TRENDS IN GEOGRAPHIC EDUCATION
As far as geography in education is considered, the ancient Greeks had very little to show. Geography hardly existed as a separate subject, but was blended with history, astronomy, and geometry, in which there was probably some reference to descriptive and mathematical geography. However, it would not be out of place to trace some of the educational concepts of these ancients with reference to the curriculum and see if they have had any relation to pedagogical principles of the time.

In ancient Greece, the good man was identified with the good citizen and so the chief aim of education was to train young citizens. And there is no doubt that the education imparted was truly in conformity with the ideals of culture and life of the time. In practice, the harmony between individual liberty and social claims was attained. The essential purpose was the development of the character of a loyal citizen, and increasing attention to intellectual studies especially in the ephebic age. Later, the closer relations between the Greek states led to a more cosmopolitan conception of education, with higher education becoming purely intellectual, and its relation to political and social life increasingly remote.

In the earlier centuries of the Republic, Roman education was given entirely in family and public life. When a wider culture was imported from Greece, the instrument of education included scientific speculations, astronomy and geometry which again had some reference to geography. It is interesting to note here that Socrates is said to have frequently used
maps in teaching his disciples, and the Romans set up in public places tablets of maps descriptive of their conquests.

We already know that during the Middle Ages there was a general decline in all branches of knowledge and geography was no exception. The best geography of the ancients, Strabo's and Ptolemy's, was neglected, and inferior data were accepted, even the mythology of Homer being revived. The monks copied and made excerpts from inferior works. Their maps of the world were marvels of inaccuracy, legendary lore, and superstition, representing a strictly ecclesiastical interpretation of the world. Jerusalem was generally placed at the centre of the map. The road maps were somewhat better, but chiefly intended for pilgrims, and comprised mainly a list of holy places of pilgrimage.

So, here, too, in the Middle Ages as with the ancients, the study of geography as a distinct subject in the school curriculum was vague and theoretically unsound, mostly inaccurate, fitted with to blend with the religious beliefs and speculations of the day. Geography was still largely a part of astronomy, history, and geometry, or even religion, and above all, it was taught in connection with them. In fact, geometry was rather what is now understood by geography and natural history, together with the medicinal properties of plants.

With the voyages and discoveries of the Portuguese and the Spaniards during the Renaissance, pretentious, systematic 'cosmographies' came in print and cartography was developed to a high degree. So geographic education included a vivid description of the voyages and discoveries. The
chief pedagogical improvement was in the use of maps and globes and this too was very limited.

Till this time, geography was still pleading for a place in education. And with the publication of the first general physical geography by Varenius, about the middle of the seventeenth century, geography, as a discipline, got its first foothold in education, and Varenius's book, which was written in a modern way using the causal relation and the comparative method, became the standard of general geography. This book which was popular for nearly a century was later translated by the great Newton for students, mostly at a higher level of education, in England.

During the period of discovery and commercial expansion, there was more need for geography and a beginning was made with instruction in this subject in the elementary schools. By 1600, some text books of geography had been written for German schools with Comenius (1572-1671) urging this study upon the schools with emphasis on 'Home' geography as the beginning, followed by the study of the geography of one's native country, with emphasis on the use of pictures during the lesson.

However, most of these early books were organized more on the type of an encyclopaedia, being classified compendia of information. There were enormous masses of facts concerning boundaries, capitals, products, exports and imports, and other statistics, all to be learned largely by rote memory. These facts were to be learned and recited by the pupils and the teachers' task was to see that they were memorized.
Another form of geography text book, like many others up to 1850, was of the 'question and answer' type, a method followed first by the German, Hubner in his geographies, and probably borrowed from 'Church Pedagogy'. In fact, some of these text books were entitled 'Geographical Catechism'. As the main object of the text books of this period was to teach names and locations, the catechism method was an orderly and expeditious, if not interesting, method of memorizing.

Aside from names and locations, some books consisted of general definitions, some mathematical geography like globe exercises, and a very slender description of countries. The books started out with general definitions and mathematical geography, and then followed with a deductive application, a method wholly unsuited to beginners. Most of these books were of a 'vest pocket' size with few maps and pictures, if at all, with perhaps a frontispiece of the world in hemispheres. It was customary then to use separate atlases with the text books.

Still another type of text book used in schools emphasizing the value of geography as a patriotic study and a preparation for good citizenship, included a political section containing some history and some descriptions of customs to enliven its dull monotony. In spite of its limitations, this type of book enjoyed a tremendous popularity and was still in use in the latter half of the last century especially in the countries of Europe and even in some parts of the United States.

The gazeteers and catechisms finally brought on a revolt among educators. These types of books were criticized as too uninteresting, unpedagogical, unconnected, and too great a burden on the memory. Accordingly, yet
another type of textbook appeared in circulation. It was on the plan of comparing facts and arranging them in classes and reducing them to general principles. These principles were first stated, and next applied in a description of continents as wholes, and finally, in a description of the states. The treatment was analytic-deductive where the student exercised judgement as well as memory, and saw the value of comparison.

It was **Rousseau** (1712-78), however, who gave much attention to the pedagogy of geography. This was a period of revolt against formalism and bookishness in education. The school of educators represented by Rousseau demanded naturalness in education and emphasized the humanities. Rousseau spoke against the emphasis usually placed on mathematical geography. He said the children of his day could glibly locate foreign places, but could not find the way from their home city to the next town. So he gave a great impetus to the learning of home geography by observation and helped to adapt the study of the subject to beginners.

In about the same period and under the direction of **Francke** in Germany, geography assumed a firm place in the curriculum of the higher school as a distinct subject though the text books used were of the question and answer form with separate atlases.

Another contributor to geographic pedagogy of the eighteenth century was **Basedow**. He wrote the first illustrated text book of geography beginning with the home region. He also used current events, imaginary journeys, and suggested supplementary reading, and above all, correlated the subject with
nature study... all these ideas being decidedly modern. And finally, it was Herder, who, in his 'Philosophy of History', first considered fully the place of man on the earth, his relation to his environment, and who promoted 'home' geography in the school curriculum by giving it a human tendency.

The eighteenth century must, therefore, be considered as most revolutionary and progressive in the matter of pedagogy of geography. Yet it may be said that the subject consisted mainly of descriptive physical rather than scientific physical.

The movement toward making the subject a scientific study of the laws of physical geography is traceable to the works of Pestalozzi in early nineteenth century. His emphasis on the concrete approach to geography led to the study of this subject by the observation of nature, and this, in turn, led to systematic scientific research seeking to explain the behaviour of the earth and its physical forces.

Actually, Pestalozzi did not carry his theories of 'Child Psychology' and 'concrete instruction' into practice in geography. He did not use maps, and his method of instruction in geography was formal. He taught, for example, alphabetic lists of place names before anything was learned about them. Geography in education, is, however, indebted to him for his insistence on adapting instruction to the child, the observational method, and the synthetic order of study, which he applied to education.
in general, and more especially for the inspiration way he inspired his disciples who carried out his ideas in geography better than he himself could or did.

The movement culminated in what has been called the 'New Geography' in schools because it involved getting away from the former memorization of unconnected and unimportant facts, and aimed at an increase in the amount of real thinking. And, as the eighteenth century had been rich in discovery and exploration, the nineteenth century, became the period to collect and sift the new material and finally to correlate the new geography with the new sciences of botany, zoology, meteorology, geology, etc., which were rapidly developing.

Malte-Brun of France and Hugh Murray of England were leaders in this movement in scientific geographic education during the first half of the nineteenth century and it is interesting to mention here that it had its influence even in America with the publication of Goodrich's 'System of School Geography', (1836, Hartford), a synthetically inductive and pedagogically planned book adapted for young readers.

The middle decades of the nineteenth century were a period of very formal geography. There was much drilling on maps, on unnecessary and unimportant details, chiefly as to mere location, without much logical sequence. Map drawing was much insisted upon, in fact, became a fetish. The students, at any rate, must have had the map well impressed on their memory. In most school text books, there was much classifying and
systematization of the descriptive matter, so much so that it was chopped up into paragraphs without apparent connection or continuity. This made it easy to memorize, which seems still to have been considered the chief pedagogical principle in geographic education. But the vital and interesting relations between the facts of geography were lost. Reflection and judgement were discouraged and memorizing was at a premium.

Modern geography, as a scientific study in the school curriculum, is the work of the scientific geographer and historian, Ritter, who was also a great teacher. His method of comparing the physical features of one country with similar features in another, and thereby deriving some common principles contributed to geography becoming a cultural and disciplinary study which to this time it had scarcely been. He taught the Pestalozzian doctrine of beginning the subject with the child's natural environment. He urged the home region and insisted on map drawing. No other man has had such an influence in shaping geographical science and geographical pedagogy. His ideals still hold good today.

Another great contributor to geographic education as also to geographic philosophy, as we have already seen, is Humboldt. While Ritter emphasized the study of geography through history, Humboldt came to it through natural science, emphasizing the physical side of the subject with altitude studies, profiles and isotherms, and by developing the branch of plant geography.
After Ritter, Ratzel was the greatest contributor to the study of geography where he emphasized the human, the historic, and also the aesthetic side of the subject.

Perhaps no voice is more authoritative in school geography than that of Alfred Hettner, editor of the 'Zeitschrift', whose treatment of the continents is one of the clearest exemplifications of the regional idea in large areas. Hettner said that geography in education had two aims: (i) to furnish knowledge, and, (ii) to develop abilities. Among the latter, he mentioned the ability to observe nature, to read maps, and to understand the fundamental connection of phenomena.

Hettner strongly advocated local geography, that is, the study of the environment, which would lead youth into an understanding of the locality where fate had placed them so that these youths would be mentally 'at home' in them. The study was also to help them assimilate the knowledge gained in the locality so that it might lead them into the basic principles of geography in general. If they came to understand the nature and culture of the community in itself and in its fundamental associations, they could then find their way in later life.

Hettner was not in favour of direct integration of geography with other fields as that would affect the peculiar province of the subject, namely, regional study. He advocated that geography should be taught in such a way that geographic facts became realities when observed along the lines as (i) how they work together to determine the basis of man's life, and, (ii)
how they differentiate regions and lie at the basis of the varied development of mankind.

With the new development of the sciences and the influences of Darwin and Huxley, geographic study laid more emphasis toward the physical side, with the forces of the earth receiving more attention, looking backward for explanations of the present features, and forward to ultimate conditions, thus treating geography dynamically and bringing about the causal treatment of the subject.

One consequence of viewing more fully the physical side of the earth, is the present-day tendency to drop the old systematic treatment of geography by countries and states, or at least, to supplement it by studying the earth by physiographic or industrial units, which is really an application of the comparative method in the higher sense.

Leaders of geographical thought had already noted the shortcomings of descriptive geography, of factual geography, and of place geography. The emphasis had been shifted to relational and interpretative geography. Mere description of the location, area, topography, soils and climate of a region was insufficient. The 'new' geography involved an interpretation of the relations that man sustained with his environment. The facts of geography were still necessary and a good memory remained a valuable human asset, but information was related to interpretation.

The old geography had been organized according to a standard outline: (a) location, (b) area, (c) topography, (d) climate, (e) life forms,
(f) human activities. Any area under discussion was ordinarily developed with the aid of this outline or some similar outline. With the shifting of emphasis from informational to interpretative geography, the standard outline was retained and an endeavour was made to ascertain the influence of each geographical factor upon human activities.

The retention of the standard outline organization of physical factors is readily understood when it is remembered that geography had secured its emphasis in large part from teachers of natural sciences, particularly those specializing in geology.

At the outbreak of World War I, the old topical outline of place and description had been vitalized by relating these topics in a meaningful way to mankind. The war not only appealed to social instincts and interests but it directly affected practically every member of the social group. Children's activities were directed by the dominating purpose of realizing an aim that to them seemed worthwhile. They were finding worthwhile situations in the world's activities. The teachers realized the increased efficiency that can be secured if the school work is related closely to the child's or student's interests and experiences. In other words, World War I, strikingly illustrated the value of motivated work. The interest in local affairs aroused a further interest in the related national and international affairs. Home geography was emphasized more than ever because of the social situation which demanded it. Local geography was amplified, and in the discussion of world problems, illustrations were drawn from the home field whenever this was possible.
More carefully than ever before, the first World War related the experiences of the child, secured from his immediate environment, to the problems of distant regions. The numerous problems that came up in connection with the war were studied in their natural setting. The war arose out of a difference of ideals among the social groups. The attention of the world, therefore, was drawn, first of all, to social groups, the various peoples at war, their armies and navies. It was soon seen that the social structure was fundamentally based upon a physical background, particularly the plant, animal, and mineral resources, and the transportation facilities. While the physical background was brought into prominence, it will be noted that the approach to the physical background came from the social side. With the thorough motivation of problems, the approach was from the social rather than from the physical viewpoint.

During the war, the interest of people in various parts of the world caused them to make a liberal use of maps and globes. This demand was noticeable both in the homes as well as in the schools. As a result, geography teaching was improved through the use of more effective tools in the consideration of problems.

Before the war, the tendency had been to consider any well-defined geographical influences whether these influences were of slight or of fundamental significance. During the war, the problems that were discussed by the social group, in general, were very vital. In the consideration of regions, therefore, the more significant problems were
brought out in detail, while the less significant physical influences
were ignored.

With the termination of the war, and the urgent problems of peace,
the students became keenly interested in other peoples, demanded more
information and were interested in having a clearer understanding of the
ways of life of other nations of the world. As this information was not
immediately available in the text books, it was obtained by scanning
the daily newspapers for vital, appealing current events and this was
utilized in the classroom while teaching about other countries. Being
interested in other countries, made the students more involved in their
immediate surroundings, topographic forms and processes.

This being the case, teachers also became very flexible in their classroom
situations. They no longer insisted that the standardized outline should
be used in the teaching of various countries. The more significant problems
of each area were sought for elaborate development in the light of the
special interest and experiences of the students with the purpose of causing
the problems to arise out of natural situations of the lives of the students.
For the teacher's part, he had to find some means of getting the students
to adopt these problems as their own personal problems to be solved through
their own initiative.

As a result of all these combined influences, geography in the school
curriculum came to be a social tool to enable the pupils to adjust them-
selves to other nations of the world, whereas formerly it was simply a
collection of uninteresting and relatively useless facts to be learned for mental retention and perhaps to be able to display some sort of geographical knowledge.

Thus, from what has been narrated in the foregoing paragraphs of this section, it will be clear that there were distinct phases in the development of geographic pedagogy. Briefly, these are the main points:

1. Until about the close of the last century, the subject of geography in the school curriculum consisted largely of description and location.

2. The different countries of the world were studied according to a standardized outline.

3. This standardized outline approached the study of an area from the physical standpoint.

4. When informational geography was supplemented with interpretative geography, the same standardized outline was retained.

5. The process of pedagogical evolution was hastened by the advent of World War I, so that (i) more attention was given to the effective motivation of the problems, (ii) the more significant problems of each region were selected for careful study, (iii) the problems were approached from the social rather than the physical standpoint, (iv) the special symbols of geography, the map and the globe were effectively used, and (v) local geography received much emphasis.

The period between the two world wars saw momentous changes in the school systems of most countries of the world and especially the European
countries. These changes were mainly attributed to American influence. The changes included reforms in the school period, the grouping of subjects, the introduction of new types of schools, new subjects or disciplines, and especially new novel methods of teaching. In many cases, there were different views as to the purposes of education and consequently, there arose revised statements of objectives.

Many schools accepted the new ideas of education and began experimenting with courses of study and methods of instruction in the hope of giving the students a better opportunity to learn by active experience rather than by passive acceptance, and consequently, to become self-dependent in work. The new ideas in education brought about remarkable changes in many schools as a result of which nations wanted to search more carefully into all their relations with neighbour countries, and to investigate more closely their own domain. This affected the subject of geography by stimulating numerous contacts with other regions through organized excursions, exchange classes, travel scholarships, and the like, as also by developing a deeper interest in the local region as shown by studies of the community as part of the curriculum. All these trends were noticeable mostly in the countries of the United States and Canada, and to some extent, in some of the European countries.

As for the teachers, they were unwilling to return to the old descriptive and place geography taught from a standardized outline and the same procedures of teaching for all age groups. In fact, with new and more vital methods of teaching the subject, there was insistence upon flexi-
bility in work and in assignment. There was more use of the teaching of current events to motivate instruction, the study of types through the project and the problems methods, supplemented by much illustrative material. And above all, there was the new emphasis on the social and political rather than the physical and locational aspects. The human side was recognized with a juster balance between man and nature, and most important of all, the inter-relationship was worked out much better. The interests of the students were more fully considered with a greater emphasis on human life and human occupations, and through them, an approach to the physical environment. All these innovations now formed the bases for the new type of geography teaching.

In summary, it may be said, that the progress of geography has been coincident with a revolutionary change in its outlook, content and method. Within a generation, the subject has seen its status transformed from that of a subject not very clear as to its scope or as to its 'raison d'etre' in the curriculum to one broad in its outlook, and sure of its ground as an essential element in the educational economy. And whereas at the beginning of the century it was taught largely by rote methods, mostly as an informative subject dealing largely with unrelated facts, and neglecting visual and practical methods, it is today at its best, a discipline of vital interest in the school curriculum, appealing to the brain, the eye, the ear, and the hand, and making real and valuable use of its own special instrument, the map and the globe.

The change was preceded, as we have already seen, by a large measure of
attention being given to physical geography. More important still has been the subsequent development of those aspects of geography which are commonly described as regional, economic, and human. But what, in effect, has happened, is that geography as a secondary school subject in general, and as a secondary school subject, in particular, has come to base itself mainly on the study of man's environment. This has been made possible by incorporating whatever was best in the older methods, and by utilizing its own synthesis of physical, economic, and other branches of the subject. The teaching of the subject has been made vivid and real by the application of practical and pictorial methods, thereby affording valuable intellectual training within the bounds of its own subject matter. There has been more emphasis laid on the study of inter-relationships. Thus, geographic education has indeed changed its viewpoint from the consideration of the world as the theatre of natural phenomena to that of the world as the home of man.