of textbooks and motion pictures, student activities, culminating activities, student understandings to be developed, references of textbooks and motion pictures, student activities, culminating activities, and sample tests (Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1946).

Current courses of study. In 1964, a course of study in sociology was prepared by the Salt Lake City public schools. The course consisted of six resource units designed for teacher use in the one-semester elective sociology course. The course was suggested for students during one of their senior high years. A time schedule for the units was:

- **Unit I. Society** ....... ....... 3 weeks
- **Unit II. Culture** ........ 3 weeks
- **Unit III. Social Institutions and Structure** .. 3 weeks
- **Unit IV. Social Problems and Disorganization** .. 3 weeks
- **Unit V. The Contemporary American Family** . .. 3 weeks
- **Unit VI. Building a Better Society** ........ 2 weeks

(Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1964a, Introduction)

In grade twelve sociology took its place in the social studies program of the Granite School District. Through the knowledge and insight gained in secondary social studies courses students were to be prepared to make a scientific study of contemporary, individual and group relationships. The units of study in this semester course were:

- **Unit I. Introduction** ........ 1 to 2 weeks
- **Unit II. Man and His Environment** .... 1 to 3 weeks
- **Unit III. Culture--The Man Made World** .. 1 to 3 weeks
- **Unit IV. The Group and the Individual** .. 1 to 3 weeks
- **Unit V. Man in Society** ........ 2 to 4 weeks
- **Unit VI. Problem Areas in Contemporary Society** ........ 7 to 9 weeks
- **Unit VII. Conclusion** ........ 1/2 to 1 week

(Granite School District, 1963b, p. 2-8-3)

The new emphasis on the study of human relations since the turn of the century was reflected in the curriculums of the secondary public schools of Utah. Important developments in the past years have brought
about increased study of sociology especially at the high school level. Introduced at first only by larger schools, and even there rather hesitantly, it has grown in popularity until its inclusion in the curriculum is beginning to make inroads.

Anthropology

Within the social sciences, probably no one discipline has received as much attention of late as has the field of anthropology. This attention has come from educators, students, and from the public in general. One reason for the growth of anthropology with its accumulated knowledge of colorful societies is that it affords the students an opportunity to study both the range of human motivations and the varying solutions that men have devised for the problems of existence. A second reason for increased interest in anthropological ideas is that it is a synthesizing subject which pulls together seemingly unrelated parts of human behavior.

It has been said that anthropology spans virtually all the established fields of knowledge, embracing the study of man in the natural sciences, the biological sciences, the social sciences and the humanities. Anthropology can be regarded as a field of knowledge which ranges freely over other areas of study and makes alliances with scholars and scientists of all areas of study. Kraesteff, referring to anthropology as a field with few boundaries and many frontiers, stated:

History relies on the written record which does not go beyond 4,000 B. C.; political science deals with institutions man has created and expression of power; economics studies man's mode of production, distribution and consumption of goods; sociology relies on sampling techniques and concentrates largely on American society; and psychology studies man's behavior or mind.

The intellectual achievement of each of these has been great but particularistic while anthropology looks at man across the ages from the Pleistocene to the present. (Kraesteff, 1961, p. 8)
Kroeber (1959, p. 404) stated that "... anthropology was originally not a social science at all. Its father was natural science; its mother, aesthetically tinged humanities." However, once it had come of age, anthropology formed a liaison with the social sciences that one must at least liken to a common law marriage. Beals and Hoijer (1959, p. 16) have expressed the fact that "... anthropology is commonly, and quite correctly, regarded as a social science, with primary relations to disciplines like sociology, psychology, geography, economics and political science ... ."

Anthropology is traditionally defined as the study of man. Theoretically at least, no aspect of human behavior or of the environmental conditions which have contributed to the physical or cultural development of man is denied consideration. It is both a natural science and a social science in that the anthropologist is interested in man as a physical being as well as man as a social being (Beals and Hoijer, 1959).

Anthropology in the secondary schools. The development of concepts, methods of analysis, and data from the study of man in the field of anthropology is relevant to the secondary schools. Partly because of its position as a newcomer among the disciplines, anthropology has not yet become firmly established in the already crowded curriculum of the public secondary school system.

Some school systems have been making conscientious efforts to develop anthropological materials in the training of teachers and the development of teaching aids and student projects. The California State Central Committee on Social Studies, for example, took the first steps in 1956 to provide some contributions from anthropology in an instruc-
tional program. Another experimental program in the public schools of Dearborn, Michigan, was concerned with comparative social anthropology and developing in students an understanding of the ways in which the component parts of a culture interrelate and how the interrelationships affect culture change (Spindler, 1958b).

Gibson (1967) reported recent efforts at the University of Georgia for the development of a sequential curriculum in anthropology for grades one through seven to produce instructional materials on the subject. The place of anthropology in the high school curriculum was the primary concern of the Anthropology Curriculum Study Project, sponsored by the American Anthropological Association and supported financially by the National Science Foundation, which was established to develop units and materials for teachers and students with particular emphasis on United States and world history courses (Goodlad, 1964). The following recommendation by Spindler for the introduction of anthropological thinking in the public secondary schools is provided:

In the sophomore and junior years of high school, more complex understandings of the nature of cultural values and the way in which they motivate different kinds of behavior can be developed in the social-studies program. Students at this age can grasp the meaning of culture work in relation to each other, and how they support the values of the society.

At this level, it also becomes more feasible to present students with an analysis of the ways in which various social institutions, such as the family, the institutions of social control, and religious bodies, work in different societies to serve the same basic purposes. High-school students can grasp what younger children probably cannot: that although cultures and societies are highly diverse, the same parts exist in each of them, and basically for the same reasons. During the high-school years, the horizons of young people expand rapidly; these students can be introduced to the idea of cultural change, particularly to changes in the world areas where the impact of America and Europe has been the greatest. (Spindler, 1958a, p. 627)
Anthropology in Utah schools

The limited materials for the teaching of anthropology in the public schools of Utah is a reflection of the total picture throughout the nation. Hanvey (1965) reporting on the experimental work with anthropology in the social studies classes of the nation expressed the belief that there is some reason to believe that a "readiness" for anthropology in the public schools of the nation is approaching.
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The general purpose of this study was to trace the development of the social studies curriculum in the public secondary schools of Utah from 1847 to 1967. The sources considered in dealing with the development of secondary social studies content in the public schools of Utah for the past one hundred and twenty years were textbooks and courses of study used in the public secondary schools of the territory and state. The following questions served to guide the study: (1) What social studies textbooks were used in the public schools of Utah, and what was the general content of these books? (2) What prescriptions and guide lines did courses of study offer in the way of content selection and organization of social studies instruction? (3) What changes occurred in public school programs which reflected changes of attitudes about the social studies content or focus?

The social science disciplines which were considered as foundations of the social studies curriculum are: history, geography, civics (political science), economics, psychology, sociology, and anthropology. These disciplines reorganized for social studies instruction comprise the school subjects which were examined chronologically for the period, 1847-1967, to determine changes or trends in the school curriculum in Utah.

Thus the study: (1) preserves a history of the school subjects taught within the social studies curriculum of Utah schools, and (2) analyzes the events and developments which influenced the Utah social studies curriculum.
History

Utah was a religious colony from 1847 to 1849, but was organized as a territory in 1850 and remained in that status until 1896. During this period before statehood in 1896, the control of education in Utah was coordinated by the Mormon pioneers. These settlers soon after their arrival in 1847 established community schools. The subjects taught were reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, history, geography, etc.

In the broad subject area now called the social studies the introduction of United States history emerged as one of the early subjects in the Utah public schools. Both the content and size of history textbooks have been altered with the passage of time.

National committees in the United States have influenced the instructional content of history in Utah. The numerous committee recommendations from 1892 to 1916 had a particular influence upon history instruction, as well as other subjects in the social studies curriculum.

The growing importance of world history as a subject offering was reflected as an aftermath of the first world war. Between the 1930's and the 1960's, with emphasis upon international affairs and America's place in the world, student enrollments in Utah gained in United States history and world history.

Major changes in the state secondary school social studies program took place in 1911, 1937, 1944, and 1956. Specifically, these changes took the form of prescribed courses of study established by the State Board of Education with an accreditation for the high schools of the state. Periodic adjustments were made with a final adjustment to the school graduation requirements made in 1956. Amendments to the social studies program have remained unchanged from 1958 to 1967.
Geography

Geography as a subject of study has undergone considerable changes in Utah's school curriculum during the past 120 years of classroom instruction. With many subjects offered in the present-day curriculum, the study of geography in Utah, is as old as any other subject taught.

Many early American textbooks of geography during the first half of the nineteenth century stressed memorization rather than development of intelligence with textbook content consisting of many unrelated facts. Repeated efforts were made to improve American education by effecting changes in geography textbooks through the introduction of Pestalozzian methods based on a child's sense perceptions. By 1860 these changes included the study of maps, globes, drawings of the earth's physical features, and study of the pupil's home region.

Geography textbooks increased in availability, but from 1857 to 1896 Monteith, Guyot, and Appleton's books were most widely used in the Utah territory. From 1896 to 1967 a greater variety of textbooks in geography was evident from examination of the many textbooks placed on textbook adoption lists by the Utah Department of Public Instruction.

National developments from the Committee of Ten of the National Education Association in 1892 influenced Utah courses of study in geography as late as 1923. The 1916 report by the Committee of Social Studies by the National Education Association recommended a one-half year course of geography at the junior high school level. This course is common today in most Utah schools.

Civics

Materials about the constitution, government, law and patriotism
which are ordinarily considered as subject-matter in civics were taught in Utah schools from 1847 to about 1894, chiefly as a part of history. The first evidence of a separate subject offering of materials in civics in Utah's public schools was 1894. The study of civil government and other allied material associated with the field of political science owes its greatest debt, during the Utah territorial schools, to the field of American history.

On a national level various committee reports since 1892 by the American Political Science Association, American Historical Association, and the National Education Association have materially shaped school civics courses in Utah. Specifically, the Committee of Ten in 1892 greatly influenced the elementary and secondary schools of Utah with an expanded civics program; the Committee of Seven report in 1916 broadened the study of Community Civics with the study of family, home, school, and neighborhood in subject-matter, textbooks, and courses of study; and by 1930, the present-day problems of American democracy courses in Utah schools were established as a result of the National Social Studies Committee report in 1916.

**Economics**

Economics, formerly known as political economy, never enjoyed a large position in the school curriculum of Utah. After the 1880's when the term political economy fell into disuse and the simpler term economics came into use, the subject of economics became established as an independent subject. In 1903 the term political economy in Utah was replaced by the word economics in school instruction.

During the first three decades of the present century the subject
of economics gained a foothold in the program of studies in Utah schools. Certain important aspects of content were evident from the textbooks of that period. The over-all content was divided into the topics of production, consumption, distribution, and exchange.

In 1916 the National Committee on Social Studies recommended a culminating course of social studies to be placed in the twelfth or final year of high school and to include subject-matter from the fields of economics, political science, and sociology. This national development was instrumental in establishing in Utah, and much of the nation, the course of problems in American democracy, where the subject of economics was usually taught. In 1960 the American Economic Association appointed a National Task Force on Economic Education to discuss and promote additional economic understanding in the public schools.

According to the National Task Force on Economic Education in 1961 there was abundant evidence at hand which suggested that the level of economic literacy among citizen, teacher, and pupil was deplorably low. Economic education in Utah is weak with very few courses of study in evidence.

Psychology

Elements of psychology in Utah schools were found in other subject-matter and textbooks long before psychology became an independent and separate subject in 1921. Courses and course material with psychological content had been used in the schools but the emphasis had been upon science, physiology, hygiene, etc.

A very limited number of high school textbooks in psychology over the years have been placed on the state approved list which may be
evidence that this subject has not been too strongly pushed as a separate and independent subject in Utah schools. The limited number of suitable textbooks available in Utah is a reflection of the major weakness of high school psychology courses throughout the nation.

Due to the relatively recent introduction of psychology into most secondary schools, the number of good readings in libraries is scant. The need for increased interest in offering assistance to high school teachers of psychology with suitable textbooks, teaching aids, reading materials, and other supplementary aids by professional organizations of psychology is necessary to upgrade instruction.

The enrollment of public secondary students in Utah during 1960-1961 showed some increase in psychology, with twenty-one high schools reporting half-year enrollments. In Utah high schools where the subject is taught it is offered as an elective.

Sociology

Sociology first made an appearance in the nation's high school curriculum in 1911, following the establishment of the subject as a field of study in colleges and universities of the nation. Two years later, in 1913, the first high school class of sociology in Utah was offered. Elements which came to be identified with the subject-area of sociology had an earlier existence separately or as parts of other subjects.

The emerging of the present-day problems in American democracy course was suggested for Utah schools in 1930, which was to include elements from sociology, economics and political science. Since that date sociology as a subject has attained little significance in the
curriculum of the schools compared to other social studies with the exception of the course of problems in American democracy.

Anthropology

Some anthropology has been taught in Utah schools. Often, however, it has not been called by its name. Indians, Eskimos, Bushmen, and Pygmies are the standard topics in the various grades. The social studies textbooks for the secondary schools have drawn heavily on a history and geography content with behavioral sciences content not made explicit. There has been, in the past, little attempt to identify anthropological concepts or data.

The secondary teachers of Utah who instruct classes of world history, United States history, and other classes in the social studies have had limited materials designed especially for the teaching of anthropology. There are, nevertheless, materials available for teaching anthropology in the secondary schools even though it may not be explicitly organized as anthropology. The major challenge is for secondary school teachers to become more familiar with the concepts of anthropology in order that they may give greater emphasis to this important discipline.

The increasing interest in the inclusion of such subjects as sociology and anthropology in the curriculum of the public schools of Utah during the past five decades attest to the fact that the fullest use of subject-matter from these behavioral social disciplines has yet to be realized. The substance of these disciplines, however, has a great deal to offer to the student as he seeks to know himself better, the culture in which he lives, and the evolution of civilizations near and
far. The many frontiers in which sociology and anthropology have been affiliated, both past and present, have been examined from materials concerned with textbooks and courses of study in order to identify general trends in content and emphasis.

The social science and social studies education

The present century has seen much confusion as to indefinite meanings which have been attached to the term social studies. During these years both the terms social sciences and social studies have erroneously been used interchangeably.

The term social sciences is defined as "... those subjects that relate to the origin, organization, and development of human society, especially to man in his association with other men ..." (Bining and Bining, 1952, p. 1) The term social studies in contrast to the social sciences, "... are designed primarily for instructional purposes. They are those portions or aspects of the social sciences that have been selected and adapted for use in the school or in other instructional situations." (Wesley, 1942, p. 6) Another definition of the social studies is "... that part of the school's general education program which is concerned with the preparation of citizens for participation in a democratic society." (Shaver, 1967, p. 589) The social studies, by this definition as general education, are not limited to the social sciences as the only legitimate source of content but other independent sources are included as factors in creative curriculum work in the social studies.

The social sciences provide the foundations for the social studies and encompass those fields of research and study which are concerned
with the determination of human conduct. The social sciences and the social studies both deal with human relations. They are not rivals but can complement one's approach to the study of social process.

**Implications for educators**

Until recently, the selection of appropriate content for courses of study or instructional materials in the social studies was not a problem directly and keenly felt by teachers and administrators. For the most part, they accepted the pronouncements of national or regional committees. Among the most influential of these committees in the social studies field were the Committee of Ten, 1892; Committee of Seven, 1899; Committee of Eight, 1909; Committee of Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education by the National Education Association, 1916; and the American Political Science Association which sponsored the Committee of Eight, 1908, Committee of Five, 1911, and the Committee of Seven, 1916. The recommendations of these committees were the basis upon which the social studies courses in Utah were organized. The specific content of courses being prescribed by committee recommendation, textbook writers found it relatively easy to appeal to these authorities as justification of their content selection.

The traditional procedure suggested above had the disadvantage of increasing the rigidity of instruction in the social studies. The inevitable time-lag of what was being taught in school in contrast to a rapidly changing society occasioned the so-called "period of unrest" which brought forth increased recognition of individual differences
and adjustment of the social studies curriculum to current and local needs. In recent years the domination of the textbook has been challenged. Changes, too, within the social sciences and the social studies have forced school instruction in the subjects to go beyond, not only the textbooks, but also the classroom walls. Today, field trips, current events, community surveys, radio, television, and movies all give the social studies a new means and a new impetus toward continual readjustment to emerging and current realities.

All these, and other factors have increased tremendously in recent years the responsibilities and opportunities of individual teachers and educators in the selection of appropriate content for the social studies curriculum. Today, as never before, the making of the curriculum is in the hands of those who teach and directly administer it. Their challenge is to develop rationales for social studies curricula which take into account the changing natures of students, society, and the disciplines of social knowledge.

The social studies curriculum must be increasingly characterized by cross-fertilization and balance between the several disciplines which make up the social sciences. The goals or objectives of the social studies should be considered in terms of what the student should have, or be, or do, upon completion of high school. Arriving at a set of goals is not an easy task. One reason for this is the diversity of opinion in the society represented. Another difficulty is the variety of opinions among educators and representatives of the various social sciences as to the purposes of social studies education. In spite of difficulties, however, a set of objectives or goals has been established.
These goals are based on the needs and wishes of our society as observed, and upon social studies objectives suggested by various individuals and groups competent in the field of social studies. In a society where each citizen must make choices about a great variety of issues over and over again, a rationale in a social studies curriculum should help prepare students to make those choices.
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Utah Department of Public Instruction. 1951. Textbooks, 1951 Adoptions. State Board of Education, Salt Lake City, Utah. 15 p.


Whitney, Orson F. 1892-1904. History of Utah. George Q. Cannon and Sons, Salt Lake City, Utah. (Four volumes).


Appendix A

The Changing Physical Characteristics of History Textbooks

This appendix contains Tables 28 and 29 which are concerned with physical characteristics of older textbooks available to Utah territorial schools from 1847 to 1896 compared to recent history textbooks used in Utah from 1964 to 1966.
Table 28. The size of older American history textbooks available to Utah public schools from 1847 to 1896 compared to recent American history textbooks used in Utah from 1964 to 1966

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Book title</th>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Date published</th>
<th>Number of pages</th>
<th>Size of book in inches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elements of Useful Knowledge Containing a Historical and Geographical Account of the United States</td>
<td>Noah Webster</td>
<td>1806</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>4 x 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Premium History of the United States</td>
<td>Noah Webster</td>
<td>1830</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>3 3/4 x 5 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of the United States</td>
<td>Noah Webster</td>
<td>1832</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>3 3/4 x 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of the United States of America</td>
<td>Charles A. Goodrich</td>
<td>1832</td>
<td>428</td>
<td>4 x 7 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A History of the United States</td>
<td>Charles A. Goodrich</td>
<td>1833</td>
<td>536</td>
<td>4 x 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parley's Illustrations</td>
<td>Samuel G. Goodrich</td>
<td>1840</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>5 1/2 x 6 3/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pictorial History of America</td>
<td>Samuel G. Goodrich</td>
<td>1857</td>
<td>872</td>
<td>6 x 9 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brief History of the United States</td>
<td>A. S. Barnes</td>
<td>1876</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>5 x 7 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Popular Science Reader Containing Lessons and Selections in Natural History</td>
<td>James Monteith</td>
<td>1881</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>5 x 7</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Table 28. Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Book title</th>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Date published</th>
<th>Number of pages</th>
<th>Size of book in inches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Studies in English and American Literature Including the Revolutionary Period</td>
<td>Albert N. Raub</td>
<td>1882</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>5 x 7 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A History of the United States and Its people</td>
<td>Edward Eggleston</td>
<td>1888</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>5 x 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our Government</td>
<td>Jesse Macy</td>
<td>1890</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>5 x 7 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Story of Our Land and People</td>
<td>Glenn W. Moon</td>
<td>1964</td>
<td>760</td>
<td>6 1/2 x 9 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States History</td>
<td>Ruth W. Gavian</td>
<td>1965</td>
<td>915</td>
<td>7 1/4 x 9 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our Country's History</td>
<td>David S. Muzzey</td>
<td>1965</td>
<td>710</td>
<td>7 x 9 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of Our United States</td>
<td>Harold H. Ribling</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>672</td>
<td>7 1/2 x 8 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This Is America's Story</td>
<td>Harold B. Wilder</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>728</td>
<td>7 1/2 x 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Adventures of the American People</td>
<td>Henry F. Graff and John A. Krout</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>738</td>
<td>8 x 10 1/4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 29. A comparison of world history textbooks available to Utah public schools from 1847 to 1908 containing certain listed learning and teaching aids compared to world history textbooks used in Utah from 1964 to 1967

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Book title</th>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Date published</th>
<th>Preface</th>
<th>Table of Contents</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Summaries or review</th>
<th>Maps</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Index</th>
<th>Glossary</th>
<th>Pictures</th>
<th>Teacher's Manual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parley's Universal History</td>
<td>Goodrich</td>
<td>1874</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outlines of Roman History</td>
<td>Pelham</td>
<td>1893</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European History</td>
<td>Adams</td>
<td>1901</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A History of Rome</td>
<td>Botsford</td>
<td>1908</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living World History</td>
<td>Wallbank</td>
<td>1964</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World History, the Story of Man's Achievements</td>
<td>Habberton</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Story of Nations</td>
<td>Rogers, Adams and Brown</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our World Through the Ages</td>
<td>Platt</td>
<td>1967</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B

Park Collection of Geography Textbooks

This appendix contains a listing of textbooks on the subject of geography which are located in the Dr. John R. Park collection of the University of Utah. Dr. Park served as the first state superintendent of public instruction from 1896 to 1900. Some of these textbooks were used in the territorial schools of Utah. They are listed by the name of the author, date published, title of textbook and publisher.


A. Von Steinwehr (1870) Primary Geography, Wilson, Hinkle and Company.


James Monteith (1875) First Lessons in Geography, A. S. Barnes and Company.

James Monteith (1885) Barnes' Elementary Geography, A. S. Barnes and Company.

D. W. Warren (1875) A New Primary Geography, Cowperthwaite and Company.


Appendix C

High School Psychology Textbooks Analyzed By

T. L. Engle for Subject-Matter Content


VITA

George Oliver Rampton

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Dissertation: The Development of Secondary Social Studies Content in the Public Schools of Utah From 1847-1967

Major Field: Secondary Education

Biographical Information:

Personal Data: Born at Kenilworth, Utah, April 10, 1929, son of Verne W. and Ruth Bybee Rampton; married Carol Whatcott May 2, 1952; five children--Jason, Stephen, Gerald, Daryl, and Ronald.

Education: Attended elementary school in Kenilworth, Utah; graduated from Davis High School, Kaysville, Utah, in 1947; graduated from Weber Junior College in Ogden, Utah, in 1949; received a Bachelor of Science degree from Brigham Young University with a major in secondary education and history in 1954; completed requirements for the Master of Science degree, specializing in educational administration, at University of Utah in 1964; did graduate study in history at the American University of Cairo, United Arab Republic, in 1966 as a recipient of a Fulbright-Hays study grant; completed requirements for a Doctorate of Education degree, specializing in education and social studies, at Utah State University in 1969.

Professional Experience: 1967 to present, graduate student, Utah State University; 1958-67, teacher of social studies at Ben Lomond High School, Ogden, Utah; 1955-57, served as a Lieutenant and Captain in the United States Air Force; 1954-55, teacher of social studies at Central Junior High School, Ogden, Utah.