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THE TEACHING OF MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE UNITED STATES

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INTRODUCTION.

In this study it is proposed to give an historical account of the teaching of modern languages—German, French, Spanish, and Italian—in the United States. The hope is entertained that the record of past achievement and present needs may inspire teachers of modern languages to greater effort and still greater achievement.

The work of investigation was begun in 1909. A number of the largest libraries in the United States, including the Library of Congress, have been searched for material. Much has been obtained also by questionnaires, by a voluminous personal correspondence, and by personal visits to schools.

It is impossible to list all of the books used. A select bibliography will be found appended to the various chapters, and a list of helps for the teacher is also added at the end of the book.

It is to be expected that a pioneer study of this sort will show defects and omissions. Much historical material will, no doubt, be brought to light which now lies hidden and unknown in college archives.

To the teacher of modern languages it must be a matter of deep interest to know how his branch of learning has stood, and stands, in the estimation of educators and of the general public. This question the following pages seek to answer. The fine record of a branch of study which was taken up in the United States only about a century ago is worth recording. The roll of teachers boasts many proud names besides Longfellow, Lowell, Ticknor, and Boyesen.

Since as an historical treatise this work should be free from bias, it may be permitted to advance a personal view here in the introduction, a view, however, which is based upon an intimate study of the literature and the conditions of modern language teaching.

The modern languages were often poorly taught—in common with some other subjects—in the past. Indeed, there are large numbers of inefficient teachers still. But with the better training of teachers, with the introduction of the direct method in a good number of schools, with a slight advance in the books and helps in instruction, modern language teaching has improved wonderfully within recent years; so much so, in fact, that it has been shown by statistics of the College Entrance Examination Board that French and German are to-day taught better than Latin and Greek¹

¹ School review, 16: 238-264.

However, the training of teachers is still very inadequate. The difficulty is to equip teachers with a commensurate command, practical and scientific, of the foreign language in our training schools. Indeed, there are, properly speaking, no training schools for the teacher of German and French, excepting one for German.¹

Our universities and colleges have not trained and are not training properly for this service, although several schools are doing excellent work in this line. (Cf. Columbia University Teachers College, in its Announcement, 1910-11, pp. 69-70, 73-74, and University of Chicago Register, 1909-10, pp. 316-17.) Here is a line of work which must eventually be taken up in various parts of the country, if our modern language teaching is to be of a high grade. Foreign residence is not possible for thousands of secondary, and even college teachers. For this class there must be created an adequate substitute for the foreign sojourn which the European modern language teacher invariably obtains as part of his equipment.

College and university graduates will, of course, continue to go out to teach foreign languages. Up to the present their training has been very uneven. At best they have been given a course in methods, in most cases purely theoretical. Practice teaching and observation, such as the German *Probekandidat* undergoes for a year or two, is, even to-day, almost altogether wanting. It is to be hoped that there will soon be a demand for a better equipment for modern language teachers, and that the universities and colleges will meet it.

As to the materials of instruction, there is still much to be desired. Our readers, texts, and for the most part, our grammars are not adapted to the direct method of teaching.² How far our books are still removed from the direct method may be seen by comparing them with the German publications for teaching English and French, or the British readers and texts, say those of Savory.

While much has lately been written on the *Realien*³ in the United States, they are not yet available for the less informed teacher. What is needed in this matter is a house that will take up German, French, Spanish, and Italian *Realien* as a special department and advertise them as widely as readers and texts are now advertised.

Modern languages have been taught remarkably well in the East, especially in secondary schools; in the "German belt" in the Central West we might naturally expect a beneficial influence in the teaching of German in high schools. This conclusion has been reached not only by personal contact but by the quality of the litera-

¹ Das nationale deutsch-amerikanische lehrerseminar, Milwaukee, Wis. Cf. on this institution: Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 8: 137-141, May, 1907.

² Very recently a few books on the plan of the direct method have appeared.

³ *Realien* means real things or realities, and includes everything that illustrates or helps to interpret the life and history of a nation, its institutions, manners, customs, etc. In pedagogy it means specifically books, maps, charts, pictures, models, etc.

ture on the subject, east and west. For instance, in its publications the New England Modern Language Association stands almost without a peer among sectional organizations.

There has been in recent years, and is to-day, a loud call from all parts of the country that the Report of the Committee of Twelve be revised to meet present needs; not because this report was not an excellent piece of work, but because the 15 years intervening have brought changed conditions. It is desirable, say these many voices, that the Modern Language Association of America and the National Education Association should at an early date give their attention to the matter.

This study contemplates the presentation of a brief for the modern languages as a prominent branch of our educational curriculum in the United States. The great body of literature both on the languages and literatures of Germany, France, Italy, and Spain, as well as on the theory of teaching them, brought together here for the first time, should demonstrate as never before what modern language instruction has meant and now means to education in the United States. This study should demonstrate also that there is sufficient material for thorough mental discipline, and that the teachers as a body stand on a par with the teachers of other branches in the curriculum.

The importance of the modern languages in our modern education has been, and is, often underestimated. Latin and Greek have in the past played a most important part in our educational scheme, and it is to be hoped that they may never fall into desuetude. But we must recognize that, as a matter of fact, only a very small proportion of our youth study either of the classic languages. Unless the part formerly played by Latin and Greek—namely, the introduction of the learner to another great civilization—is taken over by some other branch of the curriculum, there must occur a woeful breach in our training.

The study of the modern languages constitutes the new humanism. In them is incorporated the culture of the race since the fall of the Roman Empire. Moreover, the modern civilization, standing as it does so much nearer to the learner than the classical civilizations, is the more important to him, and he is better able to imbibe it, a fact which has redounded powerfully to our culture and civilization within the last century, and is destined, in the very nature of things, to do so increasingly in the future.

C. H. H.

MIAMI UNIVERSITY, *April 15, 1912.*

THE TEACHING OF MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE UNITED STATES.

PART I.

CHAPTER I.

FIRST INSTRUCTION IN FRENCH IN AMERICA.

French was first taught in America by Catholic missionaries to the Indians. The first French mission was begun on Boon Island, Me., in 1608. Another was founded in 1611, by Jesuits, among the Micmacs in Nova Scotia and among the Abnakis on the coast of Maine.

In 1615 four friars of the Recollect order came to Canada. They were later reenforced by others. In 1618 Pope Paul IV gave to the order the charge of missions in Canada. In 1620 they founded a seminary, Notre Dame des Anges, for the instruction of the Indians on the St. Charles, and even sent an Indian youth to be educated in France.

The Jesuits were now invited to aid in Christianizing Canada. They came with men and money from France in 1625. With Quebec as a starting point, they embarked on what proved to be the most wonderful missionary work of the western world. Within 60 years they extended their missions throughout eastern Canada, along the Great Lakes—Superior, Michigan, and Erie—and down the Mississippi almost to the Gulf.

In 1633 Pope Urban VIII gave entire charge of this work to the order of Jesuits. As the country developed and attracted increasing numbers of Europeans, several seminaries were founded for the instruction of youths, while the first female seminary in America was founded in connection with the Ursuline convent, New Orleans, in 1639.

In 1645 the Seminary of St. Sulpitius was founded at Montreal, and in 1682 the Little Seminary at Quebec was called into being. In 1728 the Jesuits founded a college in Montreal, and in the same year the Charon friars began to establish rural schools in the region about Montreal. They were seconded in this work by the Brotherhood of the Christian Schools in 1737.

While French missionaries may be found throughout all the French territory in the North and West, as, for instance, in Wisconsin and Michigan, the most noteworthy spot educationally is in the Kaskaskia and Cahokia settlements in the Illinois country in the first half of the eighteenth century.

In the first quarter of the eighteenth century a school for the instruction of youths, Indian as well as white, was founded in connection with the Jesuit college of priests at Kaskaskia and liberally endowed from Europe.

At Cahokia there was a French school, conducted by Sulpitian monks, in the first half of the eighteenth century. These schools seem to have done work in elementary and secondary branches, and to have done very good work, at the time when the French Fort Chartres in the same region was known as "the center of life and fashion in the West."

In Louisiana French was first taught by the Ursuline nuns, who arrived from Rouen, France, in 1727, under charter with *The Company of the Indies* to take care of the hospital at New Orleans and to educate young girls.

The convent school which they undertook upon their arrival soon achieved a great reputation for efficiency in the territory, which it has retained until to-day. The nuns were especially noted for their excellent instruction in English and French, which they taught not only "by theory but in practice, the pupils being required to converse daily in both languages."

With the Ursulines came two Jesuit fathers, who undertook missions among the Indians in the territory.

The state of education for boys was very deplorable. What few schools there were were cared for by monks. However, by the third quarter of the eighteenth century schools for children of both sexes had sprung up, eight of which were in the territory. They taught principally reading and writing French, and had an attendance of 400 children previous to 1788.

This sort of school was continued until the country was ceded back to France, after having been under Spanish rule for 40 years, and until Louisiana was sold to the United States in 1803.

The proposition of William Claibourne, the first United States governor of the Territory, for a system of public schools (1806) came to naught. The country was not advanced enough to take up with this modern idea.

However, the Government made provision for parish academies, which it put into operation about 1811. All of these, without doubt, gave instruction in French, as did many, if not all, of the private academies.¹

¹ Fay, *History of education in Louisiana*, pp. 56-57.

The custom of having governesses in the families of the rich, and the considerable numbers of private schools,¹ tended to keep up the knowledge and love of the French language and customs.

The State Seminary of Learning, at Alexandria, planned in 1847 but not opened until 1860, had French in its curriculum,² as well as the preparatory school of the University of Louisiana, in New Orleans.

Other famous institutions for the cultivation of the French language are the academies of the Sacred Heart, founded in 1818 at St. Louis, Mo., then known as Upper Louisiana; at Grand Coteau, La., in 1821; one in the parish of St. James in Louisiana in 1825; one at Natchitoches in 1847; and one at Baton Rouge in 1851.

Private schools for girls also have always had a great vogue in Louisiana, in which as a rule French has been the modern foreign language taught.

In 1811 the College of Orleans, in New Orleans, was established. In this institution, which after a few years was reduced to an academy, French had a prominent place in the curriculum. The school was not large—in 1823 its students numbered only 79—but it sent forth some of the best men of Louisiana. It was discontinued in 1826, evidently because of friction between the French and the Americans, the school being too French in spirit to suit the latter. In the place of the College of Orleans a central and two primary public schools were instituted, which were less French in spirit but which included French among the branches taught.

The rival of the College of Orleans, and the one which no doubt had delivered the death blow to the old college, was the College of Louisiana, established in 1825 and opened in 1826 in Jackson, East Feliciana Parish. However, French was also taught in the new school,³ a professor of French and Spanish being employed from the first.

The College of Jefferson, which superseded the above College of Louisiana in 1831, continued to teach French, as did also the College of Baton Rouge, founded in 1820.

It is but natural that all the institutions of secondary and higher learning founded since that day should teach French, as they do, almost to the exclusion of any other modern foreign language.

In Alabama, where the French held sway since 1702, conditions were the same as in Louisiana at the time—i. e., there were no schools except the parish school conducted by the curé.

FRENCH IN MICHIGAN.

When Michigan was settled in the latter half of the seventeenth century by the French from Canada, schools were practically unknown. Even after the Americans had taken possession in 1796,

¹ Fay, *History of Education in Louisiana*, p. 60.

² *Ibid.*, p. 76.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 66-67.

schools were slow to appear. What schools there were had been cared for by Catholic monks and priests.

Detroit was a French village where the town crier performed the function of the newspaper of to-day.¹ The first English newspaper in Michigan appeared in 1817, but a few sporadic French papers were published as late as the second or third decade of the century.

The rich French occasionally sent their youth to Quebec or Montreal for an education, while early American settlers sent their boys and girls back East for the same purpose. Michigan had the stamp of French nationality markedly until the middle of the nineteenth century.

There were a few scattered church schools before Father Richard, a Roman Catholic priest, established a ladies' academy in Detroit in 1804. The free common-school system was introduced late in the State. The French sentiment had had time to die out, and consequently there was no provision whatsoever for French instruction, such, for instance, as we find in the common schools of Louisiana.

However, the branch schools of the University of Michigan, provided for by the act of 1817 (*an act to establish the Catholepistemiad or University of Michigania*) but not realized for two decades, embraced French in their curricula.

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¹ The first French newspaper was published in Detroit in 1800. Cf. also Farmer. The history of Detroit and Michigan, etc. Detroit, 1884. p. 670 f.

CHAPTER II.

FRENCH IN PRIVATE SCHOOLS IN COLONIAL TIMES AND LATER.

French was taught early in private schools in the Colonies. Thomas Jefferson learned French in the fifties of the eighteenth century, in the school of Mr. Douglass. In the Academy of Philadelphia, later named the University of Pennsylvania, founded in 1749 by Benjamin Franklin, French was taught as an extramural study, or by private lessons in the school until 1754, when William Creamer was made professor of French and German. In 1766 Paul Fooks was made professor of French and Spanish. Franklin had planned for teaching French, Italian, Spanish, and German.

The Wilmington Academy, Delaware, in 1786 made the following announcement: "The French language will be taught by one of the professors of the academy, if parents or guardians require it."¹

In 1790 "The Boarding School in Bethlehem (Pa.) for the Education of Young Misses" includes the following in its announcement:

As many parents and guardians have signified their desire that their children might also be taught the French language, we have now the pleasure to inform them that a lady, well versed in this language, has arrived from Europe with the intention to give lessons in the same. As the maintenance of said lady, as well as the expenses of her voyage and journey from Europe, will fall upon the school, we trust it will not be deemed unreasonable that an extra charge of five Spanish dollars per annum should be made for instruction in French.²

In New England the early academies also taught French³ in the eighteenth century, and certain it is that after 1830 it became typical to offer instruction in this subject even if only as an incidental study to which was attached a special fee.⁴

There were several private schools in Boston in 1792 giving, among other subjects, instruction in English, Latin, and French.⁵ Indeed, this was the fairly general practice in schools for young ladies both

¹ Powell. The history of education in Delaware. Washington, 1893, p. 46. (U. S. Bureau of Educ. Circ. Inf. No. 3, 1893.)

² Barnard's Am. Jour. of Educ., 25: 166-67.

³ It is asserted by an eighteenth century writer that French was taught in New England academies, as, for instance: Dummer's Academy, founded 1763, incorporated 1782; Phillips Exeter, founded 1778, incorporated 1780; the Academy of Leicester, incorporated 1784; the academy at Hingham, founded 1784; Dearborn's Academy, Boston, 1790; the academy at Marblehead, 1790; the academy at Hallowell, Me., 1791. See Ebeling, C. D. Erdbeschreibung und geschichte von Amerika. Hamburg, 1793, p. 302.

⁴ Cf. the Catalogue of the officers and students of Phillips Exeter Academy, 1832, p. 11; Instruction in the French and Spanish languages to those who desire it. See also Barnard's Am. Jour. of Educ., 27: 299, on The Brandon Select School, Brandon, Vt.

⁵ Barnard's Am. Jour. of Educ., 24: 141. American annals of education and instruction, 37: 186. Also *ibid.*, 26: 101.

north and south, as we know from the correspondence of private individuals. French, often taught by a native Frenchman, is found, for instance, in Cotes Classical School, at Charleston, S. C., in 1820, in Carre and Sanderson's Seminary, Philadelphia, in 1816, and in a number of schools for young ladies in North Carolina. These North Carolina schools were celebrated as being equal to the best in America, and were attended by young ladies from various Southern States. There were more than 1,000 pupils at these schools within a compass of 40 miles in the central part of North Carolina in 1816. All the useful and ornamental branches of knowledge were taught in most of these institutions.¹

French had become a standard study in girls' schools, and, to some extent, in academies for boys as well.

FRENCH IN THE EARLY WEST.

In the West French first came to be taught at an early day in the academies of Kentucky, which State received its impetus in education from Virginia. Upward of 30 academies and seminaries were incorporated in Kentucky between 1783 and 1798.²

John Filson proposed, about the year 1783, to organize a seminary in Lexington, in which should be taught the "French language, with all the arts and sciences used in the academies." This school, "Transylvania Seminary," was established in Danville in 1785, and was moved to Lexington in 1788.³ French was taught in Transylvania University as early as 1799 by a native Frenchman, but it was many years, and only after repeated failures, before this instruction became permanent and efficient.

In Cincinnati, Francis Menessier advertised in *The Western Spy* on September 10, 1799, that at his coffeehouse at the foot of the hill on Main Street, at the sign of *Pegasus the bad poet fallen to the ground*, he would teach the French language, and that his school would begin the following Monday, to continue every evening except Saturdays and Sundays.

Soon we find French taught also in the academies in Ohio. In 1826 French was taught in the Cincinnati Female College, in The Female Boarding School, and in The Cincinnati Female School, all in Cincinnati, at a time when German had not been introduced in any school in this region.

As we shall see in the chapter on French in Colleges and Universities, Miami University introduced French in 1827, while Vincennes University in Indiana, established on paper in 1806 and opened in 1810, with "a president and not over four professors for the instruc-

¹ North Am. Rev., Jan., 1831, p. 24.

² Barnard's Am. Jour. of Educ., 24: 263.

³ Venable. Beginnings of literary culture in the Ohio Valley, p. 168.

tion of youth in Latin, Greek, French," etc., taught French from 1810 on. But Dr. Scott, the president of Vincennes University, had taught French in his private school in Vincennes since 1808. Thus Vincennes University is the first college in the West, north of the Ohio, to teach French.

The Lancaster Institute (for young ladies), Lancaster, Ohio, offered French in 1838; Hillsboro Female Seminary in 1839; Norwalk Academy, Norwalk, Ohio, advertised French, Spanish, and Italian in 1839, tuition \$5 per quarter; the Female Seminary, Norwalk, taught French about 1840, fee \$3 for Latin and French per quarter; the Twinsburg Institute, Twinsburg, Ohio, taught German and French as early as 1843. From these schools the study spread until we find it in most of the better academies, especially those for girls, in Ohio—as, for instance, in the Salem Academy, South Salem, Ohio; the Ohio Female College, College Hill, Ohio, 1849; and Mrs. Mason's Home School for Girls in Middletown, Ohio, 1865-1870. In all of these schools it was an optional study and, like music and drawing, usually required a special fee.¹

French in this early day enjoyed its greatest popularity in schools for girls, where it was taught mostly by women. The influence of the study in the country generally was as a polite accomplishment. It never competed with the German as to practical results. Since it was never advocated so hotly as was the German, it never raised up so many enemies as did the latter. (For statistics on numbers studying French in private schools, see Chapter IV.)

FRENCH INFLUENCE IN EARLY AMERICAN EDUCATION.

During the Revolution, and more particularly immediately following it, the American Colonies began to cast about for some country to occupy the place in their friendship formerly held by England; and since France, the traditional enemy of England, had proven herself so friendly, the United States were disposed to follow her and look to her for guidance in establishing institutions.

Some of the French patriots who, like La Fayette and Quesnay de Beaurepaire, had come to help fight the English remained to insure the hegemony of French ideas and ideals, and to promote friendship between France and the new nation. Many, too, began now to come for commercial or scientific purposes.

Quesnay, who proposed "connecting the United States with my fatherland by new motives of gratitude, of conformity in taste, and of more close communications between the individuals of the two countries," purposed to establish a "French Academy of Arts

¹ In 1876 31 academies were reporting to the State authorities and 161 others were known to have flourished in the State. A history of education in Ohio. Columbus, 1876. Pp. 148.

and Sciences of the United States of America" at Richmond, which was to have branches at Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York, and to be affiliated with similar European societies.

The project was never realized, but Jefferson, who was deeply interested in it, incorporated some of the ideas suggested in the University of Virginia, which he founded—not before, however, he had supported a plan to remove the entire College of Geneva (Switzerland), which was French, bodily to Virginia. It is but natural that these and similar movements should have aroused interest in the French language and literature.

However, Harvard had made an attempt to establish instruction in French even before this. In 1735 a Frenchman, Langloisserie, was employed to teach the French language. But he was soon impeached for disseminating dangerous ideas in religion¹ and was dropped from the faculty.

In 1780 the American Academy of Arts and Sciences was established at Boston on French models. An instructor in French was engaged to teach here, and this instruction was given until 1800, when it was suspended in favor of private, or "extramural," instruction.

William and Mary College, Jefferson's alma mater, next founded a professorship of modern languages in 1779-80. Thus the love and knowledge of the French language and literature continued to grow, the instruction spreading also to the public high schools and, sporadically, to the elementary schools. Indeed, the French influence in American education was once so powerful, especially in the Carolinas and Virginia, as to color not only the educational system, but the social and home life as well. However, this influence was destined to decline. In the second, but more especially in the third quarter of the nineteenth century, we find it almost entirely replaced by the German influence. What French influence has endured in our educational system is to be found in our high schools, girls' seminaries, and certain departments of our scientific schools.

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¹ His "dangerous ideas" consisted not in atheism but in the belief in the divine inspiration of certain dreams of his.

CHAPTER III.

INTRODUCTION OF FRENCH IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

Very probably the vicissitudes experienced by modern language teaching, and the long duration of time in which the modern languages were on trial before they received a full welcome into the college curriculum, have never been adequately recognized. The very dates are eloquent of tedious delay. As early as 1735 Harvard, the oldest of our great universities of the present, taught French, but for the next 45 years it did so only intermittently. It was not till the eighties of the eighteenth century that any marked interest in the introduction of the modern languages in American colleges was manifested.

Even when they were established as a recognized part of the college course, the instructors had to wait as long to see their subjects raised from tutorial to professorial rank as their predecessors had waited to see it advanced from an extra-mural study to an integral part of the curriculum. Amherst was the first institution of learning in America to introduce a thoroughgoing modern language course, instruction in French and German there dating from 1824, and in Spanish from 1827. Nevertheless, even at Amherst, there was no professorship of the Romance languages till 1864. Again, the comparatively recent admission of the modern languages to full recognition as a branch of scholarship worthy of special work may be inferred from the fact that Yale University did not organize a course in the Romance languages and literature leading to the doctorate of philosophy till 1892.

In all this slow movement of the modern languages into the college curriculum, it is worthy of mention that, although the first serious introduction of French preceded that of German by nearly half a century, the former language was soon overtaken by the new comer, once the German had secured a foothold.

To Thomas Jefferson belongs the honor of giving modern language teaching its first considerable impetus. At his suggestion, in 1779-80, William and Mary established a professorship of modern languages, thereby becoming the first American college so to do. At the time, Jefferson, who was an alumnus, was one of the visitors of the college.

We know that Jefferson was one of the first advocates of modern studies in America. Of the changes at William and Mary, he writes:

On the first of June, 1779, I was appointed governor of the Commonwealth and retired from the legislature. Being elected also one of the visitors of William and Mary College, a self-electing body. I effected, during my residence in Williamsburg that year, a change in the organization of that institution, by abolishing the grammar school and two professorships of divinity and oriental languages and substituting a professorship of law and police, one of anatomy, medicine, and chemistry, and one of the modern languages.¹

Owing possibly to the patronage of distinguished men like Jefferson and Franklin, modern languages soon became a point of educational interest. In 1780 French for the first time became a regular branch of instruction at Harvard, which two years later even allowed its substitution for freshmen and sophomore Hebrew. In 1784 Columbia's first professor of French was appointed and the first French grammar—that of John Mary—was issued in Boston. In this same year, also, Brown University—then, and until 1804, known as Rhode Island College—solicited the aid of Louis XVI of France to procure for it a professor of French. The memorial ran thus:

Ignorant of the French language, and separated as we were by more than mere distance of countries, we too readily imbibed the prejudices of the English—prejudices which we have renounced since we have had a nearer view of the brave army of France, who actually inhabited this college edifice; since which time our youth seek with avidity whatever can give them information respecting the character, genius, and influence of a people they have such reason to admire—a nation so eminently distinguished for polished humanity.²

To satisfy this laudable thirst of knowledge, nothing was wanting but to encourage and diffuse the French language and that not merely as the principal means of rendering an intercourse with our brethren of France more easy and beneficial, but also for spreading far and wide the history of the so celebrated race of kings, statesmen, philosophers, poets, and benefactors of mankind which France has produced.³

The communication was entrusted to Thomas Jefferson for forwarding, but notwithstanding that statesman's marked friendliness to all movements intended to establish the modern languages in the colleges, he considered it useless to send on the document, and it never reached the monarch. At the same time, the spirit manifested by the authorities of the Rhode Island College was in marked contrast to that displayed only six years previously by the Yale corporation, which voted to decline the offer of an endowment for a professorship in French and for the establishment of a French library that had been made by the Hon. Silas Deane, 1858.

¹ Adams, H. B. *The College of William and Mary* . . . Washington, 1887, p. 39. A contribution to the history of higher education, with suggestions for its national promotion. (U. S. Bureau of Educ. Circ. Inf. No. 1, 1887.)

² Cf. Guild, R. A. *Early history of Brown University, including the life, times, and correspondence of Manning*. Providence, 1897.

³ Cf. also Tolman, W. F. *History of higher education in Rhode Island*. (U. S. Bureau of Educ. Circ. Inf. No. 1, 1894, p. 109.)

The movement for modern language teaching in the colleges, nevertheless, went on with ever-increasing strength. In 1792 Williams accepted French for entrance as a substitute for Greek and Latin, and the next year William and Mary made it requisite for entrance, while the University of North Carolina required a grammatical knowledge of the French language as an entrance requirement from its very foundation, in 1795. In this same year, also, Williams established its first professorship—a professorship in French.

In 1799 college instruction in French crossed the Alleghenies, when Transylvania University, of Kentucky, established a tutorship in the subject. In the East also, the gains continued. The University of North Carolina announced that after February, 1802, no one would be graduated without Greek or French, and that either language would be accepted for entrance, while in 1804 South Carolina College made French a required subject in the sophomore and junior years.

However, the modern languages enjoyed only a few years of good fortune before the reaction came. This reaction was not chronologically simultaneous among all institutions of the country, but after a period of trial, of greater or less duration, nearly every institution seems to have reached the conclusion that the new subjects were not successful. Thus, Harvard dropped its French courses at about the beginning of the nineteenth century and did not resume them again till 1816, when Abiel Smith, of Boston, left an endowment of \$20,000 for the Smith professorship of French and Spanish literatures and languages and of belles lettres. Yale, and apparently Columbia also, were among the better known colleges which also dropped the modern languages after a few years' trial, while Brown, which was pleading for a professor of French in 1784, actually did not install even an instructor of modern languages till 1844.

There must have been a variety of reasons for this sudden halt. The traditionalists objected to the invasion of the new subject; doubtless, also, the teaching was often inefficient. Local conditions likewise may have been potent. Thus, when the University of North Carolina, which had taught and required French ever since its foundation, suddenly dropped the entire subject in 1817, we may legitimately suspect that the measure was directly or indirectly due to a reaction against the influx of French infidelity which flooded the State as a result of the teachings of Voltaire, Paine, and Volney. Again, there were doubters who, though possibly welcoming the new subjects as such, at the same time in whole or in part distrusted their susceptibility to classroom treatment. The attitude of these persons is tersely expressed by President

Bishop, of Miami University, who dropped French from the curriculum after a trial of eight years, explaining his action thus:

I have no doubts of the capacity and fidelity of Mr. Eckbert (the teacher). He did, I am persuaded, his best, but he failed from the single fact that an interest in the study of a modern language can not be kept up with any class more than three or four months at one time. A single individual who has some definite object of a practical nature immediately in view may study a modern language with vigor till he is completely master of it. But to make a class in college do so is, I believe, both a natural and a moral impossibility.

President Bishop came to this view from his experience at Miami, as well as at Transylvania University, Kentucky, where he had witnessed many attempts to teach modern languages.

However, it was inevitable that the modern languages would eventually come back into their own. And, in spite of all setbacks, the best schools of the country at large regarded the modern languages as a recognized study even as early as the first third of the century. The better schools taught them, and schools that could not teach them at least stated in their charters that they would be included as soon as the funds would allow. This statement, for instance, was contained in the charters of Vincennes University, 1806; Indiana University, 1839; and Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.

As time passed, teaching improved; such men as Ticknor, Longfellow, and Lowell steadily raised the prestige of the profession; the practical utility of the subjects came more and more to be recognized, while gradually their educative value was conceded; and finally chairs of the modern languages came into an increasing number of endowments. Thus it is not surprising that eventually—though within the memory of men still living—the modern languages, once unwelcomed upstarts in the college curriculum, attained such a standing that the graduate schools began organizing the scientific study of these subjects on a parity with the other research studies leading to the doctor's degree. In this final recognition of the dignity of modern language work, two agencies have had an important part. French as a branch of instruction in higher schools was given a considerable impetus by the founding of *L'Alliance Française* in 1883, a national organization established for the purpose of extending the French language in the colonies of France and in foreign lands, as well as for the establishment of more intimate social and commercial relations with French colonies and dependencies, and of developing in peaceful ways the French culture in all lands.

To achieve these ends, courses of instruction have been established in various countries. Subsidies are given to schools for teaching French, lecturers and literature are sent out, etc. At the *Cours de Vacances* held every summer since 1894 in Paris and in a dozen other French cities foreigners and others preparing themselves to teach French are given thorough training in the language, literature, and

institutions of France. There were 50 students at the first session; in 1896 the number had increased to 326, and in 1910 there was an attendance of 962, representing almost all civilized countries.¹ There are very few Frenchmen among those attending.

In the United States there are 40 groups, mostly in college or university towns, 17 of them with 100 to 900 members each. Courses of lectures are given annually by French scholars, who reach in this way many dozens of American communities.

An important agency in the advancement of modern-language teaching is the Modern Language Association of America, the most representative body of modern-language teachers in the United States. This organization, which was founded in 1883, publishes proceedings of its annual meetings quarterly. It promulgated the first official and authoritative report on the state of modern-language teaching in America. The first data on the prevalence of French in the higher institutions of learning were also gathered by the Modern Language Association. Uniform entrance requirements in French were standardized by six universities in 1896.² These requirements are retained practically in the report of the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association in 1898. For a fuller account of the association, as well as for a list of journals devoted to French, see Chapter VII.

The following brief digest contains supplementary information upon instruction in French in institutions of higher learning:

BRIEF CHRONOLOGY OF EARLY INSTRUCTION IN FRENCH.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

1735. Permission is given by the immediate government to teach French. M. Langloiseric, appointed instructor, is soon dismissed on religious grounds.
1769. On application Mr. Curtis receives permission to teach French, upon avowing himself a Protestant.
- 1769-1780. Three men are licensed to teach French.
1780. French for the first time becomes a regular branch of instruction. Simon Poullin is the instructor. Course optional; quarterly fee.
- 1782-1797. Albert Gallatin is appointed in addition to Poullin. French is required as a substitute for Hebrew for freshmen and sophomores.
1784. John Mary, instructor, publishes the first French grammar in America (Boston, 140 p.).
1816. "Smith Professorship of Belles Lettres" established with \$20,000, bequeathed by Abiel Smith, of Boston. Francis Sales, assistant, 1816.
1819. George Ticknor, professor.
- 1825-1827. Elective plan introduced; under it modern languages have larger place.
1830. Modern languages postponed to sophomore year.
- 1847-48. The president reports French to be a required study in freshman and sophomore years.
1874. French or German made requisite for freshmen.

¹ Cf. Bulletin de l'Alliance Française, quarterly, Paris. Address: Sec'y de l'Alliance Française, 46 Rue de Grenelle, Paris.

² Educational review, 1: 497 ff.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

1754. Professor, W. Creamer, French and German, 1754-1775. Other teachers: Professor, Paul Fooks, French and Spanish, 1766—; instructor, J. F. Grillet, 1823-1829; instructor, A. de Valville, 1829-1844; professor, Charles Picot, 1846-1852; professor, Felix Drouin, 1852-1856; professor, J. A. Deloutte, 1856-57; professor, G. A. Matile, 1857-58; professor, Desire Guillemet, 1861-1866. The last five had the title of professor, but were not members of the faculty.

WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE.

1779-80. The first professorship of modern languages established; Charles Bellini incumbent.
1793. French is made requisite for entrance to the college.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

1784-1787. John P. Petard served as professor of French.
1792-1795(?). Yillette de Marcellin served as professor of French.
1828-1856. Professors of French: Rev. Antoine Verren (1828-1839) and Felix G. Berteau (1839-1856).
1836. A grammatical knowledge of French is required for entrance.

WILLIAMS COLLEGE.

1792. French accepted for entrance in place of Greek and Latin.
1795. A professorship in French—the first professorship in the institution—is founded

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA.

1795. Institution founded. French taught in preparatory school and a knowledge of the grammar required for entrance to the university.
1801. After February, 1802, no students to be graduated without Greek or French. Either to be accepted for entrance.
1818. French dropped; probably a reaction against French infidelity in the State.
1875. Work in modern language resumed.

UNION COLLEGE, NEW YORK.

1797. French may be substituted for Greek "in certain cases."

TRANSYLVANIA UNIVERSITY, KENTUCKY.

1799. A tutor in French is appointed.

SOUTH CAROLINA COLLEGE.

1804. French required in sophomore and junior years. Instructor, 1804-1806; professor, Paul H. Perrault, 1806-1811; tutor, 1807-1818; vacancy, 1819-1828; instructor, 1829—.

PRINCETON UNIVERSITY.

1806. Various instructors, 1806-1830.

1829. At a meeting of the alumni association held September 26 S. J. Bayard introduced the following resolution: "*Resolved*, That each member of this association will esteem himself pledged to provide, if he can, at least ten dollars to be paid to the treasurer before the next annual meeting, to be applied to the endowment of a professorship of the living languages in Nassau Hall." Although the sum thus realized was small, this action of the association had no slight influence in effecting the arrangement made in 1829 to introduce the study of one or more of the modern languages of Europe as a part of the regular college course, an arrangement which, with modifications, has been continued ever since.

Early teachers at Princeton.—Louis Hargous, professor of French and German, 1830-1836; Benedict Jaeger, professor of German and Italian, 1832-1836 (1836-1841, professor of modern languages and lecturer on zoology); A. Cordon de Sandrans, teacher of modern languages, 1842-1849; Mr. Perrin, teacher of modern languages, 1849-1852; Edward Du Buque, teacher of French, 1852-53; Isador Loewenthal, teacher of German and French, 1852-1854.

VINCENNES UNIVERSITY.

1810. French introduced.

DICKINSON COLLEGE.

1814. Claudius Berard, A. M., professor of French, Spanish, Italian, and German, 1814-1816; vacancy until 1824; professor, Louis Mayer, S. T. D., 1825-26.

BOWDOIN COLLEGE.

1820. French taught by a native Frenchman.

1825-1854. A professorship in modern languages, especially French and Spanish, for juniors and seniors, is founded. Joseph Hale Abbott appointed temporarily. Henry W. Loug fellow, professor, 1829-1835; Daniel Raynes Goodwin, 1835-1854.

AMHERST COLLEGE.

1824. Instruction in French and German is offered "to such as wish it, for a reasonable compensation."

1827. A new course, parallel to the classical, requiring French the first two years. Modern language optional in senior year. 1829-1831, French curtailed to third term of sophomore and first and second terms of junior years.

1832. College drops all modern language except one term of French (junior year).

1834. This one term of French required in sophomore year.

1835. Subject moved to freshman year.

1836. Subject moved back to sophomore year.

1846-47. German made optional with the French.

1858-59. German or French required in two additional terms (junior year).

1866. The modern language requirement is changed to two terms in sophomore and one term in junior year, and made optional in one additional term in junior year.

1867. Additional term of French required (freshman).

1868. Four terms of French, two terms of German, and one term of Italian required, and two terms more of modern language are optional.

1872. French dropped in freshman year.

1876. French in second term of sophomore year made optional.

1878. Requirement curtailed to two terms of French, with three terms of modern language optional.

Teachers of modern languages at Amherst to 1850.—Moller, 1827-28; Rovel, two years; Hebard, one year; Deloutte, one year; various tutors, five years; Manget, two years; Frohon, two years; Coleman, first instructor in German, one year; Ayres, one year; Green, one year.

1864. William L. Montague appointed professor of Romance languages.

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

1825. Jefferson obtains the establishment of a professorship of modern languages at the foundation of the institution. Dr. Georg Blaettermann, a native German, appointed professor of German and French. He taught also Anglo-Saxon and comparative philology. He was dismissed in 1840.

YALE UNIVERSITY.

1825-1832. French is included (optional, third term junior year) at expense of students.

1834. French reinstated.

1845. Second senior term assigned as additional period for modern language electives.

1864. Street professorship of modern languages established.

1867. French becomes a required study for first term of sophomore year and (1868) for last term of freshman year.

1875. French becomes optional with German and is moved to second and third terms of junior year.

1876. Limited elective system for juniors and seniors adopted; French included.

1885. French or German required for entrance; also prescribed for sophomores and (1887) for freshmen as well.¹

1892. Scientific study of Romance languages and literatures, leading to degree of Ph. D., is organized.

Teachers of modern languages at Yale.—M. Charles Roux, French and Spanish, 1826; François Turner, French (also Spanish, 1834-1849); Luigi Roberti, Italian, 1842 (also 1847-1856); Guiseppe Artoni, Italian, 1845-1847; Edward Benton Coe, first Street professor of modern languages, 1867-1870; C. L. Speranza, Italian, 1879-1882; William Ireland Knapp, Street professor, 1879-1892; George Bendelari, modern languages, 1882-1888; Eugene Bergeron, French, 1888-1892; Jacques Luquiens, 1892-1900.

MIAMI UNIVERSITY.

1827-1830. Robert W. Schenck taught French.

1835. French discontinued.

1841. French resumed; the teaching is sporadic and ineffectual, in part extramural.

1885. First professor of modern languages appointed.

NOTE.—By the year 1832 the following institutions have professors of French: Middlebury College, Vermont; University of the City of New York; Wesleyan University; Hartford College, Connecticut; La Grange Methodist College, Georgia; Columbian College, Washington, D. C.; University of Alabama; University of Georgia; Center College, Danville, Ky.; Genava College, New York.

¹ Now (1912) French and German are among the 42 subjects offered sophomores and among the 8 offered freshmen.

RUTGERS COLLEGE.

1841. Professor, T. L. Hombral, 1841-42.
1842-1846. Professor, P. I. G. Hodepyl.

CINCINNATI WESLEYAN COLLEGE.

1842. French, German, Spanish, and Italian are offered as electives.

BROWN UNIVERSITY.

1844. First instructor in modern languages appointed—Robinson Potter Dunn, French,
1844-1846.
1860. Separate instructors for French and German.
1876. Alonzo Williams first professor of modern languages.

ANTIOCH COLLEGE.

1853. Professorship of modern languages established. French required two terms
and optional two terms.

CHAPTER IV.

FRENCH IN THE PUBLIC SECONDARY AND IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The introduction of French in a number of the most prominent colleges and universities in the East early in the nineteenth century paved the way for French into the high schools. Even as far west as California the school law under which the high schools of the State were established in 1851 required these to teach French and Spanish.

After the fifties the growth of French as a high-school study was rapid. The United States Commissioner of Education began collecting statistics on the prevalence of French in the high schools in 1886-87, and from that year on lists of schools offering French, and divers data on the subject, appear in the annual reports of the commissioner.

It is interesting to compare the percentage of students studying French in the various kinds of secondary schools. In 1886-87 11 per cent of the students in public secondary schools in the United States studied French; in public secondary schools, partly supported by the State, 3 per cent; in private secondary schools for girls, 24 per cent; in private secondary schools for boys, 15 per cent; in private secondary schools for both sexes, 4 per cent. The total number of students in the secondary schools for the year was 181,116, of whom 9 per cent, or 17,121, studied French.¹

For the five geographical divisions of States the percentage of students studying French in 1886-87 was as follows: North Atlantic, 18½ per cent; South Atlantic, 11½ per cent; Western, 8½ per cent; South Central, 6 per cent; North Central, 5½ per cent.²

In 1887-88, of the 62,261 students in private secondary schools, 10.03 per cent studied French;³ the highest per cent, 30.63, being found in the private schools for girls; the next highest, 16.17 per cent, in private schools for boys; while only 5.6 per cent are found studying French in private schools for both sexes. In the public high schools an average of 7.71 per cent of the total enrollment (64,584) studied French in 1887-88.⁴

¹ U. S. Bureau of Educ. Rep. of the Commissioner, 1886-87, p. 512 ff.

² These percentages may be taken to be too low, because of the "not distributed" column in the Rep. of the Commissioner of Educ., 1886-87, pp. 515-16. Interesting figures on the time allotted to French in secondary schools may be found in Rep. of the Commissioner of Educ., 1887-88, pp. 480-489, 491-493, 506.

³ Rep. of the Commissioner of Educ., 1887-88, p. 483.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 490.

For the years 1886 to 1906 the percentage of students studying French in secondary schools was as follows:¹

Per cent.		Per cent.		Per cent.	
1886-87.....	9.00	1893-94.....	10.31	1900-1901.....	10.75
1887-88.....	9.37	1894-95.....	9.77	1901-2.....	11.13
1888-89.....	No data.	1895-96.....	10.13	1902-3.....	10.91
1889-90.....	9.41	1896-97.....	9.98	1903-4.....	11.15
1890-91.....	9.06	1897-98.....	10.48	1904-5.....	11.40
1891-92.....	8.59	1898-99.....	10.68	1905-6.....	11.12
1892-93.....	9.94	1899-1900.....	10.43		

In 1904-5 there were 62,120 students of French in public high schools in the United States, over 72 per cent of whom were in the North Atlantic States, while in private secondary schools there were 27,657 pupils studying French, of whom over 63 per cent were in the North Atlantic States.²

The latest statistics of the Bureau of Education give 73,161 students of French in the public high schools of the United States, and 22,510 in private secondary schools.³

In 1894, of 80 public high schools distributed throughout the principal cities of the United States, 40 per cent offered a two years' course, 32 per cent offered a three years' course, and 28 per cent a four years' course in French. And a decade later, in 1904, out of 160 public high schools in the principal cities of the United States, 40 per cent offered a two years' course, 40 per cent a three years' course, and 20 per cent a four years' course in French.⁴

Data collected in 1910 show that of 50 high schools in the principal cities of the United States, 72 per cent offer French, 30 per cent have two-year courses, 18 per cent have three-year courses, and 24 per cent have four-year courses.⁵ The methods of instruction in these schools are: Grammar, reading, and composition, 14; grammar, translation, and composition, 8; direct, 3; grammar and translation, 3; grammar and reading, 2.

The Committee of Ten of the National Education Association in 1893 recommended three years of German or French for the classical and Latin scientific courses, and four years of French and three of German, or vice versa, for the modern language course, and four years of Latin, German, or French in the English course of high schools; and this may be taken roughly to be the norm observed in our secondary schools to-day. (On the teaching of French in high schools see also Chapter VIII.)

¹ U. S. Bureau of Educ. Rep. of the Commissioner, 1907, p. 1032. For percentages in private schools only and public high schools only, see Rep. of the Commissioner of Educ., 1907, pp. 1030-31.

² *Ibid.*, 1906, pp. 523, 541. The per cent for 1887-88 is found by taking the average of the per cent in private schools (Rep. of the Commissioner of Educ., 1887-88, p. 482) and that of public high schools (Rep. of the Commissioner of Educ., 1887-88, p. 490):

³ U. S. Bureau of Educ. Rep. of the Commissioner, 1910, pp. 1135-36.

⁴ School review (1906), p. 254 ff.

⁵ Data collected by the writer.

In 1910 the proportion of those studying French and German in New England secondary schools was 3 to 1 in favor of French (Nat. Educ. Assoc., 1910, p. 519). For statistics on French in secondary schools of the Central West in 1910 see Modern Language Association. Publications, 26: LXXXIV, f.

CHRONOLOGY OF THE INTRODUCTION OF FRENCH IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

- 1832. English High School, Boston.
- 1838. The College of the City of New York.
- 1839. Central High School, Philadelphia. French was dropped in 1867.
- 1845. Newburyport Female High School, Mass.
- 1846. Sandusky High School, Ohio.
- 1848. Massillon High School, Ohio.
- 1851. Xenia High School, Ohio.
- 1852. Boston Latin School.
- 1852. The Normal School for Female Teachers, Boston.
- 1853. Cincinnati High Schools.
- 1856. Chicago High Schools. French or German required in English course.
- 1864. St. Louis High Schools. Latin, French, or German required.

NOTE.—From this on the study spread rapidly, and by 1869 was found in the high schools of the following cities: Springfield, Mass.; New Haven, Mass.; The Free Academy, Norwich, Conn.; Female High School, Louisville, Ky.; Male High School, Louisville, Ky.; Baltimore; Cambridge; Dubuque; Hartford; Lewiston, Me.; Madison, N. J.; Newark; Niles, Mich.; Portland, Me.; Providence; Terre Haute, Ind.; Worcester, Mass.

The course is in general two years, and with a few exceptions the study is elective.

FRENCH IN PUBLIC AND IN PRIVATE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

A great number of French people came under our flag with the purchase of Louisiana in 1803. With them came the question of French in the public schools; with them came also the French parochial schools, of which more later. French was the language of the schools for many years before the Civil War in the first municipality in New Orleans and in many schools of the parishes of southern Louisiana. However, the war and the years of reconstruction did away with that quite completely. But efforts to have instruction in French put back into the public elementary schools were successful in so far at least as to have it provided for in the constitution of the State in 1879.

The provision regulating the instruction in French in Louisiana as found in the constitution of the State reads in part:

The general exercises in the public schools shall be conducted in the English language and the elementary branches taught therein * * * and it is provided that the elementary branches may also be taught in the French language in those parishes in the State, or localities in said parishes, where the French language predominates, if no added expense is incurred.

This was reenacted in the statutes of 1906, and reads as follows:

Sec. 212. In addition to these, such other branches shall be taught as the State Board of Education and the parish school boards may require: *Provided*, That these elementary branches may also be taught in the French language in those localities where the French language is spoken; but no additional expense shall be incurred for this cause.

This is the only regulation of the sort in the United States, except that there is a similar paragraph in the school law of Maine which provides that "ancient and modern foreign languages can not be taught at the expense of the State fund, unless the school in which they are taught was established before March 8, 1880."

Notwithstanding this legislative sanction, there is no instruction in French to-day in the public elementary schools of the State except in New Orleans, where it is taught after school hours in 15 public elementary schools, to about 1,000 pupils. The expectation is that within another year¹ 2,000 pupils will be under this instruction.

This work is prosecuted by the *L'Alliance Franco-Louisianaise*, founded in 1908 for this express purpose. The society receives an annual subsidy for this work from the French Government through the Alliance Française.

Outside of Louisiana, New York and Boston stand alone in the matter of French in the elementary grades. In the seventies of the past century French was made optional with German in the seventh and eighth grades in New York City. In 1873 there were 1,609 pupils enrolled in these classes. In Boston French was introduced in the elementary grades in the nineties, but was discontinued after a few years, owing mostly to a lack of competent teachers.

In the Boston Latin grammar school French was taught in 1852, and had been for years. In San Francisco French was taught in 1889 in the elementary classes of the four "cosmopolitan schools."²

To-day French is taught, excepting New Orleans as noticed above, in the public elementary schools only in New York City, where it is elective with German and Spanish in the 8 A and 8 B grades. But French is not taught in all the schools. "The study—French, German, or Spanish—to be pursued in any one school shall be determined by the board of superintendents."³

The course of study for elementary schools recommended by the Committee of Fifteen of the National Education Association in 1894 contains one year of foreign language (Latin, French, or German)—five recitations per week—in the eighth grade. It is interesting to note in passing that the United States Commissioner of Education

¹ From 1911.

² Cf. on this question in California: Priestley, H. I. Which language for the grades? *Sierra educational news*, 7: 32-36 (1911).

³ Course of study for the elementary schools of the city of New York, 1907. p. 34.

made a similar recommendation as early as 1868, and that he included Spanish in his options.¹

However, the foreign language in the grades is not making much headway. In spite of vigorous agitation for it, extending over many years, it seems not to be wanted, excepting German.

FRENCH SCHOOLS AND PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS WHICH TEACH FRENCH IN THE UNITED STATES.

French schools, except as mentioned in Chapter I, are found only sporadically outside of Louisiana. The most noteworthy—and these did not devote themselves entirely to French—were: The English-French and Music School, in Philadelphia, a nonsectarian school, founded in 1818, and totaling an attendance of 73 in 1889; the French Home School, of the same city, a Protestant Episcopal institution, founded in 1881, and showing an enrollment of 21 in 1889; and the French and English School for Young Ladies, Washington, D. C., established 1867, with an average attendance of 21, ranging from 7 to 17 years of age.²

In New Orleans there are a half dozen private schools, such as the Guillot Institute for Girls, which give excellent instruction in French. *L'Union Française* conducts a school for girls which has 180 pupils and *La Société du Quatorze Juillet* has a French school for boys with about 100 pupils.

The parochial schools of the Roman Catholic Church in Louisiana have long ago ceased to be French schools, but instruction in the French language is still given in 20 of the 81 parochial and quasi-parochial schools in the diocese of New Orleans, and in 50 per cent of the parochial schools of the diocese of Alexandria. These two dioceses, which embrace the entire territory of the State, had an enrollment of 15,000 children in the schools in 1898, which number is no doubt much greater to-day.³

¹ Barnard's Am. Jour. of Educ., 19: 138.

² The French Protestant College was founded at Lowell, Mass., in 1865, with a view to educating preachers, teachers, and missionaries for the then large immigration of French from Canada. In 1894 the college, having broadened its scope, changed its name to French-American College. To-day it is called American International College. The work has become broader and more diversified than originally planned, but French is still prominent in the school.

³ Data supplied by his Excellency James H. Blank, the archbishop of Louisiana, and the Right Rev. C. Vandover, the bishop of Alexandria.

CHAPTER V.

FIRST INSTRUCTION IN GERMAN IN AMERICA, AND THE GERMAN INFLUENCE ON AMERICAN EDU- CATION.

The first instruction in the German language in America was given in the denominational schools of early German colonists, especially in North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Maryland, at the beginning of the eighteenth century, the first school being founded in Germantown, Pa., in 1702.

As soon as a church was founded—and that was prevalently the first public enterprise—the instruction in catechism and the religious tenets began. The object was to enable the young to understand the German sermons, and to keep certain ideas before them in the home and school. The English language was often entirely excluded from these schools. The preachers were the teachers. They were as much interested in this instruction as were the parents.

But the eighteenth century preachers of the divers sects represented in the colonies were as a class not highly educated, although there were shining exceptions, and the instruction they gave was not of the highest order. And as time passed, the low salaries did not serve to attract abler men. The influence of these schools, however great on the lives of the boys and girls, was not lasting on the status of education generally.¹ A rather adverse estimate of these schools is given by Dr. A. Douai, a German, a reputable schoolman and educator, a leader in the German movement in the United States, who reported to the United States Commissioner of Education on these schools in 1868 as follows:²

During the last two or three decades, it is true, a sufficient number of able German teachers came over from the mother country, so that the character of these denominational schools might have been extensively improved. But there being little intelligence among these congregations and their clergy, they could not understand the requirements of a good school, and that able teachers can not be expected to thrive on so low salaries as from \$200 to \$400 a year, and to perform, into the bargain, the menial work of sextons and attendants to their ministers. Thus it is that hardly half

¹ Mr. L. Viereck, a Prussian, in his monograph, *German Instruction in the United States* (In U. S. Bureau of Education, Report of the Commissioner for the year 1900-1901, pp. 531-706), has made out a very good case for these schools. In his review of Viereck's work in the *Educational Review*, 26:194f., Prof. Grumman has censured this writer's viewpoint as being biased. The work contains much valuable information, and did much to advance the cause of instruction in German in the United States. See also a review of the German original of this work (*Educational Rev.*, 30:314ff.) in which the estimate expressed above is confirmed.

² *Special Report of the Commissioner of Education on the Schools of the District of Columbia, 1868*, p. 582.

a dozen of the several hundred schools of this kind ever have been worthy of the name of schools (among which two deserve honorable mention—the St. Mattheus Church School, in Walker Street, New York, as it was under Director Hardter's leadership, and the "Zion's Schule" in Baltimore, since it came under Dr. Herzog's care), and that from 2,000,000 to 3,000,000 descendants of Germans now in the country have wholly, or almost wholly, lost the understanding and use of their native language.

It is well to remember that although German educational ideas had a great influence in the development of our educational system, and although the private German schools at times were very excellent, the mass of the German immigrants were poor. And thus we find, especially in the early days of the century, efforts to improve the German immigrants by the institution of Anglo-German schools. In Cincinnati¹ two such schools were founded by German Protestants in 1836. They were under the patronage of the Lane Seminary.

The Public Academy of the City of Philadelphia, which later became the University of Pennsylvania, and the curriculum of which was planned by Benjamin Franklin, was the first purely American school in which German and French were taught. From 1754 to 1775 William Creamer was professor of German and French here, and he made the study highly popular in the school.

The first purely German school of academic rank was the German Seminary of Philadelphia, founded in 1773, which flourished until it was swept away by the Revolution. Another short-lived school was the German Institute of the University of Pennsylvania in which a German professor of philosophy was employed, "whose duty it shall be to teach Latin and Greek by means of the German language." (1780.)²

Franklin College, now Franklin and Marshall College, was also founded by Germans in 1786, with a view principally to giving instruction in German.³ However, this new project decentralized the German forces in Pennsylvania, with the result that the German work at the University of Pennsylvania had to be discontinued (1787), while Franklin College also cast off its German tégument, both schools thus discarding their intended function of disseminating German culture and education.

The last quarter of the century brought the Revolution, in which the unfortunate Hessian and Brunswickian soldier-slaves played a part. These poor victims of tyrannical German princes whose sympathies—had but the truth been known to the Colonists—were against monarchy still served thoroughly to discredit the Germans and set the tide against them and in favor of France and French ideas. However, in 1785 Cokesbury College,⁴ which was founded at Abingdon,

¹ Cf. *American annals of education and instruction*, 1836, p. 92. *Ibid.*, 1835, p. 424, where the writer gives the erroneous impression that these schools were maintained by Americans.

² Cf., on the early German schools of Pennsylvania, Learned. In *Americana-Germanica*, II, no. 2.

³ *Barnard's Am. Jour. of Educ.*, 24: 180.

⁴ *Ibid.*, 152.

Md., by the Methodists, provided for instruction in French and German "when the finances of the college will permit."

New England was next to take up the study of German. The Round Hill School at Northampton, Mass., founded in 1823 by Bancroft, the historian, and by Dr. Cogswell, was modeled strictly after German educational ideals. It flourished till 1839. All the students received instruction in German. The German system of gymnastics was also introduced. There was a good deal of interest in German educational institutions in New England at this time. Cotton Mather's part in paving the way for this by his correspondence with Hermann Francke, the educational reformer of Halle, Germany, in the eighteenth century, is well known.¹ Other prominent men connected with this movement are George Ticknor and Edward Everett, who had been students at Göttingen, and the brothers Dwight, who conducted a gymnasium on German models at New Haven, 1828-1831.² The book most influential in turning attention to Prussian schools was Sarah Austin's translation of V. Cousins's Report on the State of Public Instruction in Prussia.³

There were many efforts from time to time on the part of Germans to found educational institutions, with but little success. Their efforts were natural and were met with sympathy. The German, especially the Prussian, system of schools was acknowledged to be the best, and their desire to perpetuate their excellent schools on the new soil can readily be understood. The Germans got less sympathy, however, when they planned German States within the American States, as they did in the early days.⁴

Mention should be made also of the German lyceums which flourished in Pennsylvania in the first half of the nineteenth century, and which were noted and especially valuable and influential in the education of farmers, mechanics, and other laboring classes.⁵

The second and third quarters of the century show a great influence of German educational ideas on the incoming educational institutions of the United States.⁶ In the East divers schools, e. g., Clark and Cornell Universities, and in the West the Universities of Michigan (1837) and Wisconsin (1853), were founded, and planned upon German models.

¹ Cotton Mather and Francke. In *Americana-Germanica*, I, no. 4.

² On the German influence upon our education, cf. Hinsdale. In U. S. Bureau of Educ. Rep. of the Commissioner, 1897-98, pp. 603-629; cf. also Griscom, *John, A Year in Europe*, etc. 2 vols., 1823; Baches, A. D. Report to the trustees of Girard College on education in Europe. Philadelphia, 1839.

³ Report on the State of Public Instruction in Prussia, etc., translated by Sarah Austin. London, 1834, 333 pp.

⁴ On the German Utopias, cf. Faust. The German element in the United States, etc., v. II, p. 194f., and Baker. In *Americana-Germanica*, I, no. 2.

⁵ Cf. Barnard's *Am. Jour. of Educ.*; also *American annals of education and instruction*, 36: 476.

⁶ Cf. Thwing, *American universities*. In U. S. Bureau of Educ. Rep. of the Commissioner, 1903, pp. 293-317; also Hinsdale, *ibid.*, 1897-98, pp. 603-629.

The first normal schools—modeled upon the German *seminar*—founded in Massachusetts in 1839, were rapidly followed by similar institutions in other States. The technical schools, especially those of forestry, were also in great part formed under German influences, as well as, of course, the kindergarten.

Space permits nothing more than a passing mention of the general knowledge of Germany and German institutions which continued to grow apace and of the prominent part which Longfellow and the New England transcendentalists—Emerson, Margaret Fuller, and others—played in this German conquest of America. Longfellow began his famous lectures on Goethe's *Faust* at Harvard in 1838.

Mention should be made also of Carlyle's part in transmitting a knowledge of German literature to the New England school and to Madame de Staël's "Germany" and its widespread influence in America.

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CHAPTER VI.

FIRST INTRODUCTION OF GERMAN IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

Instruction in German at the University of Pennsylvania and the schools out of which it grew began in pre-Revolutionary times, and, with the exception of two periods when there was no regular instruction, it has had a splendid career. Creamer, Kunze, Helmuth, Varin, Bokum were well-known names among the German teachers of America. Haldemann in the nineteenth century brought new glory to his institution, notably by his researches on *Pennsylvania Dutch*; while still later Schaefer and Seidensticker stand out prominently among professors of German.¹

At William and Mary College, Jefferson had succeeded in introducing modern languages as early as 1779, and Prof. Bellini was chosen to teach them. However, the college fell into decay during the Revolution and this professorship was not permanent.

Jefferson's part in the introduction of German and Germanic studies in this country is considerable. He was the first in America to advocate the study of Anglo-Saxon. He brought about its introduction at the University of Virginia in 1825 and himself wrote a book upon Anglo-Saxon which was reprinted as late as 1851.²

A professorship for the German language was established upon the initiative of Thomas Jefferson at the University of Virginia, when that institution opened its doors, in 1825. The study was not compulsory. Dr. Georg Blaettermann was chosen to fill the chair, which he occupied until 1840. He taught also Anglo-Saxon and comparative philology and succeeded in making his entire field highly popular in the university, as well as imparting impetus to other institutions. The University of Virginia was the first university in America to teach the modern languages as carefully as the classical.

In 1825 instruction in German was also begun in Harvard College. A German, Dr. Charles Follen, was that year appointed professor of church history and ethics, and it was arranged that he should try forming a class in German.

¹ Cf. also Montgomery, T. H., *A history of the University of Pennsylvania, etc.*, 566 p., Philadelphia, 1900.

² Cf. Thomas Jefferson as a philologist. *Amer. Jour. of philology*, 3: 211-214.

Knowledge of German was very rare in New England at that time. It is asserted that not more than two or three persons there could read German. But under Dr. Follen's care there must have been rapid progress, and indeed there must have been great simultaneous progress throughout the country, for in 1831 Follen, then made professor of German in Harvard, says in his inaugural speech,¹ "there are now German teachers and German books in all important cities in this country."

German was thus made popular at Harvard, and it is well known how thoroughly also the German university ideals and practices were embraced and embodied in the organization of Harvard University. Within a few years Dr. Follen came out as an abolitionist, and his office was discontinued in 1836.

In 1825 Bowdoin College appointed Henry Longfellow professor of modern languages—German, French, Spanish, and Italian—but the office was temporarily filled by J. H. Abbott until Longfellow returned from abroad in 1830.

Modern languages were taught somehow before 1768 in King's College, now Columbia University. The details are wanting, however.² See also the table appended to this chapter.

In Amherst, German was offered extramurally in 1824, but was not required until 1846, when it was made optional with the one term of French. In 1858 two additional terms of German or French were made requisite, and 10 years later two terms of German were required and two additional were optional. A decade later this required German was dropped.³ See also Chapter III, Chronology.

A detailed account of the instruction in German in Yale and Princeton may be adduced here as typical of the better and larger institutions. German was recognized officially for the first time in 1831 in Yale University but was discontinued after one year. In 1834 another instructor was appointed, from which time the instruction seems to have been continuous. German, as well as French, Spanish, and Italian, was optional, but only for one term, the spring term of the junior year. In 1845, the option was extended to include another term, the winter term of the senior year. In 1856 Prof. William D. Whitney added the instructorship of German to his professorship of Sanskrit. Beginning with this year the college bore the expense of the instruction in modern languages. Thus the situation remained in regard to German until 1872, when Franklin Carter was elected to a professorship in German, created that year, and German was made a required study in the junior year. French

¹ Cambridge, 1831.

² Moore. An historical sketch of Columbia College in the City of New York. New York, 1846. pp. 54-55.

³ See also Hitchcock, Reminiscences of Amherst College. Northampton, Mass., 1863.

and German were made junior and senior electives in 1876. This was changed in 1885, when French or German was made requisite for admission to college, and one modern language was required to be taken during the sophomore year. Two years later this latter requirement was extended to include the freshman year, and, with the subject elective in the junior and senior, it became possible for a student to take German throughout his four years' course.¹

A Princeton man of the class of 1853 writes of modern languages in Princeton in his time:

There is another defect in our college course which should not be passed by without mentioning; this is the utter neglect into which the modern languages have fallen. This is partly on account of the students and is partly the fault of the faculty. An accomplished scholar of a European university would have a poor opinion of a man boasting of a collegiate education yet who could not understand or converse in anything but his mother tongue. Besides, from the nature of our population, these languages are no longer a mere accomplishment, but have become an absolute necessity. The lawyer in any of our large cities, the visitor in the mixed society of Washington, or the traveler in Europe, alike find them all important. 'Tis true the Faculty hires a second-rate teacher at a low salary, who will give lessons in two or three different languages twice a week to all that choose to attend! The idea of a Dutchman lisping the smooth, sweet accents of the Italian or French! But all this aside; if the faculty do not take it in hand seriously, make attendance obligatory, and allow it to enter into the regular grades, it will continue to be neglected and to be looked upon as of no importance.² * * *

The modern languages seem to have been taught even in Revolutionary days in Princeton University, but in the curriculum of that period no mention of the modern languages appears except in the statement that "there is no extra charge for instruction in the French language," or in the notice that "instruction in the French, Spanish, German, and Italian languages is given at the option of the student without extra charge." Class instruction in the modern languages was first begun in the renaissance period of 1868-69. The catalogue for that year states that "the sophomore class will have one weekly exercise in natural history and one in modern languages (French or German)." In the junior and senior years the languages were to be electives. Four years later French was taught in the second term of freshman year for the first time, and the textbook "Otto's Conversation Grammar" is mentioned. German appears in the course of studies as a junior elective, and the textbooks used were "Otto's German Grammar" and "Whitney's German Reader." In the senior year the student could also elect lectures on the history of French and German literature.

Two years later (1874-75) French was taught in freshman year, while German was not touched until junior year. In the following year, however, the school of science offered French as an elective,

¹ Cf. also Report of the president of Yale University, etc., 1903-4, pp. 66-73.

² Princeton alumni weekly, 9: 280 ff.

while German was made a required study. In 1877 German was included in the required studies of the academic department, and at this time there was a "rigid biennial examination in the studies pursued for the first two years." Postgraduate studies were also instituted at this time. In 1882 the students in the school of science had five hours a week of freshman German. In 1894 they had only three, while the C. E. men had none at all. The first mention of an entrance requirement in modern languages is found in the catalogue for 1884-85: "Candidates for the degree of bachelor of science entering in June, 1886, and thereafter will be examined in French, including the elements of grammar and the translation of 50 pages of simple French prose." Strange to say, it was not until 10 years later that German was made an entrance requirement. In this year (1894) a senior elective was offered entitled "Ueber Bakterien, die kleinsten lebenden Wesen."¹

A considerable impetus was given to modern language study in the fifties by its introduction into scientific schools. The Sheffield Scientific School of Yale College (1846) discouraged the teaching of modern languages in the preparatory schools and stated that the thorough study of them was a part of the course at Sheffield Scientific School. The idea back of this was that students in scientific schools must be taught to read foreign languages for professional purposes, but that this instruction as it was then given in the preparatory schools was unsatisfactory.

German had now established itself in the curriculum of the American college and university. The instruction was after the method of teaching Latin and Greek, and the study was linguistic rather than literary. By 1850 the philological tendency had made itself felt in the introduction of Gothic in several institutions.²

German was then making giant strides, in keeping with the spread of German ideas in our educational institutions. In 1870, the United States Commissioner of Education quotes as follows: "The German language has actually become the second language³ of our Republic, and a knowledge of German is now considered essential to a finished education."⁴ In sections of the country thickly settled by Germans this was certainly true. In Pennsylvania, e. g., the message of the governor of the State was translated into German and published, down to 1879.

¹ See also Chap. III, Chronology, for more specific details of this instruction.

² U. S. Bureau of Educ. Rep. of the Commissioner, 1903.

³ The school reports of various States were printed in German, e. g., in Pennsylvania and Indiana as late as 1867, and in New Jersey as late as 1853.

⁴ U. S. Bureau of Educ. Rep. of the Commissioner, 1870, p. 56.

CHRONOLOGY OF THE EARLIEST INTRODUCTION OF GERMAN IN
COLLEGES.

1754. University of Pennsylvania. Prof. W. Creamer, 1754-1775 (French and German); Prof. J. C. Kunze, 1780-1794; Prof. J. H. C. Helmuth, 1784-1791; vacancy, 1791-1823; Rev. F. Varin, 1823-1829; H. Bokum, 1829-1836; vacancy, 1836-1857; S. S. Haldeman, 1869-1880 (comparative philology); C. C. Schaefer, 1857-1867; Prof. O. Seidensticker, 1867-1894.
1784. Columbia College (King's College): Rev. J. D. Gross, S. T. D., 1784-1795, professor of German and geography; Rev. F. C. Schaeffer, 1820-31; Rev. W. Ermenpeutsch, 1832; instructors, 1832-1843; Prof. J. L. Tellkamp, J. U. D., 1843-1847; Prof. H. I. Schmidt, S. T. D., 1847.
1805. College of Charleston, S. C.
1814. Dickinson College. Prof. Claudius Berard (French, Spanish, Italian, and German) 1814-1816; vacancy, 1817-1825; Louis Mayer, S. T. D., 1825-26; vacancy, 1826-1841.
1830. Princeton University¹ (College of New Jersey). Prof. Lewis Hargous, 1830-1836 (French and German); Prof. Jaeger, 1832- (German and Italian).
1831. Wesleyan University (Connecticut). Prof. J. F. Huber (modern languages), 1831-.
1832. Waterville College (Maine). Prof. T. J. Conant, 1832-.
1832. Geneva College (New York). Prof. M. D. Holsten, 1832-.
1832. University of Georgia. Rev. Wm. Shannon, professor of modern languages.
1832. University of Alabama. Prof. S. F. Bonfils, 1832-.
1832. Center College. Rev. Jos. Huber, 1832-.
1833. Miami University. Seniors or graduate students or one of the regular professors, 1833-34; vacancy, 1836-1841; sporadic till 1868.
The catalogue of 1833 says: "French, Spanish, German, and Italian are regularly taught, and two of them at least must be studied to obtain a diploma."

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¹ For particular data on Princeton see p. 37, above. Also McClean, History of the College of New Jersey vol. 2, p. 287, passim and Chap III above.

CHAPTER VII.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF FRENCH AND GERMAN IN HIGHER EDUCATION.

The scientific, or philological, study of German was first taken up in 1876 in Johns Hopkins University, founded in that year, although courses in Gothic had been given elsewhere since 1850. Johns Hopkins, where German was called "the court language of the university," did much for Germanic studies.

But the modern languages had never been put on an equality with the Latin and Greek;¹ often only tutors taught the modern languages, although the University of Virginia claimed long since to teach them as well as Latin and Greek. In 1876 it was advocated by Prof. Joynes, in a paper on "The Position of Modern Languages in the Higher Education"—

that the modern languages be elevated from the merely tutorial position, which they have so often occupied, to a rank and dignity in our higher institutions of learning commensurate with their disciplinary value, with their literary importance, and with their intimate relations to our own language, history, and nation.²

The need of an organization for teachers of the modern languages in secondary and higher schools began to be felt in the seventies. We shall note later the organization of the *Nationaler Deutsch-Amerikanischer Lehrerbund* in 1870. Up to 1883, when the Modern Language Association of America was organized, many of the teachers of modern languages had been members of the American Philological Association. However, there was a growing feeling that this organization did not meet their needs.

There were several signs of the times which encouraged the modern language men, among them Prof. Joynes's paper read before the National Education Association, and quoted above, and the celebrated Phi Beta Kappa address of Charles Francis Adams at the Harvard commencement in 1883, in which he protested against the fetich of Greek in our schools.

¹ Although Harvard University required an entrance examination in French and German, beginning in 1876.

² National Education Association, 1876, p. 111 ff. This paper, entitled "The position of modern languages in the higher education," was reprinted by the Modern Language Association of America, and widely distributed, and no doubt had considerable influence in the matter. I can not refrain here from mentioning, especially, one whose devotion to the cause of modern languages has earned him the gratitude of all teachers, Edward S. Joynes, Professor emeritus of the modern languages in South Carolina College.

At the instance of certain professors of Johns Hopkins University, a call for a meeting of the teachers of modern languages was issued, to be held at Columbia University at the Christmas season 1883. Thirty-two men attended the meeting, organized the Modern Language Association of America, read papers, and appointed a committee to investigate the condition of instruction of modern languages in American colleges. The object of this organization is, as the constitution states, "the advancement of the study of modern languages and their literatures." The historian of the association recounts the various dangers and tests which the organization passed through in its early years,¹ as follows: The foreign fencing master and dancing master (i. e., the ubiquitous, unscholarly native teacher who taught the languages merely as an accomplishment); the natural scientists, who wished to make of modern language a handmaid to natural science; the advocates of catchy methods of instruction; and the extreme philological tendency.

However, the association flourished and became a powerful influence in American education. If it is true that "the chief change in the last 40 years in our educational system has been the ever-growing importance of modern language teaching,"² then the importance of the Modern Language Association is inestimable. And if the statement must needs be modified, the association nevertheless is of national importance and one of the great factors educationally in the United States.

In 1895 the central division of the association was organized at Chicago upon the initiative of representatives of the Universities of Kansas, Nebraska, and Iowa. At least as often as once in four years a joint meeting of the two divisions is held. In 1911 it was held in Chicago. At present the membership of the association numbers 950.

The first notable labor of the association was to collect in two comprehensive reports data on "The present condition of instruction in modern languages in American colleges" in 1884. This investigation, which extended to the whole country, excepting the South, was the first of its kind. Some of the most important passages follow:

We purpose to present briefly the results obtained by this examination.

First. What is shown to be the prevailing usage in requiring one or more of the modern languages for admission?

We find that half a dozen colleges require only one of these languages, and the requisition is extremely meager, not embracing scientific grammar or any definite knowledge of the literature, but an elementary knowledge of forms and the translation of easy phrases. * * *

¹ Modern Language Association. Proceedings, 1903, p. xlii ff.

² Ibid., 1901, p. 77 ff.

An address by Prof. Joynes on "The study of German" was reprinted by E. Steiger & co. in an edition of 20,000 copies, and distributed gratis as an advertisement throughout the United States, and was reprinted by a number of German newspapers. It laid stress on the importance of the study of German for Americans, and no doubt was very influential in spreading the study of German.

The considerations which in our judgment demand that the elements of French and German shall be required of all students before entering college are: That language is acquired with greatest facility when the student is young, and modern languages have a special claim, since their practical use is essential to so many students. If the instruction in French and German is postponed until late in the course a mastery of the language, as well as a comprehensive study of the literature, is impossible. * * *

The second question presented by an examination of this table of courses and study is: What place is assigned to the modern languages?

Out of 50 colleges conferring the degree of bachelor of arts 18, or 36 per cent, offer instruction in French or German in the freshman year, while 22, or 44 per cent, begin the study in the sophomore year; 8, or 16 per cent, in the junior year; and 2, or 4 per cent, in the senior year. In 23 colleges, or nearly one-half of the whole number, the study of one language is not begun until the junior year. * * *

The third question, to which an answer is given in this table, is: What position do French and German occupy in modern college education?

Out of 50 colleges 29, or 58 per cent, require one foreign language; 18, or 36 per cent, require no foreign language for graduation in the arts; and 18, or 36 per cent, require both French and German.

There is a marked difference in the different colleges in the amount of instruction afforded in the modern languages. * * * The minimum is 8 per cent of all the studies of the curriculum, while the maximum of elective hours possible in modern languages reaches 20 per cent of the entire curriculum for the degree of B. A.

Another question which is answered by the table is: What is the order of precedence of these two languages in the judgment of the majority of educators?

The former prominence given to French and the comparatively late introduction of German as an essential part of the college course give French still the precedence in the arrangement of studies. French is studied in three-fourths of our colleges in the first two years. German is begun in a little more than half the colleges during the same period, while in the remainder it belongs to the last half of the course. * * *

Few colleges have a modern language requirement for admission to the course in arts. Of the 50 reported, 3 require French, 2 offer an election between French and German, and 2 require both French and German.

The position assumed at the opening of this paper, that the modern languages should be studied before entering college, receives support from the position of these studies in the German gymnasia.

We find established in the numerous colleges a course sometimes called the Latin-scientific course, but which in a majority of cases is designated as the course in philosophy. This does not require Greek, either for admission or after entering. The place of Greek is supplied usually by an entrance requirement in modern languages. In this course more opportunity is presented for the study of modern languages than in the course in arts which we have just considered. The requirements for admission are considerable, and large opportunity for the study of French and German is afforded. Nearly one-half of the colleges reported contain this course in philosophy, or one in letters of the same general character.

Another important report¹ was read at the meeting of the association in 1884. It shows that the modern languages received but scant attention in the colleges of the South before the Civil War. Data on only 15 colleges of the South enter into the table which was submitted, but as these schools were typical the writer felt sure that the table represented the situation correctly. The table is as follows:

¹ Prepared by Prof. E. S. Joyner.

Summary of instruction in modern languages in 15 colleges and universities in the late Confederate States.

	1860	1884	Gain.	Gain per cent.
Number of professors of modern languages	3	15	12	400
Number of other teachers of modern languages	4	15	11	275
Number of students of modern languages	235	1,210	955	370
Total hours weekly in modern languages	30	268	238	790
Number of courses of study for degrees, including modern languages	5	47	42	840
Total years in any modern language required for degrees	6	36	30	500

The report proceeds as follows:

The institutions from which returns are presented are the following: The University of Virginia; Washington and Lee University, Virginia; Roanoke College, Virginia; Virginia Military Institute; Virginia Agricultural College; West Virginia University; Vanderbilt University, Tennessee; University of Arkansas; South Carolina College; Wofford College, South Carolina; South Carolina Military Academy; University of Louisiana; University of Texas; Southwestern University, Texas; and Austin College, Texas. Many of the institutions from which the most important returns might have been expected are, I regret to say, not reported, notably, the University of North Carolina, the University of Tennessee, the University of Georgia, the University of Alabama, the University of Mississippi, etc.

In many, if not all, of these institutions the work done in modern languages would doubtless fall far below the highest standard. But this is due not so much to shortcomings in the colleges themselves as to the want of good preparatory schools in the South, and applies to modern languages only in common with all other departments in southern colleges. The professors and teachers of modern languages in these colleges are, so far as I know them, men of high qualifications and of earnest purpose. The foundation at least is securely laid, and there is no reason to doubt that the work in this department will be advanced as rapidly as the condition of our southern people may require or permit.

The labors of the association, and they were manifold, are recorded in the volumes of the Publications.¹ They include discussions of pedagogical subjects as well as scholarly treatises. As a supplement to the work of the association, Modern Language Notes was founded by Prof. Elliott.²

The next great step in the matter of methods of teaching was the appointment of the Committee of Twelve in 1896—

to consider the position of modern languages in secondary education; to examine into, and make recommendations on the methods of instruction, the training of teachers, and such other questions connected with the teaching of the modern languages in the secondary schools and colleges as in the judgment of the committee may require consideration.

The report of this committee was foreshadowed and in part anticipated by the report of a commission appointed in 1886 by 15 New England colleges. This report on college entrance requirements in French and German became the basis of the practice in New England.

¹ Quarterly, Cambridge, 1864 to date.

² Baltimore, 1886 to date. Nine issues a year.

Further, the requirements in elementary and intermediate courses demanded by the Committee of Twelve are almost identical with those adopted in New York City in 1896 by representatives of Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Columbia, Cornell, and the University of Pennsylvania, who met in conference with representatives of a number of prominent eastern preparatory schools to formulate a scheme of uniform requirements in modern languages. The plan they proposed became the basis of practice in the schools they represented.¹

The Committee of Twelve reported in 1898 to both the Modern Language Association and the National Education Association, which had indorsed the committee.² The main principles and propositions of the report are as follows: After a statement of the aims of the investigation and the means and methods employed in conducting it, there follows an exposition of the various methods of instruction in use in the teaching of modern languages.

The report contends that "if a foreign language is taken up in the primary grades, it should always be optional"; further, it is not worth while, as a rule, to take up the study of a foreign language in the primary grades unless the beginner intends to continue it through the secondary school, and when foreign language is taught in the primary grades it should be taught by teachers who handle the language easily and idiomatically.

The committee proposed three national grades of preparatory instruction in modern languages, viz, elementary, intermediate, and advanced courses of two, three, and four years' duration, respectively.

The work being supposed to begin in the first year of a four-year high-school course, and to proceed at the uniform rate of four recitations per week. The elementary course is designed to furnish the minimum of preparation required by a number of colleges, in addition to the Latin and Greek of the classical preparatory course. The intermediate course is designed to furnish the preparation required by many colleges which permit the substitution of a modern language for Greek. The advanced course is designed to furnish the highest grade of preparation of which the secondary school will ordinarily be capable in a four-year course.

In the elementary course in French (two years) the pupil should be taught to pronounce French accurately and to read at sight easy French prose, to put into French simple English sentences taken from the language of everyday life, or the text read, and the rudiments of elementary grammar, and should read from 350 to 575 duodecimo pages of French. In the intermediate course (third year) he should be taught to read at sight ordinary French prose or simple poetry, to translate into French connected passages based on texts read, should obtain a knowledge of syntax, and should read from 400 to 600 pages of French of ordinary difficulty.

¹ For the text of the resolutions see Educational rev., 11: 497-499.

² For the full report, see U. S. Bureau of Educ., Rept. of the Commissioner, 1897-98, pp. 1391-1433; or Nat. Educ. Assoc., 1899, pp. 707-755.

In the advanced course (fourth year) the pupil should be taught to read difficult prose, and, with the help of a vocabulary of the special terms, to carry on a simple conversation in French. He should read from 600 to 1,000 pages of French, and write short themes frequently.

In the elementary course in German (two years) the pupil should be taught pronunciation, etymology, the chief rules of syntax, colloquial phrases, translation of easy prose into German, and should read from 225 to 300 pages of easy German.

The intermediate course (third year) should enable him to read at sight German prose of ordinary difficulty, and to translate into German a connected passage of simple English. The third year's work should include the reading of 400 pages of moderately difficult prose or poetry and continue drill on grammar.

In the advanced course (fourth year) 500 pages of good literature, reference reading, etc., should be done, together with translation of English into German, and frequent writing of short themes.

Suggestions to the teacher are added, together with bibliography and specimen examination papers for admission to college.

This is a most valuable report and has become the basis of all of our practice throughout the country, although of late years there have been many suggestions of a revision to bring the report up to meet the changed and improved conditions.

The second great organization of modern language teachers in America is the *Nationaler Deutsch-Amerikanischer Lehrerbund*, an association of teachers of German, founded in 1870 at Louisville, Ky., which has aimed at "the introduction of German educational ideals and practice into our schools," e. g., the kindergarten, manual training, athletics, and normal training for teachers.

The organ of the Lehrerbund, *Die Amerikanische Schulzeitung*, was founded in 1870, but was replaced by *Erziehungsblätter für Schule und Haus*,¹ in 1874. This was in turn displaced by *Die Pädagogischen Monatshefte* in 1899, and since then renamed *Monatshefte für deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*² under the editorship of Max Griebisch and Edwin C. Roedder.

All of these publications have been very influential in giving standing to the teachers of German, especially those in the elementary schools, and in advancing the cause of instruction in German in our public schools.

An excellent statement of the guiding ideas and aims of the Lehrerbund is given by a one-time president of the organization as follows:³

The organization of German-American teachers known as "Nationaler Deutsch-amerikanischer Lehrerbund" has not received hitherto the cooperation of academic teachers of German which it deserves and invites, but now the time seems ripe for a closer affiliation between the "Lehrerbund" and the professors of German in American colleges and universities. * * *

¹ *Americana-Germanica*, I: 3, 104.

² Milwaukee, Wis., monthly (10 numbers a year).

³ Learned, in *Pädagogische Monatshefte*, 6 (1899).

The first organization of German teachers in America, the "Lehrerbund," now in the thirtieth year of its existence, directed its attention for years to the exclusive interests of the lower and secondary schools, which formed in themselves, so to speak, a system of German instruction culminating in that center for German teachers in America, the "Lehrerseminar," in Milwaukee. Within the past few years the Germans have awakened to the fact that they have made a great contribution to American culture, but that, while Americans have been appropriating German culture, going by hundreds to study at German universities, the German youths in this country have been discarding and even despising the *Muttersprache*, thus imperiling the future of the German language and life in America. Accordingly these Germans have organized the American-German League. Every possible effort is being made by them to improve the teaching of German in both German and English schools, not to the exclusion of English, but simultaneously with it. All these forces—the "Lehrerbund," the associations of teachers of German in the various States, and the American-German League—have mobilized and lined up with the associations of academic professors in the cause of modern language instruction—in this case in the cause of German in the schools. * * *

This, then, is the work which clamors for the cooperation of all academic and secondary teachers of German—that the language, wherever it is taught, should be taught correctly and intelligently by trained teachers who are willing to make it their life work.

Toward the accomplishment of this result the "Lehrerbund" offers:

1. The advantages of a thoroughly organized association, with the experience of 30 years, during which time it has accumulated a vast amount of valuable material, which has been published in the official organ, recorded in the "Protokoll," or transmuted into improved methods. It has a creditable standing in America, and is in close touch with European education.

2. An opportunity, especially at the annual meeting (Lehrertag), to promote mutual acquaintance between German teachers and teachers of German of all grades and to discuss questions of vital interest.

3. A definite plan for the improvement of the teaching of German in the schools by advocating (a) a thorough speaking knowledge of German on the part of all teachers of the language; (b) the introduction of a full course of four years of German in the high schools; (c) the teaching of German in the lower grades as far as it is advisable; (d) the use of German as the medium of instruction where the conditions will permit; (e) the emphasizing of a careful use of German in the German home, in order to preserve the purity of the idiom in America, and to secure to the youth of German extraction the bilingual advantages to which the accident of birth entitles them.

4. A well-equipped "Lehrerseminar," which devotes itself to the training of primary and secondary German teachers, eliciting the attention of academic men by the thoroughness of its work. There are in this institution greater possibilities, which might result in the development of a national German-American normal school in the higher and ideal sense of the term (such as none of our normal schools has yet been or bids fair to become), a "Pädagogium," supplementing the work of the colleges and universities, and forming a recruiting station for teachers who already hold the degree of A. M. or Ph. D., and aspire to permanent careers in the high schools and secondary schools of the land.

5. A medium of publication, through its official organ, open to all teachers of German, for the interchange of views touching methods, books, administration, and other vital subjects. * * *

6. The greatest thing the "Lehrerbund" offers is the opportunity of cooperation between the hitherto rather exclusive German teachers and their altogether too indifferent English-speaking colleagues, thus opening the way to a harmonious union of educational forces which must lead to a better understanding and to a well-organized system of national education. It is, after all, the teachers of America who are the medium of cultural intercourse and of friendly feeling between Germany and America.

The Lehrerbund holds an annual *Lehrertag* for the reading of papers, for discussions, etc. The present president of the Lehrerbund is Dr. H. H. Fick, of Cincinnati.

It is not possible to mention here all the numerous organizations devoted wholly or in part to instruction in modern languages. Reference should be made, however, to Association of German Teachers of California, the Association of German Teachers of Pennsylvania, the Association of French Teachers of New Orleans, the Modern Language Teachers' Association of New York, with several sections, and the New England Modern Language Association. In addition, most of the State teachers' associations have a modern-language section.

Of the journals which devote themselves to the work of the study and propagation of modern languages in America the following must be mentioned: *Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und Pädagogik* and the *Publications of the Modern Language Association*, including *Modern Language Notes*. This latter journal was founded in 1885 by the Modern Language Association of America for the reception of short articles and notes of a scholarly character on the modern languages, and was edited under the direction of Prof. A. Marshall Elliott until his death in 1911.¹

In 1897 *Americana Germanica*, a quarterly, was founded by Prof. M. D. Learned at the University of Pennsylvania with the design to give expression to the literary, linguistic, and cultural relations of Germany and America. The journal changed its name to *German-American Annals* in 1903, and is now issued monthly.² It is the organ of the German-American Historical Society, the Union of Old German Students in America, the National German-American Alliance, and the *Deutscher Pioneer Verein*.

The *Journal of Germanic Philology*³ was founded in 1897 at the University of Indiana by Gustav Karsten. This scholarly journal, since 1905 called *Journal of English and Germanic Philology*, and since the death of Prof. Karsten under the management of Prof. Julius Goebel, is devoted to Germanic philology in the broad sense.

Modern Philology,⁴ founded at the University of Chicago in 1903, with Prof. Philip Allen as managing editor, is academic in character, and receives articles on the philology of the modern languages. The managing editor is now Prof. John M. Manly.

The *Romantic Review*, founded in 1910 by Profs. H. A. Todd and Raymond Weeks, seeks to do for the Romance languages what the *Journal of English and Germanic Philology* does for the Germanic.⁵

¹ Baltimore, monthly, except July, August, and September, 1886, to date.

² Philadelphia.

³ Now, *Journal of English and Germanic Philology*, University of Illinois. (Quarterly.)

⁴ University of Chicago Press. (Quarterly.)

⁵ Columbia University Press. (Quarterly.)

The international correspondence of school children and teachers must be mentioned as an agency in the work in modern-language instruction. Space forbids giving a full account of the movement. The work, started in 1896 in France and England, has spread to include Germany and Italy as well as the United States.

Prof. Magill's paper upon the subject before the Modern Language Association in 1899 led to the appointment of a committee by the association to study the matter and its possibilities and report at the next meeting.¹ The report, which gives a history of the movement, was accepted and published.² In 1901 the work was organized with a bureau at Swarthmore College, Pennsylvania, where 595 applications for foreign correspondence were received. In 1903 there were 549 applications, but in 1904 the number of applications fell off, and great difficulties in getting foreign correspondents being encountered, the committee begged to be dismissed, and recommended that the work be abandoned.³ Accordingly it was given up, and has since not been taken up systematically.

Viereck's book, "German Instruction in the United States" (1900), mentioned above, seeks to give an account of German instruction since the beginning of the eighteenth century. He takes up first the parochial schools of the early German colonists, the early visits of American schoolmen to Germany, and the first efforts to introduce German in American colleges. In the beginning of the nineteenth century the first professorships of German were established and German private schools began to spring up. The public schools now took up German, and the private German schools died. Viereck also calls attention to American students at German universities. The third epoch extends from 1876 to 1900, the beginning being marked by the founding of Johns Hopkins University. The German language and literature are now treated as a scientific study in our universities and colleges. The growth of the study of German in all classes of schools is dwelt on, and the hope entertained that it may become obligatory on all who wish to enter college; 40 pages are devoted to lists of courses and statistics of attendance at the leading colleges and universities, and 16 pages to biographies of Germanists of the United States. The book had a powerful influence in the cause of German instruction.

For want of space, university and graduate instruction in modern languages can not be taken up here. Viereck, in the work quoted, has given a good prospectus of this work in 1900. Since then the work has grown in magnitude and improved in quality.

The New England Modern Language Association was founded at Boston in 1903, with the intention to bridge over the gap in the

¹ Modern Language Association. Publications, 1899. XXII.

² Ibid., 1900. XIVff. Cf. also Magill, *Sixty-five years in the life of a teacher*. Boston and New York, 1907.

³ Ibid., 1902, XXXIIIff; 1903, XXIII; 1904, XIII; 1905, VIII.

teaching of modern languages between the colleges and secondary schools. Its objects are stated more explicitly as follows:

1. Objects of the association: To promote friendly relations among teachers of modern languages; to conduct investigations and answer questions in the field of modern language teaching.

• II. Business of the association: (a) To ask questions; (b) to study and answer them; (c) to tabulate, record, and file results.

(a) Asking questions: Every member of the association is requested to propose topics for investigation. * * * Such topics may be: (1) Information that will help members going abroad to study; summer courses, teachers, schools, boarding places, etc. (2) Provision for leave of absence and stipends to enable teachers to go abroad for study. (3) Would the colleges prefer intensive rather than extensive teaching in the secondary schools? * * * (4) Do the technical schools wish the secondary schools to read science in their modern language courses? (5) Modern language texts. (6) Modern language teaching in Germany, France, and England.

(b) Studying and answering the questions. For geographical reasons it will be found advantageous for the members to be organized into groups. * * * Each group shall provide the place for its own meeting at its own expense. Periodicals and books desired for the work of any group are to be ordered by the leader of the group, of the treasurer, who on the approval of the board will procure them. Such publications are to be the property of the association. They are to be properly labeled by the librarian of the group first receiving them, and to be circulated from group to group as the board may direct.

(c) Recording results: The results of all investigations are to be recorded on cards of convenient and uniform size, arranged and kept in suitable cases by the librarian. These files will, it is hoped, furnish members with: (1) A bibliography of books and articles treating of any question of interest to teachers of modern languages, each card bearing a brief signed résumé of the book or article in question. (Cf. the treatment in Breyman's Reformliteratur.) (2) A treasury of information concerning residence and study abroad. (3) A synopsis of the proceedings of the association and the results of its discussions and investigation.¹

The transactions of the association are recorded in one volume.² The work of the association in bettering teaching in New England and, indirectly, throughout the whole country, is incalculable.

In 1904 the Germanistic Society of America was founded in New York City. The second article of its constitution tells its object as follows:

The object of the society is to promote the knowledge and study of German civilization in America and of American civilization in Germany by supporting university instruction on these subjects, by arranging public lectures, by publishing and distributing documents, and by other means adapted to the ends for which the society is established.

The society has maintained a lectureship on the history of German civilization at Columbia University since 1905, and every year since this time one or more eminent German professors or authors were brought to the United States and gave series of lectures on tours throughout the country. The most recent among these visitors are • Ernst von Wolzogen and Max Herzog, novelists.³

¹ Geddes, *New England modern language association, an historical sketch*. -Boston, D. C. Heath, 1907.

² Published by Glinn & Co., Boston, 1905 to date, containing 7 parts.

³ The activities of the Germanistic society of America, New York. (Address: Prof. R. Tombo, Columbia University, New York City.)

STATISTICS OF GERMAN AND FRENCH IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES
IN 1910.¹

Data collected by questionnaire and from catalogues in 1910 afford the following summaries: Of 340 colleges and universities of the United States, 101 required French or German, or both, one to four years, for entrance. In all other cases with rare, if any, exceptions, modern language will be accepted for entrance.² Of these schools, 210 required French or German in varying amounts for graduation, in one or more courses. Where no modern language was required, it was optional in varying amounts.

Of the 340 schools, 328 taught French; 112 taught it more than four years, 50 taught it four years, 90 three years, 68 two years, and 8 only one year.

Of these 340 schools, all but 3 taught German; 149 taught it more than four years, 74 four years, 73 three years, 35 two years, and 4 only one year.³

German I was taught 4 hours per week on an average (297 courses investigated); German II was taught 3.4 hours per week (294 courses investigated); German III was taught 3.5 hours per week (261 courses investigated); and German IV was taught 2.9 hours per week (188 courses investigated).

French I was taught 3.9 hours per week on an average (290 courses investigated); French II was taught 3.5 hours per week (286 courses investigated); French III was taught 3.3 hours per week (228 courses investigated); and French IV was taught 2.8 hours per week (149 courses investigated).

In modern languages full professors taught 15.8 hours per week on an average (162 schools reporting), assistant professors taught 15 hours per week (68 schools reporting), and instructors taught 15.2 hours per week (76 schools reporting).

Of the teachers of German, 70.8 per cent have resided in Germany (174 schools reporting), and 68.5 per cent of the teachers of French have resided in France (174 schools reporting). Of the teachers of German, 23.8 per cent are natives of Germany (174 schools reporting), and 11.4 per cent of the teachers of French are natives of France (174 schools reporting).

¹ Summarized from detailed tabulations in the possession of the author.

² For purposes of comparison, entrance requirements in modern languages of a number of colleges in 1886 may be seen in Rep. of Commissioner of Educ., 1886-87, pp. 635-641.

³ These conditions may be compared with those of 1886 as shown in Rep. of Commissioner of Educ., 1888-89, pp. 1224-1233.

CHAPTER VIII.

EARLY INTRODUCTION OF GERMAN IN ACADEMIES AND PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS.

New England pioneered in the matter of modern languages in academies.¹ Most of the early academies taught modern languages, prevalently French, but some German.²

The English Quaker School, in Philadelphia, had the first real German teacher, Franz Daniel Pastorius, who taught there from 1698 to 1700, when he went to take charge of the first German school in America, the one at Germantown, Pa., in 1702.

The Moravian schools in Pennsylvania were open to young ladies and gentlemen of the Moravian denomination. These schools taught German since 1742, when the first boarding school for girls was opened in Germantown. It was in charge of Benigna, the daughter of Count Zinsendorf, the founder of the Moravian, or United Brethren Church, who had followed her father to America. A number of similar institutions for girls and others for boys were founded and successfully carried on for 20 years, until the communistic economy of the Moravians was dissolved, when they were closed. German was the language of the schools at first, but the English soon took first place.

During the stirring times of the French and Indian War, when Bethlehem was a frontier post, and again in the War of the Revolution, after the defeat of Washington at Brandywine, thousands of wounded Federal soldiers were quartered upon the Moravian towns. The Americans—among them Gens. Washington, La Fayette, and Woodward; Col. Armstrong, John Hancock, Samuel Adams, and many others—had an opportunity of observing the Moravian manner of life and the efficiency of their schools.

Thus it came that the Moravians were urged to open their schools to the sons and daughters of others than their own denomination. Accordingly, in 1782, the General Synod passed a resolution, empowering the American executive board to undertake a more public

¹ As early as 1763 Dummer's Academy was opened at Newbury, although not incorporated until 1782; Phillips Exeter was founded in 1778 and incorporated in 1780; the Academy of Leicester was incorporated in 1784; the academy at Hingham was established in 1784; Dearborn's Academy, in Boston, and the academy at Marblehead were established in 1780; Washington Academy, Machias, Me., was founded in 1792; and the academy at Hallowell, Me., in 1791. Mention should be made also of Taunton Academy, incorporated 1792; Williamstown Academy, founded 1790; and Westford, founded 1792.

² C. D. Ebeling. *Erdbeschreibung und geschichte von Amerika*. 1. Band. Hamburg, 1793, p. 302 f. Cf. also Harnard's *Am. Tour of Educ.*, 30: 777 ff. Also Hammond, *New England academies and classical schools, etc.*, Boston, 1877.

system of education, and authorized Bishop John de Watteville, then in this country, to undertake the organization.¹

There had been a school for girls at Bethlehem since 1749. This was now reorganized and remodeled, and opened in the fall of 1785 in the interests of the American public as a boarding school for girls, under the care of the Moravian Church. German was taught here from the beginning. The school exists to-day under the name "Moravian Seminary and College for Women."

The "Pedagogium or Boarding School" of the Moravians, at Nazareth, Pa., which was opened October 3, 1785, employed at first only the German language in the instruction, and as a colloquial language in the school it persisted until past the middle of the nineteenth century. There were two teachers, both German, at the opening, and the principal, C. G. Reichel, was also a German. Reichel had received a good training as an assistant in a Moravian school at Niesky, Germany.

For some years only Moravian youths were instructed, but later American and Indian youths were also accepted. The boys were required to use English and German three days of the week alternately in their intercourse.

The enrollment numbered from 63 at the opening to 295 in 1810.²

In 1790 the seminary building had become too small; there were then 88 pupils and the number was rapidly growing. Among the pupils we find the names of many distinguished families of colonial and later times.³

Private academies in this section were also early to introduce the study of German; as, e. g., the Academy of Philadelphia in 1749 and the Salem Female Academy in 1804; and, following the lead of the colleges, the practice became typical after 1830.

The Kentucky academies, upward of 30 of which, including Transylvania Seminary, were incorporated between 1783 and 1798,⁴ did not teach German but inclined to French, which they took up about the year 1799.

North of the Ohio, where with the second quarter of the century the Germans began to flock in, we find as early as 1831 the German private elementary schools in the city of Cincinnati quite overshadowing the public schools; 400 children attended the latter, while 1,500 were found in the private and denominational German schools. To attract more children of Germans to the public schools, instruction in German was introduced in the schools in 1840.

¹ Reichel. A history of the rise, progress, and present condition of the Bethlehem Female Seminary, etc. Philadelphia, 1868.

² Reichel. A history of Nazareth Hall.

³ Hamilton, J. Taylor. The early Moravian contribution to liberal education in eastern Pennsylvania. Easton, 1901. (An address.)

⁴ Bernard's Am. Jour. of Educ., 24 : 228.

We find German now fast entering the academies of the region. Woodward College, Cincinnati, gave a course in German in 1837, taught by Dr. W. Nast, who became the founder of German Methodism in America.

The oldest and most typical college of this region, Miami University, had likewise taken up instruction in German about 1830, a step which tended to make the study more frequent in the tributary schools round about.

The value of modern languages as a study was soon recognized by the secondary schools. They, "from their importance and high literary merit, can no longer be omitted in any scheme of liberal education."¹ By the middle of the century German may be considered a typical study in the better academies of this region.

GERMAN IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS.

In 1858, Dr. Wimmer, a German educator, writes concerning the instruction in modern languages in the high schools of the United States as follows:

I come now to a weak point, it seems to me, in your English high school. I mean the want of good instruction in modern languages. You may point to the English, but as the mother tongue of the pupils it wants that which is so instructive in Latin and any other foreign language, and then, beautiful as it is, it is too simple in structure to be a sufficient groundwork for grammatical discipline.

But the modern languages, i. e., German and French, were taught in the principal cities, although, it seems, not well. Such instruction grew rapidly after 1850, upon the influx of educated Germans in 1848, and because of the growing influence of certain colleges and universities which had given sanction to the study of German and French.

The typical high-school course in Ohio included four years of German (optional) in 1876.² A typical table showing number of students pursuing various studies in Ohio high schools in 1874-75³ gives 89 students in German, 63 in French, 42 in Latin, 38 in English literature.

The feeling of teachers on the matter of German in the public schools is aptly characterized by U. T. Curran, president of the Ohio Teachers' Association, in his inaugural address before that body in 1873.⁴

Without doubt, the English will be the language of this country. But the law authorizes the teaching of German in our schools, and it is highly proper that it should be taught. The memories of fatherland are sweet, and the sound of the mother tongue on the lips of the child makes the father feel that his child is not separated

¹ Annual catalogue of Pleasant Hill Academy, Ohio, 1836, p. 12.

² A history of education in the State of Ohio. Columbus, Ohio, 1878, p. 131.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 173 f.

⁴ Ohio Teachers' Association. Proceedings of the 25th annual meeting, p. 9 f.

from him. The vast storehouse of the German needs but this key to place its riches at the command of him who can use it. There are difficulties presented in the management of our schools where two languages are taught at once. The best experience has taught us that the lines of instruction should be parallel.

The power of thinking in two languages will counterbalance any supposed deficiency in either, and the two languages will give, in their reciprocal influence upon each other, linguistic culture, and will render pupils better trained than those who have drawled through the abstract formulæ of so-called English grammar.

BRIEF CHRONOLOGY OF EARLY INSTRUCTION IN GERMAN IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

1838. Free Academy. (College of the City of New York.)
 1849. Massillon, Ohio.
 1853. Cincinnati, Ohio. Professorship of German. Three years. Optional with French.
 1856. Lancaster, Ohio.
 1864. Newark, N. J.
 1866. Toledo, Ohio.
 1867. Terre Haute, Ind.
 1867. Central High School, Philadelphia. Taught probably since 1839. Three years.¹
 1867. St. Louis. Optional with Latin in first and second and with Latin or French in third and fourth years of general course.
 1868. Defiance, Ohio. Two years.
 1869. New Haven, Conn. Optional with Latin, Greek, or French. Two years.
 1869. Louisville (Ky.) Male High School. Required two years.
 1869. Louisville (Ky.) Female High School. Optional with French; two years.²
 1873. Sandusky, Ohio.
 1874. Columbus, Ohio.
 1875. Hillsboro, Ohio.³

From the seventies on, the growth of German as a high-school branch is rapid. The first statistics on the numbers studying German in high schools show that 14 per cent of the students in the public secondary schools studied German; in public secondary schools, partly supported by the State, 3 per cent; in private secondary schools for girls, 9 per cent; in private secondary schools for boys, 20 per cent; in private secondary schools for both sexes, 8 per cent.

The total number of students in all secondary schools was 181,116, of whom 11 per cent, or 19,938, studied German.⁴

The percentages for the five geographical divisions of States for 1886-87 are as follows: North Atlantic, 10 per cent; South Atlantic, 10 per cent; South Central, 5 per cent; North Central, 18 per cent; Western, 5 per cent.⁵

¹ See Edmonds, F. S. History of the Central High School of Philadelphia, Phila., 1902. In 1859, when an Italian named Romain Lujjeans was elected professor of German for the high school of Philadelphia, the German citizens launched a remonstrance against his being allowed to occupy the office.

² German was taught also in 1869 in the high schools at Baltimore, Dubuque, Hartford, Madison, N. J., and Worcester, Mass.

³ German was taught also in 1876 in the high schools at Newark, Portsmouth, Canton, Ripley, Steubenville, Circleville, Dayton, and Youngstown, all in Ohio.

⁴ U. S. Bureau of Educ. Rep. of the Commissioner, 1886-87, p. 512 ff.

⁵ These averages may be taken to be too low because of the "not distributed" column. Ibid., pp. 513-16.

In 1887-88, 13.06 per cent of the 63,261 students in private secondary schools of all classes studied German, the highest per cent, 22.29 per cent, being found in schools for boys; in schools for girls 15.34 per cent and in schools for both sexes 9.95 per cent studied German.

Of the 64,584 students in public high schools, 14.82 per cent studied German in the same year.¹

Proportion of pupils in secondary schools who studied German at the dates named.²

Year.	Public high schools.	Private academies, etc.	All secondary schools.	Year.	Public high schools.	Private academies, etc.	All secondary schools.
	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
1886-87			11.00	1896-97	12.42	18.84	13.76
1887-88	14.00	13.06	13.94	1897-98	13.25	18.45	14.24
1888-89				1898-99	14.01	19.04	14.91
1889-90	10.61	13.55	11.48	1899-1900	14.33	18.47	15.06
1890-91	15.92	15.10	15.68	1900-1901	15.45	19.31	15.09
1891-92	10.43	14.46	11.61	1901-2	16.25	20.33	16.94
1892-93	11.92	15.63	13.00	1902-3	17.63	20.74	18.09
1893-94	11.77	15.25	12.78	1903-4	18.69	20.74	18.98
1894-95	11.40	16.07	12.58	1904-5	20.25	20.89	20.34
1895-96	12.00	17.46	13.20	1905-6	20.96	21.64	21.04

The secondary schools for boys show the highest percentages in all languages, except French, in which the schools for girls take precedence.³

In 1886-87, 61 per cent of the public and partly public schools; of private schools for girls, 75 per cent; of private schools for boys, 74 per cent; and of private schools for both sexes, 52 per cent report students in German or French.⁴

In 1904-5 there were 137,661 pupils in German in the public high schools of the United States, of whom 60,389 were in the North Atlantic States and 61,303 in the North Central Division. In private secondary schools there were 22,405 pupils studying German, 12,242 of whom were in the North Atlantic States.⁵

The latest figures collected by the Commissioner of Education give 151,454 students of German in the public high schools and 22,020 in private secondary schools in the United States.⁶

In 1894, of 80 public high schools distributed throughout the principal cities of the United States, 34 per cent offered a two years' course, 33 per cent a three years' course, and 33 per cent a four years' course.

¹ On the allotment of time to the modern language, see U. S. Bureau of Educ., Rep. of the Commissioner, 1887-88, pp. 486-9, 491-3, 506.

² From Rep. of U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1907, vol. 2, pp. 1060-62.

³ *Ibid.*, 1886-87, p. 509.

⁴ *Ibid.*, 1886-87, p. 567. On the ratio of students studying modern languages in public and private secondary schools, cf. Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1890-91, p. 807. On numbers studying German and French in individual schools, also proportion of girls and boys in these studies, cf. Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1890-91, pp. 1202-1301; see also *ibid.*, 1886-87, pp. 544-59.

⁵ *Ibid.*, 1905, pp. 836, 842.

⁶ *Ibid.*, 1906, pp. 669, 701.

In 1904, of 160 high schools in the principal cities of the United States; 25 per cent offered a two years' course, 36 per cent a three years' course, and 23 per cent a four years' course.¹

Data collected by the writer in 1910 show that of 50 high schools in the principal cities of the United States, 66 per cent offer four years of German, 22 per cent offer three-year courses, and 12 per cent offer two-year courses—i. e., German is taught in 100 per cent of these schools.²

The method of teaching in these schools is as follows: Grammar, translation, and composition, 13; grammar, reading, and composition, 12; grammar and translation, 3; grammar and reading, 10; direct, 6. The methods in the remaining schools could not be ascertained.

Remarkable growth is reported also from several sections of the country where special studies of the matter have been made. In California the growth has been mostly in German. In 1900, 38 per cent of the accredited high schools taught two years of German; in 1908 the per cent had risen to 98, and in 35 schools the courses had been lengthened to three or four years. About 72 per cent of all high schools teach German.³

Similar studies have been made for New England,⁴ the Northwest,⁵ and Ohio.⁶ They have been generalized in the data on the United States as a whole above.

In 1893 the Committee of Ten of the National Education Association recommended three years of French or German for the classical and Latin-scientific courses; four years of French and three of German (or vice versa) for the modern language course, and four years of Latin, French, or German in the English course of high schools.

This course has been repeatedly indorsed, as, e. g., by the Bureau of Education in its exhibit at the World's Fair, at St. Louis,⁷ and may be taken to be the norm observed in our secondary schools to-day.⁸

As to high-school instruction in modern languages, there is much room for improvement. In only a small per cent of the schools is it excellent. In the early years it was entirely under the influence

¹ School review (1906), 254 ff.

² The facts which Ferren, *Americana-Germanica*, 2: 83f, gives should have been supplemented by referring to the Reports of the Commissioner of Educ., 1886-87, 1887-88, 1890-91.

³ Data supplied by Prof. H. K. Schilling from manuscript.

⁴ Publications N. Eng. Mod. Lang. Assn., Vol. I, No. 5a.

⁵ Fowler. Publications Mod. Lang. Assn., Vol. XXVI, pp. lxxiv-xcvi.

⁶ Handachin. Instruction in French and German in Ohio. In *Miami Bulletin*, February, 1911. 18 p. U. S. Bureau of Educ. Rep. of the Commissioner, 1903, p. 1183. See also *ibid.*, 1907, p. 1049. For statistics on German in secondary schools of the Central West in 1910 see *Modern language association. Publications*, 26. lxxxiv f.

⁷ For typical courses in French and German in the United States see John F. Brown. *The American high school*. pp. 415-424.

of collegiate instruction. College professors wrote almost all of the textbooks that were used, and they were written from the college teacher's point of view. While they were well adapted to college instruction, they were very poor as high-school texts. Thus, the grammars were too full and too technical; the reading texts made up of a grade or species of literature little adapted to adolescents, being either too difficult or containing too mature thought, or too much of the erotic, etc.

This condition has not entirely passed; it prevails to-day, and at an early date should be taken up by the educational societies. It is not that there are not suitable texts for secondary instruction to-day (although their number is still not large enough and their quality and arrangement are not always the best); but since the choice of texts lies either with inexpert boards of education or officers of administration, or, what is equally bad, with poorly qualified and inexperienced teachers, the proper choice is often not made.

What we need is a *Lesekanon*, which should be set up (allowing some latitude to the individual teacher) by the National Education Association and the Modern Language Association, and which should then be indorsed by the various State organizations and educational departments.

Again, not only did the college professor write the high-school texts, but his students became the high-school teachers, thus still further fixing the college methods upon high-school instruction. There is, of course, no reason why college graduates should not teach in high schools—in fact, there is every reason for it—but on only one condition can it be productive of good secondary instruction, namely, on condition that the college and university professor continue to pay increasing attention to high-school pedagogy and to pedagogy in general, as he has begun to do in recent years.

Another defect of high-school instruction has been and is the general unpreparedness of the teachers. Anyone—thus the common opinion seems to run—who has had a year or two of German or French is capable of teaching these subjects. More than once in the past few years have students of the writer been employed to teach German after having had a course of two years, or even one year, in German. If administrative officers and boards only knew it, they could get those who are better prepared for the work at the same price. Why hire a man to teach German or French who has been trained to teach mathematics or English? A little more discrimination, a little wider outlook upon available candidates, a higher conception of the training necessary for this work, and we shall be much better off.

Not all colleges—and, naturally, not all normal schools—are prepared to train teachers of modern languages. If modern-language

teachers were drawn prevalently from schools specializing in this branch, better service would be obtained.

Again, teachers may have the necessary reading and grammatical knowledge, and may be very deficient in the spoken language. But all those who have followed the trend of events in the teaching of modern languages know that, at the least, a considerable proficiency in speaking is a *sine qua non* in the efficient modern-language teacher. Some training schools pay no attention whatsoever to this side of the instruction.

Often, also, high-school teachers have not the necessary knowledge of the materials of instruction, and often not even the knowledge of sources whence these materials are to be derived. Unless the teacher has had a thorough course in the materials and the bibliography of his subject, he is not fit to plan and to conduct a high-school course.

The preparation of high-school teachers of modern languages must be improved not only by providing better training in the colleges, universities, and training schools, but by encouraging foreign travel for the teacher. In those European countries which have the best instruction in modern languages the importance of foreign sojourn is fully appreciated; so thoroughly, in fact, that the Government subsidizes young and promising teachers for the purpose of foreign travel and residence. We have not yet arrived at this stage in the United States; but we shall, no doubt, and soon. Without this our progress will be slow indeed. The recently established interchange of secondary teachers between the United States and Prussia has done and is doing a great work in this way; but, according to a late report, there are not enough American teachers applying for the exchange. According to the terms of this agreement, any male person holding a college degree and having taught one year or more in a high school in the United States is eligible to an exchange with a secondary Prussian teacher, the American to receive the Prussian salary and to teach in English at a German gymnasium. While a knowledge of German is highly desirable, fluency in speaking is not demanded. Ample time and opportunity will also be given for European travel.¹

There are several other means to enrich his knowledge of the foreign tongue at the command of the secondary teacher of which he has made little use heretofore; for instance, the local group of the *Alliance française*, if there be one, as well as the German clubs and societies, of which hardly any section of the country is destitute. He should not fail, also, to hear the German exchange professors and authors when on their American itineraries.² Trips to the German

¹ Full information on this exchange may be obtained from the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 576 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

² Full information concerning such itineraries may be obtained by addressing Prof. Rudolf Tombo, secretary of the Germanistic society of America, 311 East Hall, Columbia University, New York City.

theaters, such as those in New York, Chicago, Milwaukee, St. Louis, Cincinnati, and Pittsburgh, will bring great profit.

Attention may be called, also, to the numerous agencies now conducting parties of modern-language teachers to Germany and France. This year (1912) *Der nationale deutsch-amerikanische Lehrerbund* is undertaking a trip to Germany. There will probably be several hundred in the party. The object is to study Germany and German life. Any teacher of German is eligible, and the advantages in the way of receptions by cities, permission to visit schools, etc., are considerable.

It is unnecessary to call attention to the ordinary commercial agencies that are conducting trips of this sort. Generally they do not offer what the teacher most wants, namely, actual contact and intercourse with the foreign people. In any case the teacher needs to be very circumspect about this matter. It is better and generally cheaper to go by oneself or with a friend; but in this case it is well to prepare oneself with proper addresses of German families, etc. In this connection mention must be made of the most reliable and extensive sources of information, both for Germany and France, namely, the publications of the New England Modern Language Association, which every teacher should consult before attempting his first foreign trip.

Incidentally it may be suggested that while the publication just mentioned gives this information, the publication is not known, or is scarcely known, to teachers outside of New England, and the information (the more the better) should be published and placed at the disposal of modern-language teachers throughout the country.

Before dismissing this subject of the teacher's preparation, the writer desires to express the view that the teachers of German and French should be exponents and representatives of German and French culture. The American who goes to Germany and lives in the American colony of a great cosmopolitan city and looks upon German life with an air of aloofness will hardly make a good high-school teacher of German. He must identify himself with German life.

Likewise, the person who attempts to teach German in the American high school, but speaks only English and holds himself apart from the German movements in this country—for instance, the *Nationaler deutsch-amerikanischer Lehrerbund* and its organ, the *Monatshefte für deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*, and the German theaters, etc.—is not improving his opportunities to learn German.¹

¹ There are summer courses for foreigners also at several German universities, notably at Jena and Marburg. Circulars concerning the latter can be had by addressing: Marburger Ferienkurse, Deutschhaus str. 34, I Marburg, a/d Lahn. Especial attention is called, also, to the German courses for foreigners at the Böttinger Studienhaus. Address: Berlin NW. 7, Universitäts str. 8, Germany. This institute is under the care of the University of Berlin and is fully trustworthy. Americans will find numbers of their countrymen there.

More than this, the person who does not keep up his knowledge of current happenings in Germany by reading German books, magazines, etc., as well as by reading the American modern-language organs and supporting the organizations devoted to modern-language teaching, can not give efficient instruction. As it is to-day, only a very small per cent of high-school teachers support these periodicals or the modern-language organizations. All this applies, *mutatis mutandis*, equally to French and Spanish.

Turning now to the instruction itself, more systematic use should be made of French and German societies in the school, in which the play spirit should be utilized to spread a knowledge of the language. This does not refer primarily to dramatics, but to systematized conversation, free-will offerings of readings, recitations, etc., and the use of foreign games. There should be given, also, opportunity to study and observe French and German manners and customs, to celebrate French and German holidays, the natal days of the great men, and the great national anniversaries, with an instructive and entertaining program on each. In addition, it should be possible for the pupils to hear German music and see German art. All of these activities can be carried out with a minimum of expenditure of time and energy and with great profit and pleasure after the teacher has once accumulated the necessary helps and knowledge.¹ Opportunity may be given, also, to hear professors of German and French and other representatives of German and French culture in addresses, with lanterns and otherwise.

The matter of the length and nature of the course in modern languages in secondary schools is now to be considered. The Committee of Twelve found that the courses were so uneven and, for the most part, so short that no uniform method of teaching could be recommended for high schools, and they came to the conclusion that a one-year course was not worth while. Presumably this opinion is held generally by educators to-day.

As a rule colleges do not give credit for a single year of modern language, and in general it is evident that one year in German or French is neither flesh, fish, nor fowl, and should be discouraged. However, due weight is given to the arguments advanced in favor of a one-year course where it is impossible, as in small or three-year high schools, to give more. It is evident that for those who will not go on in college the slight reading knowledge which one year's study gives is of real value. Teachers recommend a year's course in Latin or Greek "just to learn the roots" which will be needed in professional study. Why not one year of German for the same reason?

¹ Especial attention is called here to a valuable monthly magazine, *Aus nah und fern*, published at the Francis Parker High School, Chicago, which every teacher of German should know.

Moreover, for those who do continue in college it will serve to pave the way, even if the student is obliged to enter German I. Then, again, modern language men will do well to remember that it is the one-year course which, when the ground is broken, becomes the two, three, or four years' course; for which reason there may be cases where half a loaf is better than no bread.

All elementary courses should be given at least five times a week; at least five hours, because all who are expert in the matter know that to give much time to a modern language at the beginning is the only way to get a thorough grip upon it. The second five hours which a beginner puts on his German or French a week are far more productive than the first five, and if the time can be found, this time should be given it in the schedule. There is no doubt, as students and teachers who have tried it will attest, that 25 hours a week for 6 weeks in the study of a modern language are more productive than 30 weeks with 5 recitations a week. This is not a theory, but has been carried out repeatedly with excellent results. To conduct an elementary course two or three hours a week, however, is not only poor pedagogy, but is relatively a waste of energy. It requires a great portion of the next hour to overcome the dead inertia, sounds forgotten, and the attitude of mind unlearned, in the interim. For modern language study is so much a matter of atmosphere, of attitude of mind, and fluency of the linguistic faculty and the vocal and aural apparatus that the results are multiplied by an intensification of the receptive state.

The nature of the course which is here to be proposed, and which is now in use in the best high schools, will become evident from the discussion of the texts to be used. The high-school texts of the future should take on, and are taking on, more of the nature of those in use in German gymnasias. That is, the grammars should be rich on the practical side, with a modicum of theory, and the grammar, while never allowed to usurp the principal place in the instruction, should be taught *throughout the course*. The study of grammar should never be finished until the last day of the course. Moreover, the grammar should take more cognizance of English, French, and Latin. Nothing has been done toward correlating language instruction, a practice in which lies a great secret of power of the German teaching.

Next, the reading texts should not be isolated storiottes. Consider a typical two-year high-school course as we find it to-day. It consists (besides the grammar and a reader, and there are several excellent readers now) let us say of *Immensee*, which, however fine as a piece of romantic literature for adults, is hardly adapted to adolescents. Moreover, it is an anemic tale, entirely lacking in the virility of modern Germany. Next follows *L'arabiata*, a gem of literature, but an erotic story of Italian life that has nothing German about it but the

language. Then follows a long prose tale, or, at best, a short modern comedy, and *Wilhelm Tell*, and the course is finished.

Now these books represent what the average student learns about Germany, for the average student does not take more than two years of a modern language in high school. How much of an outlook upon German life has he received from a love story that might have happened anywhere, an Italian erotic, an indifferent prose tale, and a drama of rare beauty but which is beyond his powers, and which contains poetic and archaic forms which he had better not see?

Instead of this course a better one, and one which corresponds to the best European practice, would be (allowing the reader, if it be easy and idiomatic, to remain) as follows: 75 to 100 pages of easy, diversified reading, a second reader (there is none of the sort yet in the United States) containing real German anecdotes, written by Germans, about historic persons, places, and events as well as descriptions of the Germany of to-day, its forests, mountains, the love of its people for out-door life; its customs, geography, people; its amusements, music, festivals; its schools, churches, and government.

This reader should be supplemented in the second year by a book of modern prose of real German flavor, sketches and short stories by 25 or more of the best living writers, or, if not all living, then none further back than 1830. This—and there is such a book—will serve to introduce the reader to practically all the districts of Germany, with their various nationalities, classes, and conditions of men.

When this has been done, intermingling a good deal of writing, speaking, and live grammar, if any time remains, a modern comedy may very well be attempted. There are grave doubts as to the desirability of the classic text in the second year of the high-school course. It is better to stick to the modern language which one is trying to teach; better, also, to do a great deal of easy reading than only a modicum of very difficult texts.

The collections of isolated stories have their place; but in elementary courses they must soon give way to collections such as have been outlined above. High-school instruction has been greatly improved in recent years. What has been said above applies only to the more poorly equipped. The best high schools—in general these are in the larger cities—are giving not only good but superior instruction in modern languages. The writer has visited dozens of these, and not a few in which the instruction put a great deal of our college instruction to shame. Still, the unevenness of the instruction, sometimes even within the same school, is patent. A contrast between two schools which the writer visited may make this evident. In the one the classes were conducted on the grammar-translation method. Scarcely a word of the foreign language was used, except in pronouncing the reading lesson. The program was, in short, this: "Mr. A.,

will you begin?" Mr. A. reads in German (French or Spanish) a passage, is stopped and asked to translate, which he does. Several questions are then put to him in English (all the directions and discussions are given in English) and the recitation is finished. The same process was followed all the way around the class. The work on the grammar was not much better. Throughout there was hardly a thrill of interest.

In the other school the work was conducted almost entirely in French and German. Translation was employed only for the most difficult passages. A synopsis of the reading lesson was given carefully and in detail in the foreign language, with the aid of interpolated questions by the teacher. The bulk of the speaking on the part of both students and teacher was in the foreign language. There was considerable writing at the blackboard. The grammar work, too, was conducted in good part in the foreign language. The appended examinations, which were taken by the classes indicated, testify to the high quality of the work.

THIRD-YEAR GERMAN.

1. State rule for use of tenses when changing from direct to indirect discourse.
2. Change to the indirect discourse: Sie fragten: "Wem gehört der Knabe?" Der Kuckuck sagte zu Frieder: "Nein, ich kann dir nicht helfen, so leid es mir tut." "Das war niemand anders als Frau Berchta," erklärte der Schäfer. "Früher hat sie im Frauenstein gewohnt." "Ich werde mich unsichtbar machen," sagte Zirbel. "Kennst du mich?" fragte Zirbel den Pechmann.
3. Translate: How can you expect that he will obey you if you do not treat him more kindly? He saves and does not spend much, so that he may have something in his old age. Would that I had learned more when I was young or that I could go to school once more. It may be very cold there now. Who would have thought of it, if you had not mentioned it!
4. Change to the passive voice: Da sah er zu seinen Füßen den Fiedelbogen. Seinen Scheerbeutel hatte er hingegeben. Habt Ihr sie gesehen? Sie malt die Berge und die Bäume.
5. Translate: Then he called them around him and they all sat down in the shade. The children did not know who the strange gentleman was, but they liked his kind face and gentle manners. Then he stood up and said: "Tell me, little folks, to what kingdom do I belong?"
6. Erzählen Sie, was Frau Walpurga nachts im Walde sah. Wie zeigte Frau Walpurga ihren Dank? Erzählen Sie von Frieders Gesellenstück. Warum gab Neck dem Frieder seinen Fiedelbogen? Warum wollte Zirbel die schöne Lisi nicht heiraten? Beschreiben Sie die Höhle, in welche Zirbel den Pechmann geführt hat.

FIRST-YEAR GERMAN IN HIGH SCHOOL.

[Instruction in elementary grades has preceded.]

1. Füllen Sie die Lücken aus: Die Sonne scheint während — — — und die Sterne schimmern während — — —. Wir treiben das Pferd mit — — —. Wir trinken das Wasser aus — — —. Wir können durch — — — sehen. Der Apfel ist für — — —. Wir können ohne — — — nichts kaufen. Die Kinder gehen trotz — — — in — — —. Der Vogel flog über — — —. Er sitzt jetzt auf — — —.

2. Setzen Sie ins Perfekt: Ich rieche den Duft der Rosen. Er geht am Sonntag in die Kirche. Der Knabe öffnet die Tür. Der Mond geht auf. Wir kommen aus der Schule. Ich ziehe den Rock aus.

3. Setzen Sie folgende Sätze in das Futur: Die Uhr zeigt die Zeit. Das Mädchen führt das Kind. Pferde und Maultiere ziehen die Kanalboote. Das Holz des Baumes wärmt uns im Winter.

4. Setzen Sie dieselben Sätze in das Passiv.

5. Schreiben Sie passende Nebensätze zu den folgenden Hauptsätzen: Diese Figur ist ein Dreieck, weil ——. Das Wort ist einsilbig, wenn —, und dreisilbig, wenn ——. Der Schatten zeigt nach Osten, weil ——. Eine Frucht, ist eine Kernfrucht, wenn —, und eine Steinfrucht, wenn —.

6. Verwandeln Sie die Attribute in folgenden Sätzen in Relativsätze: Ein bellender Hund beißt nicht. Eine wohlriechende Blume gefällt allen. Ein goldener Ring kostet viel. Der Specht ist ein Klettervogel.

7. Erweitern Sie folgende Sätze durch direkte und indirekte Objekte: Der Knabe schreibt. Das Kind sagt. Der Vater schickt. Der Mann leiht.

8. Wählen Sie a, b, oder c. (a) Erzählen Sie, wie der Knabe seinen Freund Lipp wieder fand. (b) Wie der Förster sein Leben verlor. (c) Wie viele und welche Arbeiten Heinz verrichten musste.

9. Uebersetzen Sie: The Indians wanted the bear's oil, which is of great use to them. As many as could stand about the tree worked at a time. When one rested, another chopper took his place. When the sun went down they had chopped about half-way through the tree. The next morning they began again. At 2 o'clock the tree fell among the other trees with a crash and lay ~~am~~ upon the ground. Select six out of the first seven.

SECOND-YEAR GERMAN IN HIGH SCHOOL.

1. Gebrauchen Sie die Infinitive—singen und lärm—als Dingwörter in Sätzen.

2. Schreiben Sie folgende Sätze mit oder ohne zu vor dem Infinitiv: Der Knecht konnte nicht schwimmen; er musste ertrinken. Das Kind gibt sich Mühe, die Aufgabe schön schreiben. Trudchen ging in den Wald, um den Osterhasen suchen. Jetzt beginnen die Vögel wieder singen.

3. Gebrauchen Sie das Participle des Präsens von fallen und laufen als Dingwort, und gebrauchten Sie jedes in einem Satze.

4. Setzen Sie statt des Relativsatzes die passende Participle als Attribut: Ein Feind, welcher flieht. Das Blatt, das fällt. Die Farbe des Schnees, der glänzt. Die Bibel, die geöffnet war, lag auf dem Tische.

5. Setzen Sie statt des Infinitivs das richtige Participle als Eigenschaftswort in: Einige Vögel flogen über das (wogen) Meer. Der Mann lief in das (brennen) Haus und rettete ein (schreien) Kind. Die Leute verliessen das (verbrennen) Dorf.

6. Verwandeln Sie:

(a) in die Möglichkeitsform: Nimm einen Schirm mit, es wird gegen Abend regnen.

(b) in die Wunschform: Mein Freund war angekommen.

(c) in die Bedingungsform: Ich habe Papier, ich werde einen Brief schreiben.

(d) in die indirekte Rede: Der Lehrer fragte Karl: "Has du deinen Aufsatz geschrieben?" Ein Fremder fragte mich: "Wie viel Uhr ist es?" Das Mädchen sagte: "Ich habe mein Buch gefunden."

7. Verbinden Sie folgende Sätze durch Konjunktionen: Ein Diener wurde fortgesandt. Die Kinder kamen am andern Morgen nicht heim. (als). Der Kahn sinkt. Der Schiffer sieht die Felsenriffe nicht. (weil). Die Eiche ist ein Waldbaum. Sie wächst im Walde. (denn). Die Sänger traten in den Saal. Der Greis schlug die Saiten. (dann).

8. Ergänzen Sie: Der Herr droht d— Diener, aber er folgt (er) nicht. Fritz nannte d— Knaben ein— Lügner. Der Knabe bietet d— Apfelhändler kein— Cent für ein— Apfel. Der Mann war d— Weg— nicht kundig. Die Frau dankte d— Mädchen für d— schön— Blume.

9. (a) Wie kam Martin, der Geissbub, nach Berlin? Wen wollte er besuchen, und wie wurde er aufgenommen?

(b) Wie wurde der Student Lauschmann mit Fräulein Elisabeth Gerhard bekannt, und welchen Einfluss hatte diese Bekanntschaft?

10. Translate: He stepped on a piece of glass and slipped. According to the opinion of Alexander these bachelor's homes were quite elegant, but extremely uncomfortable. They say a person who has cold hands has usually a warm heart. The little Skye terrier which Leo chased on the highway had a blue ribbon around his neck. I heard a loud cry of alarm on the turnpike near the little river. We could see that Elizabeth was very much attached to her Pollie.

SECOND-YEAR GERMAN.

1. Use the following subordinate connectives in sentences: als, wenn, weil, nachdem, obwohl.

2. Put into the perfect tense: Ich begegne der Mutter. Wir ziehen nach Deutschland. Er steigt auf den Baum. Sie gehen in die Schule. Du wächst gar nicht. Die Fische sterben ausserhalb des Wassers. Gestern geschah ein grosses Unglück.

3. Give the principal parts of: stehlen, gewinnen, verlieren, lesen, schlagen, streiten, bleiben, laufen, stehen, lassen.

4. Decline the demonstrative pronouns: der, diejenige, solches, singular and plural.

5. Translate: After her husband had died, my sister and her sons followed (perf.) me to America. In the hospitals there are more than one thousand beds and almost as many patients. Are these peasants not very poor? Yes, their income is small, but they do not need much; they buy very little and live principally on milk and potatoes. Did you lock the door of the house? No, I could not; I have lost the house key. What is the matter with your dog? I do not know: he does not eat to-day; I believe somebody has struck him. Did you know him when you met him one day last week? I knew him, but I did not know he had been sick. This is my mother. These are my parents.

6. Answer in German. Beschreiben Sie den alten Koffer. Was war alles in dem Koffer? Warum sagte die Frau, dass der Vogel ein Spatz sei? Wo sass der Vogel im Garten? Erzählen Sie, wie die Frau den Vogel wieder gefangen hat. Beschreiben Sie die Mühle. Was mussten die Weiber tun, bevor sie durch die Mühle gingen?

High-school teaching must be improved and brought to a uniform standard before the elementary work in modern languages can be handed entirely over to these schools. Nothing is more certain than that this relegation must take place in the central and western sections of the United States; and in the East, where it has been partially done, it must be perfected. The colleges, and especially the universities, are hoping for this; not only because it is good pedagogy, but because many college and university teachers find it difficult to keep up a live interest in elementary teaching. They wish to do more advanced work.

As every teacher will recognize, the early years are far more valuable for linguistic study than for most other branches. The greater receptivity of the mind and the ear for speech forms, the pliability

of the vocal organs, the tenaciousness of the memory, all combine to make the time before the child gets out of his teens the golden period of language study. This was long ago recognized in European countries, and years have shown the wisdom of this course. The wonder is that teachers in the United States have been so slow to grasp its importance. If the modern tongues are to be taught at some time in the course of study, why condemn the collegian to learn French and German vocables and to grapple with the elusive intonation and idiom of these languages, and then, by way of making the course completely absurd, try to teach him civics and geometry in the grades?

The difficulties in the way are recognized; but plans for fixing the place of this instruction are now under way and will more than likely be settled very soon by the National Education Association. At this time, therefore, it behooves all who are interested in modern language study to see to it that these studies are placed in the proper place and are given the necessary emphasis in the high-school curriculum.

The future of elementary modern language study lies in the secondary schools. There is every reason for paying large attention to the subject. Americans are poor linguists, almost as poor as their English cousins, who are the most inefficient linguists in Europe. But the time is coming when better linguistic talent will be developed. Already our colonial and international relations are driving us to it on the side of Spanish. Hitherto America has not felt the need of learning foreign languages, just as England did not in the past. But England is now awakening to the value of modern languages in trade and commerce, and in this America will follow her. Taking all into consideration, modern languages will continue to play an increasingly important rôle in our education.

And for this we must prepare. One or two-year courses conducted by poorly equipped teachers will no longer do. There must be better teachers, broader recognition of the subject, and better equipment for the library and the classroom. At present there is practically no equipment in the high schools, few books, and less *Realien*.¹ But without thorough equipment there can be no thorough results.

¹ On a plan for a collection of *Realien* for high schools see Handachin. *Education*, 32: 203-212, December, 1911.

CHAPTER IX.

GERMAN IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The teaching of German in the elementary schools has been debated a good deal, especially in the North and West. At times German has gained and at times lost ground. German schools as public schools have been, of course, a thing of the past for some years, but the numbers studying German in the elementary schools are considerable.

Generally, German as a branch of study in the elementary schools has been viewed favorably in the "German belt," where it is mostly found, although there have been recurrent times of opposition, and the number of cities where it obtains fluctuates greatly from year to year. The criticism that has been brought against it is not that it tends to un-Americanize—that danger seems nowhere present—but that it takes much time and money, and it has been charged, from time to time in various cities that the instruction was inefficient.

Let us here survey the subject of a foreign language as the language of elementary schools in its historical and educational aspects.

This matter has often been a real problem and has at times aroused great animosity, as the following extract from the report of the Territorial Board of Education of Dakota, 1886-1888, shows:

The law requires that the common branches shall be taught in English, but some instances came to the attention of the board of education where the teacher was not even able to speak the English language, and nothing could be done about it, as the foreign element was so strong that they not only controlled the schools but the election of the county superintendent also, and a strong public sentiment was created in support of the schools taught in a foreign language. The board of education recommends that it be authorized to remove any county superintendent who refuses to enforce the law on this subject.

A similar complaint comes from the State superintendent of education of Minnesota in 1886-1888, as follows:

Particular attention is called to the fact that in some of the schools of the State which are supported by Americans the language used is un-American and carries with it traditions and associations connected with different countries, and so the schools fail to harmonize the feelings and ideas of foreign-born parents with those of their adopted country. They do not require that knowledge of our patriots and statesmen, of the formation of our Government and its subsequent history, which inspires a worthy pride in American citizenship and a love for American institutions.

From the report of the State superintendent of schools of Missouri, 1887-88, we cull as follows:

In a large number of the districts of the State the German element of population greatly preponderates, and as a consequence the schools are mainly taught in the

German language and sometimes entirely so. Hence, if an American family lives in such a district the children must either be deprived of school privileges or else be taught in the German language. In some districts the schools are taught in German a certain number of months and then in English, while in others German is used part of the day and English the rest.

Some of the teachers employed are scarcely able to speak the English language, while the first question asked him is whether he reads and speaks German. Many letters were received by the State superintendent from school officers and patrons asking if the schools should not be taught in the English language and complaining that, although living in this country, their children are being taught in a foreign language. In Gasconade County German is taught in about 27, or one-half, of the districts. In St. Louis County there are 84 districts; 40 of them teach German. Many of the more enlightened Germans prefer that the schools be taught in English, as they are anxious for their children to be Americanized in principles, feeling, and language.

Again, from the same superintendent in 1889:

The law should specify definitely in what language the instruction in our public schools is to be given. It is a shame and a disgrace to American institutions to have the English language ruled out of our public schools and German substituted, as is done wholly or in part in many districts in this State. The average legislator appears to quake when this matter is brought up for consideration. Right and justice are forgotten or smothered for the sake of the German vote. No reasonable argument can be adduced why German should be taught in any primary-school. Representatives and senators admit that German can be put out of a public school by an injunction served upon the board; but why shall a citizen be compelled to resort to the courts to secure that which should be provided by legislative enactment? Men have said to me, "You should not agitate this question; it is impolitic to inaugurate a fight along that line." My purpose in bringing this matter to the attention of the public and before our legislature is that justice may be administered to the citizen and the children be taught to speak, read, and write the English language. The same spirit that deprives the children of any community of the benefit of instruction in the English language would, if it dare, subvert the very foundations of this Government and subject our children to a thralldom and a tyranny as despotic as that from which many of these innovators emigrated, only to try to bind the shackles upon others that they themselves could not endure.

This is not a fight against Germans, but against the introduction of German into our primary schools. This wrong will not much longer be tolerated; it should not be, for where it now is practiced there is an alarming state of affairs; law is disregarded, our institutions derided, and all that is held sacred ruthlessly trodden under foot, and nothing else can be expected of such a community.

We must remember, too, in this connection, that the question of the right to tax people for free schools was in those days still an open one. Free schools were hardly established. In 1846 Horace Mann, in his report on the schools of Massachusetts, says:

There is not at the present time, with the exception of the States of New England and a few small communities elsewhere, a country or a State in Christendom which maintains a system of free schools for the education of its children. Even in the State of New York, with all its noble endowments, the schools are not free.

The system of free public schools was not thoroughly established in the South until after the Civil War.

Thus we find opposition sporadically to the public schools, e. g., as late as 1887-88, when the State superintendent of North Carolina reports a strong opposition to the public-school system in his State. "It arises," says he, "from a belief that it is wrong to tax one man to educate the children of another. Those who hold such opinions consider education given by the public as a charity. Another cause is the heavy burden of taxation imposed upon the poor white people of the State, who pay nearly all of the taxes for the support of the schools in which both whites and colored are educated. This antagonism is heightened by the belief, held by the whites, that education impairs the Negro as a laborer."

In Spanish America Spanish was the competing language. Thus in New Mexico, in 1889, 143 of the public elementary schools were taught in English, 106 in Spanish, and 95 in both languages.¹ From the report of Mr. Mills, United States Treasury expert, to the Bureau of Statistics (1889) we read:

The introduction and establishment of a system of public education for the children of New Mexico has been a rather slow and difficult process.

But lack of experience may be overcome by interested effort, and I am glad to say that there is a large proportion of the population of New Mexico enthusiastic in the support of public schools and popular education. * * * The English language is also steadily growing in favor. Necessarily the instruction in the schools of New Mexico has been largely in the Spanish language, but the English is now taught wherever at all practicable.²

In Louisiana the competing language was French, and the situation called for special legislation, as we shall see later.

However, German has, in general, had a good standing in the elementary schools. It was shown repeatedly that the study of German improved the ability of scholars in other studies. Such testimony comes from St. Louis in 1879.³ A similar testimony comes from Cleveland, in the report of L. R. Klemm, superintendent of German instruction for the city of Cleveland, 1883. Of the 244 pupils of the "A" grammar classes that were examined to enter the high school, 135 had studied German one, two, or three years; 123 of these 135—a little over 90 per cent—passed. Of the other 190, who had not studied German, only 85—not quite 78 per cent—passed. This seems to have been the prevalent experience in Ohio.⁴ This testimony is reiterated and generalized by an eminent English student of our schools.⁵

¹ U. S. Bureau of Educ. Rep. of the Commissioner, 1888-89, p. 734.

² *Ibid.*, p. 734.

³ *Ibid.*, 1879, p. 138.

⁴ Cf. Peasee. *Instruction in German and its helpful influence, etc.*, Chicago, 1889. See also *Historical sketches of Ohio: Common schools—sub Columbus*, p. 15; *sub Toledo*, p. 12; also *Education in Ohio*, 1876, p. 126.

⁵ Adams. *The free-school system of the United States*, London, 1875, p. 212.

As the study of German grew in importance and German citizens sent their children to the public schools in increasing numbers and demanded that German be recognized in the curriculum, various States found it necessary to legislate on the subject. In Pennsylvania a law was passed in 1837 by which German schools were to be founded on an equal basis with English schools, and some schools in which all of the instruction was to be given in German.¹

In Ohio we find the following in the school laws of 1873:

It shall be the duty of school commissioners to see that the German language is taught in all the public schools of the State where it is requested *bona fide* by 75 citizens, residents of the district in question, who represent not fewer than 40 pupils, etc.

German has always had a good standing in the schools of Ohio ever since 1836, when the legislature delegated Prof. Calvin Stowe, of Cincinnati, to go to Europe to study the schools of various countries and report to the legislature. Upon his report, which was highly favorable to the Prussian system of education, the school law of Ohio, passed in 1837, was largely based.²

Prof. Stowe's report was influential even beyond the limits of the State. For instance, we find in Pennsylvania that the legislature had 5,000 English copies and 2,000 copies of a German translation of it printed for distribution in the State.³

The English and German schools, so called, of Ohio had a longer term than the common schools, and the teachers received considerably higher salaries than those of the common schools.

The question of German in the schools was, however, discussed pro and con a good deal. Contained in the same volume, we find Prof. Stowe's report and a most antagonistic discussion of the subject.⁴

In 1842 the following statute was passed in Ohio:

A German youth may, if German is not taught in his school district, attend in another district, and the school officers of his school shall be reimbursed therefor. (61, Sec. XVIII.)⁵

In Indiana we find a law in 1870 authorizing the township trustees to introduce the study of German into any school where the parents of 25 children demand it.⁶

The Oregon law of 1882 on the subject provides that—

In districts containing 10,000 inhabitants, upon petition of 100 residents, one or more of the common schools is to be taught in the German language.⁷

¹ Koerner. *Das deutsche element*, 1818-1848, pp. 61ff and 197ff.
² Stowe, C. *The Prussian system of public instruction and its applicability to the United States*, 1836.
³ *Barnard's Am. Jour. of Educ.* 6: 659. Prof. Stowe's report was so enthusiastically received that it was quoted in nearly all of the newspapers, and the legislature of Massachusetts ordered 2,500 copies of it printed. *American annals of education and instruction*, 1838, p. 238. The report was discussed far and wide in educational meetings. See also *ibid.*, p. 281.
⁴ The book is in the library of the Ohio philosophical and historical association, Cincinnati, Ohio, under the catalogue number 379, 431.
⁵ S. 862. *School officers' guide for the State of Ohio* [Columbus]. Printed by authority of the general assembly, 1842.
⁶ Smart. *The Indiana schools, etc.*, Cincinnati, 1876? p. 211.
⁷ U. S. Bureau of Educ. *Rep. of the Commissioner*, 1882-83, p. 212.

In Colorado we find the following law enacted in 1887:

Whenever the parents or guardians of 20 or more children of school age of a district shall so demand, the district board may procure efficient instructors to teach the branches required by law in the German and Spanish languages, or in either.¹

The law of Minnesota on this subject reads thus:

The books used and the instruction given in public schools shall be in the English language, but any other language may be used by teachers in explaining to pupils who understand such language the meaning of English words; and in high and graded schools other languages may be taught, when made a part of a regular or optional course of study. Instruction may also be given in such languages in common schools, not to exceed one hour in each day, by unanimous vote of the trustees.

INTRODUCTION OF GERMAN INTO THE PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Concerning German in the elementary schools of Cincinnati we read:

In 1840, after much agitation of the subject, a German department was established in the public school of a certain district, where pupils of German parentage were taught the German language in addition to the other studies; and thus that class of the population was drawn into the public schools, instead of into schools restricted to their own nationality. Gradually the system has been perfected until this department has been divided into two grades. The junior grade comprises all who are in the primary in English, and are under the joint charge of an English and a German teacher, who usually occupy adjoining rooms and exchange places each day. In the senior grade are classed all pupils belonging to the higher grades in English, and these attend each day in the German teacher's room, and for the rest of the time are in the English department.²

German was taught in Cincinnati in all the grades (six) of district schools and all the grades (two) of the intermediate school "when desired by parents or guardians."

The course of study, which was carefully and systematically worked out in every detail, included object lessons, reading, spelling, writing, grammar, composition, translation, singing, and drawing. In addition it was provided that in grade C "six songs or other poems shall be memorized."

In the intermediate school the course of study included³ reading, declamation, orthography, penmanship, grammar, composition, translation, and an abstract of the history of German literature. From the accompanying directions to teachers, it is evident that the course was thorough and painstaking.

The books prescribed were: Lilienthal's Manual, Germanus' Reader, Pagenstecher's Reader, Lesebuch für amerikanische Volksschulen, Ahn's Method, Becker's Leitfaden (for teachers), and Plate's

¹ U. S. Bureau of Educ. Rep. of the Commissioner, 1886-87, p. 113.

² Cf. also Greve. History of Cincinnati, vol. 1, p. 784. Also Shotwell. A history of the schools of Cincinnati, 1902, p. 125.

³ Bernard's Am. Jour. of Educ., 10: 524f. The German teachers of Cincinnati have had their own association since 1868, which is a part of the Ohio Teachers' Association, and is devoted to the intellectual, aesthetic, and social improvement of its members. They have also had for 30 years a fraternal relief association among themselves.

Praktische Deutsche Sprachlehre. In 1850 there were 3 German-English public schools, with 24 teachers and 2,300 pupils, in Cincinnati, for the special accommodation of children born of German parents.¹

This instruction in Cincinnati, perhaps the best and most thoroughgoing of its kind now in the United States, deserves special notice. The "parallel-class" system is employed—that is, all the pupils who elect German are instructed a half day alternately by an English and by a German teacher up to and including the fourth grade.

The time given to German instruction in such classes does not exceed nine hours a week, as the German teachers also teach music and drawing. A German supervising assistant commonly teaches the higher grades, giving not more than one hour daily to each class, besides supervising the work of the other teachers in general.

From the fourth to the eighth grades 45 minutes to 1 hour a day are devoted to German. The instruction, as the writer knows from personal inspection, is very good. Those pupils who elect the German keep up their other work very satisfactorily and no change seems to be desired. This system is hardly equaled anywhere in the United States.

In New York an optional course in German was introduced in the highest grade of the grammar school in 1854. In 1870 the course was lengthened to extend through the eight grades of the school. In 1873 there were 19,396 pupils enrolled in these classes in New York City.²

In St. Louis, German was introduced in the elementary grades in 1864. Nine classes with 1,446 pupils were in operation in 1866. In 1871-72, 35 per cent of the entire enrollment studied German. In 1872-73, this rose to 38.9 per cent and in 1885-86 to 21,990, or 40 per cent of the enrollment.

In 1889, 14 out of 82 of the principal cities of the United States offered German in the elementary grades. They are San Francisco, Denver (districts 1 and 2), Belleville, Ill., Chicago, Covington, Ky., Baltimore, East Saginaw, Mich., St. Paul, Buffalo, New York City, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Toledo, and Milwaukee.³

In San Francisco German was taught only in the four "cosmopolitan schools." In Denver, district No. 1, German was studied as an optional study by 50 per cent of the pupils. In Baltimore, in the English-German schools, the English branches received two-thirds of the time and the German one-third. In East Saginaw German was taught in one-fifth of the schools. In St. Paul and New York Ger-

¹ *Barnard's Am. Jour. of Educ.*, 24: 593.

² Cf. also Adams, *The free-school system of the United States*, London, 1875, p. 275f.

Goebel, L. *Wegweiser für den ersten Unterricht im deutschen mit einem Überblick über jetzige Bestrebungen*. New York [1885?].

Palmer. *The New York public schools*, etc. New York, 1905.

Wilson. *The memorial history of the city of New York*. New York, 1893.

³ *Barnard's Am. Jour. of Educ.* for the year quoted.

man was optional. In Cleveland children of German parentage received 289 hours more instruction per year than others. In Toledo, in the first four grades of 30 schools, instruction was given in reading, writing, and spelling in German for eight hours per week.¹

In 1900 the number of pupils receiving German instruction in the public elementary schools (143 schools) was given as 231,673.²

In 1905 German was taught in the first grade in 4 out of 50 cities; in the second in 5; in the third in 6; in the fourth in 6; in the fifth in 7; in the sixth in 7; in the seventh in 7; in the eighth in 7.³

In 1910, 13 of 56 of the principal cities had instruction in German in the elementary grades, as follows: Seven cities in grades 1 to 8; one city in grades 1 to 6; one city in grades 3 to 8; one city in grades 4 to 8; one city in grades 5 to 8; one city in grades 6 to 8; one city in grade 8 only. In all of these cities the method of instruction is the direct in the elementary classes.⁴

The outlook for German instruction in the elementary schools is good in the sections of the country having a dense German population, although the number of cities where such instruction is given fluctuates from year to year. The Germans are very insistent in their claims, and the instruction in German in the elementary schools is indeed excellent in most of the cities, and from a pedagogical point of view has fully justified itself.

The plan of teaching certain branches, e. g., geography, history, arithmetic, and nature study, by the medium of the German language has been tried successfully in some schools.⁵ However, in a number of the States there is a law prohibiting the teaching of the common branches in any language except the English. Its purpose, of course, is to insure the universal use of English.⁶

CHRONOLOGY OF THE INTRODUCTION OF GERMAN IN ADDITIONAL PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

1844. Dayton, Ohio. One-half time to German.

In fifties. Toledo, Ohio. The German schools were reorganized in 1851-52. Optional in fourth and fifth grades in 1858. Three primary German-English church schools were adopted into the public-school system in 1866; in 1876 there were 18 German-English schools in which one-half of the time was given to German. Enrollment in these schools in 1876 about 1,000.

¹ U. S. Bureau of Educ., Rep. of the Commissioner, 1888-89, p. 388 ff.

² Der gegenwärtige stand des deutschen unterrichts in den schulen der Vereinigten Staaten, Milwaukee (1900).

³ For number of pupils in German in public elementary schools in the various States, see *ibid.*, p. 42. Cf., also, Handschin, *Instruction in French and German in Ohio*. Miami University Bulletin, Feb., 1911.

⁴ Busse's article *Statistisches über den deutschen unterricht* (Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 10: 274-80, Oct., 1906) should have been checked up by referring to the Protokoll der siebennten konvention des deutsch-amerikanischen staatsverbandes von Ohio, 1910.

⁵ For list of these cities cf. Payne. *Public elementary school curricula*, 1906, p. 19.

⁶ Data direct from the schools.

⁷ Cf. *Educ. Rev.*, 26:197.

⁸ On the question of German in the elementary grades, see Report of a committee of nine, etc., prepared by A. R. Kohlfeld (State office of education), Madison, Wis., 1906.

Early fifties. Middletown, Ohio. Colonies of German primary pupils instructed separately. A German department established 1860.

1864. Newark, N. J. "German may be taught in the primary schools only by way of interpretation; but no teacher shall be employed who is not fully competent to give instruction in English."

1865. Chicago. German was introduced in 1 school and instruction was gradually extended to more schools until, in 1870-71, 4,297 pupils were enrolled in German. The numbers decreased for a time, but in 1884 there were 10,696 pupils studying German. This number increased to 29,440 in 1885; to 34,801 in 1890; to 44,270 in 1892-93.

1866. Waverly, Ohio.

1867. Louisville, Ky. Provision for teaching German in six schools was made and the following course of study adopted: "Grades I, II, III: Reading, definitions, and explanation; writing, composition, and declamation; grammar, translating and orthography. Grades IV, V, VI: Reading, spelling, and defining, writing. Grades VII, VIII, IX: Exercises in reading and in language, and writing on slates."

The texts prescribed were: Knofel's German readers, Ahn's New Practical Method of Learning the German Language, Benziger's penmanship, Plate's Grammar, Charles Hebel's Primer, Schubert's reading tablets.

In 1870-71 there were 5,713 pupils enrolled in German; in 1871-72 there were 6,216, and in 1872-73 there were 6,547 pupils studying German in all the grades, or over two-thirds of the total enrollment.¹

1867. Terre Haute, Ind. "A department in German is had under a special teacher in the ward grammar schools."

1868. Portsmouth, Ohio. S. P. Petrie, the teacher of German, received a higher salary than other teachers, as was the rule in Ohio for those who taught both English and German.

1869. Zanesville, Ohio. An enrollment of 209 in 1874, and four German teachers.

In sixties. Sandusky, Ohio. The German schools were not giving satisfaction in Sandusky in 1871, and a committee was "authorized to go to Cincinnati to examine the school system of the German-English school in that place." In 1876 it was stated "German is now taught in every school, and pupils can receive an education in the elements of German in our lower schools, which lays the foundation for a more thorough acquaintance with the German language and literature in our higher schools."

1870. Eaton, Ohio. "As this must necessarily be a miscellaneous department, it is difficult to establish a permanent course of instruction. However, the pupils who enter this department during the first term must remain there throughout the term; and those who enter the second term must remain here the remainder of the school year." The German department was discontinued in 1873.

1872. Piqua, Ohio.

1872. Massillon, Ohio.

1873. Cleveland, Ohio. In 1873, 3,572 pupils out of a total enrollment of 10,362 studied German.

1876. Lancaster, Ohio. German taught in fourth to ninth grades.

1876. Canton, Ohio.

1876. Norwalk, Ohio.

1876. Ripley, Ohio. In high and graded school.

1876. Troy, Ohio. "Pupils in the grammar departments are allowed to study German in addition to other studies. A German teacher is provided for this purpose and given a room to which those studying the language repair at stated times for recitation only."

¹ Barnard's Amer. Jour. of Educ. for the years mentioned.

CHAPTER X.

GERMAN PRIVATE, PAROCHIAL, AND DENOMINATIONAL SCHOOLS.

PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

The beginnings of German private schools were touched in Chapters V and VIII. Secular German private schools flourished throughout the nineteenth century in great numbers. Douai, reporting for the German Teachers' Society of New York and Environs to the United States Commissioner of Education in 1868, gives their number in the United States at that time as "several hundreds."¹

These schools enjoyed in great part an enviable reputation. The United States Commissioner of Education thus comments on Douai's report mentioned above:

The German schools in the United States. A document submitted by the German Teachers' Society of New York, to explain the reasons which induce so many of the German population to support special schools taught by "teachers trained in the methods of the fatherland," in cities where the public schools offer a general and gratuitous instruction to the children of parents of all nationalities.

The statements made in this document are eminently important; and the claims put forth in it of the superiority of the best of these schools, founded on German models and taught by men trained in the normal seminaries of Germany, to our best public schools, in respect to infant training (kindergarten), the systematic development of the mental faculties, scientific attainments of a directly useful character, the universal practice of singing, drawing, and gymnastic, and the higher physical hygienic condition of the pupils, should arrest the attention of American teachers and school superintendents. If these claims are well founded, these superior methods and sound principles of organization and arrangement should be more generally and at once introduced into our normal schools, and from them become the early possession of our teachers and public schools; and the necessity of separating the children of a common country into schools distinguished by the nationality of their parents, during the most impressible period of their lives, should be at once and forever done away with.

So far as the withdrawal of any portion of this class of children from our public schools arises from the absence of facilities for continuing or acquiring a knowledge of the German language and literature, this necessity might be obviated at once by the introduction of this language into the course of study in communities where there already exists a demand for it, or where such demand can be created. This addition, rightly adjusted, would not only not exclude other branches now taught, but might facilitate their acquisition, as well as be a most valuable discipline and attainment in itself.

¹ U. S. Bureau of Educ. Special report of the commissioner on the condition and improvement of public schools in the District of Columbia. Washington, 1871, p. 7.

A word concerning the *raison d'être* of these schools. After the unsuccessful German revolutions of 1830 and 1848, a cultured class of Germans emigrated to the United States. Their culture and their influence in spreading a knowledge and a love of the German language, ideas, and institutions soon became evident. It was this class especially who founded and patronized the German private schools, the first and best of which flourished in the great cities and in cities of a strong German population, e. g., New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cincinnati, St. Louis, Milwaukee, Boston, Newark (N. J.), Detroit, Rochester (N. Y.), Brooklyn, and San Antonio (Tex.). With this class of Germans it was not so much the motive to perpetuate the German language for family reasons which impelled them, as it was their insight into the pedagogical value of an additional language for the pupils, and above all, a desire to transplant to their new fatherland the excellent educational institutions of their own country.

The above-mentioned report says of these schools:

No doubt this second class of German schools was and is of a far higher order than the denominational; but being made subservient to the private interests of their founders and proprietors, and being based solely on their commercial utility, not on an ideal conception of the compass, duties, and importance of the school, as it ought to be, all these schools, with the exception of a few to be mentioned under the third head, remained one-sided concerns, with underpaid teachers, a more or less aristocratic tendency, a bad discipline, and much outward show, without a corresponding interior value.

The third class of German schools, those founded by societies on shares, and a few by private enterprise, owe their origin to the ideas which succumbed in the mother country in the revolution of 1848, and stamped so different a character on emigrants of that period. The generation of men of that time came from the most excellent German schools; educated there at a time when these schools had reached their highest degree of excellence. For it must be noted that meanwhile the German governments, having found out what an enemy to monarchical institutions and established (State) churches they had thus far fostered in these excellent schools, have since 1850 intentionally lowered the standard of popular education, so far as depended on them. The generation of men just mentioned regarded the German model school as the "palladium" of their ideas, their liberalism, their philosophical conception of State, religion, and society; they almost revered it religiously. Every intelligent man among them had an exalted notion of what the school is to be, and even the great mass of the then immigrants seconded their efforts to transplant the German model school to the hospitable soil of their adopted country. But having, most of them, lost their property through the revolution and emigration, and being obliged to struggle for many years with the hardships of a new existence to be founded, their new schools were doomed to be, still in part now, embarrassed by the insufficiency of means allotted to them. A majority of these schools were established or, at least, fostered into existence by the "Turner" (gymnastic) societies, spread all over the country; but most of these societies consist of men of very moderate means, and their schools therefore consist rarely of more than two classes. They charge very moderate tuition fees, allow their teachers better salaries than the denominational and most private schools, but yet rather scantily, and make both ends meet by picnics and charitable collections. Of a still higher character are those society schools which

were independent of any organization, the founders being chartered by the legislatures of the several States as school (academical) societies, and the necessary capital with which buildings were built and furnished being gathered by small shares.¹

The private German schools experienced their best development and success in the second and third quarters of the century. They were so well attended and the personnel of the teaching staffs so superior that they quite overshadowed our then struggling and oft-times crude public schools. Thus in Cincinnati in 1831, only 400 children received instruction in the public schools, while 1,500 attended the German schools,² and the children of American parents often attended the latter. In the country generally it was only when the German schools deteriorated and the public schools grew in excellence that the bulk of the instruction in German was shifted to the latter.

These schools had from 2 to 11 classes, i. e., many of them were academies. They often enrolled great numbers of students, running from 800 downward.³

To-day the German private schools have all but disappeared. We have not far to look for the chief reasons. It is obvious that the great improvement and popularization of the public schools and the fact that they took up the teaching of German on the one hand, and the passing of the generation of great Germans who founded the German schools on the other hand, brought about the change.

Of the half dozen or so of private German schools which are in operation to-day in the United States, the most noteworthy are the German-English Academy, Milwaukee (established in 1851); The German American School, Passaic, N. J.; German American School, Jersey City Heights, N. J.; German-English School, Davenport, Iowa; German School, Arcadia, Iowa.

The following, while they seem to have had the patronage of the Lutheran Church, are designated as private schools: Walther College, St. Louis, Mo.; Evangelical Lutheran High School, Milwaukee, Wis.; Lutheran Academy, Wittenberg, Wis.

The figures given by Viereck⁴ on these private German schools are far too high. His figures were taken from undifferentiated statistics,⁵ i. e., there are included in them students in German private schools, but also students studying German in all English private schools. The work quoted⁵ also gives lists of private schools,

¹ U. S. Bureau of Educ. Special report of the commissioner on the condition and improvement of public schools in the District of Columbia. Washington, 1871, p. 532.

² This number, however, includes the pupils of the German parochial schools.

³ For considerable lists of these schools see Faust. The German element in the United States, II, 243ff. Bernard's American Jour. of Educ., 19, 583, and Henoch, Handbuch des Deutschtums im Auslande, Berlin, 1904.

⁴ U. S. Bureau of Educ., Rep. of the Commissioner, 1900-1901, p. 634.

⁵ Der gegenwärtige stand des deutschen unterrichts in den Vereinigten Staaten. Herausgegeben vom Deutsch-Amerikanischer Lehrerbund. Milwaukee (1900).

but they are not properly differentiated and give no satisfactory data.

To train teachers for these private German schools was early considered an important task. Native Germans, not acquainted with the American ways, and using but poor English would not do. But to teach according to the methods and principles of the German education, and that is what these schools strove for, presupposed a special training.¹ Accordingly, a plan to found a *seminar* for the training of teachers for German schools was early set on foot. The Pennsylvania College, founded at Gettysburg in 1832, sought for a short time to serve this purpose. The next attempt was made at Phillipsburg, Pa., in 1841, but failed and was abandoned.

A final and successful attempt was made in the founding, in 1878, of the German-American Teachers' Seminary at Milwaukee, a German-normal training school of high standards which is in a flourishing condition to-day, under the able direction of Dr. Max Griebisch. It has graduated hundreds of well-trained teachers, and as the official school of the Nationaler Deutsch-amerikanischer Lehrerbund is the most important educational institution in the German-American movement in the United States.

PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS.

These schools have received some notice in Chapters V and VIII. A parochial school is a school, generally elementary, supported by a parish or congregation and must not be confused with the denominational school, supported by a synod or a conference or a whole denomination.

Such schools are supported in the United States principally by Roman Catholic, Lutheran Evangelical, Protestant Episcopal, German Presbyterian, and Mennonite Churches. While the sessions in the larger and better schools approximate in length those of the public schools, many parochial schools in country districts have sessions of only a few months, or even weeks, of the year, and the pupils attend but a year or two. In cities, many of the pupils who attend the parochial schools do not attend the public schools at all.

The course of study is similar to that of the public elementary schools. In the Lutheran schools, the course of study includes, "besides instruction in religion, all the common-school branches: German and English, reading, writing, grammar, composition, arithmetic, geography, United States history, physiology, zoology, botany, singing, and drawing." In most of the schools, instruction in all the branches, with the exception of religion and German, is given in English.

¹ Cf. Bernard's *American Jour. of Educ.*, 19: 584 ff.

² U. S. Bureau of Educ., *Rep. of the Commissioner*, 1904, p. 901.

The course of study in Catholic parochial schools extends over eight years (i. e., in typical schools) and includes Christian doctrine, practical and mental arithmetic, language, geography, history, reading, orthography, penmanship, and drawing.¹

As to the teachers in parochial schools, about 97 per cent of the Catholic schools are in charge of the various religious teaching orders of the church.² For the Lutheran schools, the teachers are trained in the higher schools of the church, and they, like the Catholic teachers, are in the profession for life. In small congregations, as in villages and country districts, the priest or pastor, often performs the duties of teacher.

It is difficult to give satisfactory figures on the numbers of pupils attending the parochial schools before the closing years of the nineteenth century.

From official statistics the following data³ are gathered:

Statistics of parochial schools.

Denomination.	Parochial schools.	Number of pupils.
Evangelical Lutheran (1896).....	3,079	147,122
German Evangelical (1896).....	410	17,911
German Presbyterian (1890).....		1,100
Mennonite (1890).....		610

In 1898, the enrollment in German Catholic parochial schools was 129,651,⁴ while in 1900 the figures are given at 193,627.⁵

The German Lutheran parochial schools of the United States showed an enrollment in 1898 of 117,508 pupils in 2,800 schools.⁶ In 1911 they had 176,805 pupils reported in 3,785 schools, and quite a number of German synods had not reported; so that 200,000 is not too high an estimate for the total enrollment.⁷

When we consider that these numbers graduate and are replaced by a new generation probably every six years or less, the magnitude of this parochial school work is impressive.

As to inspection of these schools by public officials, there never has been much, and there is to-day but little. In Wisconsin and Illinois, laws providing for it were passed in 1889, but after a bitter political campaign and election they were repealed.⁸

¹ Sheedy. The Catholic parochial schools of the United States. In U. S. Bureau of Educ., Rep. of the Commissioner, 1903, p. 1094.

² *Ibid.*, p. 1096.

³ Blodgett. Parochial schools. In U. S. Bureau of Educ., Rep. of Commissioner, 1894-95, pp. 1617-1671.

⁴ From tabulations made after Henoch. Handbuch des deutschthums im auslande. Berlin, 1906. pp. 482-493.

⁵ Der gegenwärtige stand des deutschen unterrichts in den schulen der Vereinigten Staaten (Mittelschule), p. 42.

⁶ Evangelisch-lutherischer kalender, 1911. Columbus, Ohio.

⁷ On the subject of the attitude of the State to the parochial schools, cf. U. S. Bureau of Educ., Rep. of the Commissioner, 1893-96, pp. 611ff. *Ibid.*, 1896-99, pp. 1156-1158ff. On transfer of parochial schools to public school boards in Minnesota. *Ibid.*, 1890-91, p. 1080f.

DENOMINATIONAL SCHOOLS.

As was noted in Chapter V, the first German schools in the United States were the parochial schools of the various religious denominations. The Lutherans founded their first school in 1702, to be followed by the Mennonites in 1706. Parochial schools were found in the Colonies, principally in Pennsylvania, the Carolinas, Maryland, and Virginia.

German denominational schools of secondary rank were early supported by Lutherans, but the best known were no doubt the Moravian schools. (See Chap. VIII.)

Many of these denominational academies, colleges, and seminaries have enjoyed fine reputations for many years. To go into the history of the individual schools here would lead us too far afield. The object of these schools was and is to keep the rising youth in touch with the church, to teach them something of the tenets of their particular denomination, to train teachers for the church schools, and priests and pastors for the parishes. To-day such schools are supported principally by Roman Catholics, Lutherans of various denominations, and by the Evangelical, German Reformed, and German Methodist Churches.

A German seminary for the training of teachers for German schools is supported at St. Francis, Wis., by the Roman Catholic Church.

The Lutheran churches have 19 German colleges and seminaries as follows:

Lutheran colleges and seminaries.¹

School.	College course.	Preparatory course.	Number in faculty.	Students.
	<i>Years.</i>	<i>Years.</i>		
Theological Seminary, Wauwatosa, Wis.	3	3		
Northwestern University, Watertown, Wis.	4	2	12	241
Teachers' Seminary, New Ulm, Minn.	3	3		
Theological Seminary, Columbus, Ohio			4	36
Capital University, Columbus, Ohio			11	114
Teachers' Seminary, Woodville, Ohio			6	63
German Practical Seminary, St. Paul, Minn.			5	87
Pacific Lutheran Seminary, Olympia, Wash.			3	33
Concordia Seminary, St. Louis, Mo.	3		7	299
Concordia Seminary, Springfield, Ill.	3	2	5	225
Teachers' Seminary, A. Addison, Ill.	4	2	9	174
Teachers' Seminary, Seward, Nebr.	4		8	116
Concordia College, Fort Wayne, Ind.	4	3	8	247
Concordia College, Milwaukee, Wis.	4	2	7	195
Concordia College, St. Paul, Minn.	4	2	6	157
St. Paul's College, Concordia, Mo.	4	2	6	141
Concordia College, Bronxville, N. Y.	4	2	7	102
St. John's College, Winfield, Kans.	4	2	8	90
Concordia College, Conover, N. C.				

¹ No data yet published.

The German Methodist Episcopal Church ranks next in the number of its colleges. It has six German colleges and academies, all of fairly good standing.

¹ Statistics from latest catalogues (1930) or the Evangelisches Lutherisches Kalender. Columbus, 1931.

Colleges of the German Methodist Episcopal Church.¹

School.	Students.	Teachers.
German Wallace College, Berea, Ohio.....	255	18
Central Wesleyan College, Warrenton, Mo.....	323	22
Charles City College, Charles City, Iowa.....	150	5
St. Paul's College (an academy), St. Paul Park, Minn.....	85	7
Blinn Memorial College (an academy), Brenham, Tex.....	154	8
Enterprise Normal Academy and Business College, Enterprise, Kans.....	168	12

All, except the academies, have four-year courses and grant the regular college degrees. German is the language of instruction, as well as the language of intercourse. German Wallace College and Central Wesleyan College have also theological courses in connection, and here the German Methodist pastors are trained.

The German Evangelical Synod of North America has a pro-seminary at Elmhurst, Ill., and a theological seminary at St. Louis, Mo., both for the training of teachers and pastors for their schools and churches.

The German Baptists have a seminary and an academy at Rochester N. Y., which was founded in 1852 in connection with Rochester Theological Seminary. There are 61 students and a faculty of 5. There is a preparatory course and a theological course of three years each. The German Congregationalists maintain the German-English College at Wilton, Iowa. The German Presbyterians control the German Theological Presbyterian Seminary, Dubuque, Iowa.

Mention may be made here of the part the churches themselves play in disseminating and keeping up a knowledge of the German language. When we consider that there must be far more than half a million² communicants in the German churches to-day, their influence is evident.

¹ Statistics from the latest catalogues (1910.)

² Carroll. The religious forces of the United States, New York, 1903.

CHAPTER XI.

SPANISH AND ITALIAN IN THE UNITED STATES.

SPANISH.

Spanish was first taught on American soil in Mexico where the Jeronimites arrived in 1516, organized a mission, and employed an Indian as sacristan "who was to teach the children of the caciques and principal men, and also endeavor to make the adults speak Spanish." In 1528, Franciscans, who had a convent at Huexotzinco, attempted the earliest Spanish mission in the United States, namely, that in Florida.

The Florida missions had a long and checkered history, but as the missionaries did not make it a point to teach Spanish, but rather learned the Indian languages and taught their wards in them, we need not concern ourselves with them.

The Spanish missions in New Mexico and Texas were conducted on the plan of congregating the Indians in villages, there to teach and civilize them. The state of education among the Spaniards in those days was very low and schools few and far between, and we need not go into the subject of the Spanish taught in them.

California was settled by the Spanish from Mexico in 1769 and became United States territory in 1848. The early settlers had no educational facilities but the mission schools. In the last quarter of the eighteenth century private schools of low grade began to appear. The provincial government first began to take an interest in schools in 1793. There were six public schools in 1797. Even when California was admitted as a State of the Union, in 1850, schools were few and of the lowest grade, and educational facilities were the most primitive.¹

In 1772 a Spanish school was established in Louisiana, then under Spanish rule (1761-1800), but owing to the aversion of the French to the Spanish régime, the school was established only half-heartedly and never flourished. There was only one public school in New Orleans in 1801 in which the Spanish language was taught.

Spanish was taught in the College of Orleans, established in 1811, but ceased to be taught there in 1817. The College of Louisiana, Jackson, La., opened in 1826, had a professor of French and Spanish. In the College of Jefferson, opened 1831, Spanish was likewise taught.²

¹ Cf. Shinn, Spanish-Californian schools. Educational Review, 6: 30-41.

² Cf. also Chap. IX. Cf. also Rept. of Supt. of pub. instruction, Santa Fe, 1886. (Printed in Spanish.)

Coming to later times, Spanish still plays a considerable part in the elementary schools in several States of the Southwest. In 1889; out of 344 schools in the Territory of New Mexico, 106 were taught in Spanish and 95 in Spanish and English.¹ In 1887 a law was promulgated in Colorado as follows: "Whenever the parents or guardians of 20 or more children of school age of a district shall so demand, the district board may procure efficient instructors to teach the branches required by law in the German and Spanish languages, or in either." That law is still in force.

Spanish has slowly been replaced by English in the schools of the Spanish States of the United States, and has now no place in the public elementary schools anywhere except in New York City, where it is optional in the eighth grade. Neither does it seem to be making progress in the grades. It is not one of the languages suggested by the committee of the National Education Association alluded to above. The impulse which Spanish has received within the last decade will probably be restricted to secondary and higher schools. Thus it seems settled that a foreign language, ancient or modern, is not wanted in the public elementary school.

SPANISH IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

Spanish was first introduced in the English High School of Boston in 1852 in the last year of the three years' course, where it was carried by students in addition to French. We read in the curriculum for the year 1867 (for third-year students): "French continued or Spanish may be commenced by such pupils as in the judgment of the master have acquired a competent knowledge of French." The Spanish was then to be continued by those pupils who remained in the school a fourth year.² Spanish was taught also sporadically in academies.³

Since the Spanish-American War of 1898, Spanish has found its way into a good many public high schools, as e. g., Covington High School, 2 years; Chicago high schools, 4 years; Chattanooga High School, 1 year; Houston, Tex., high schools, 4 years; Philadelphia Manual Training High School, 1 year; Philadelphia Central High School, 2 years; Quincy (Ill.) High School, 3 years; St. Louis high schools, 4 years; Saginaw (Mich.) high schools, 2 years; a few Tennessee high schools, 3 years; Washington (D. C.) academic high

¹ U. S. Bureau of Educ., Rep. of the Commissioner, 1888-89, p. 734.

² Payne. Public elementary school curricula, p. 221.

³ Bernard's Am. Jour. of Educ., 19, p. 486.

⁴ E. g., at an early date in Lawrence Academy, Groton, Mass. [Cf. Lawrence Academy Jubilee, 1864. New York, 1865]; in Edgemoor Seminary, Princeton, N. J., in 1836; and in the Free Academy, later College of the City of New York, it was required for 2½ years in the 4 years' course in 1867. Also see Catalogue of the officers and students of Phillips Exeter Academy, 1832, p. 41.

schools, 2 years; Washington (D. C.) Business High School, 4 years; York (Pa.) High School, 3 years. Spanish may be taught according to State regulation in California, Florida, Kansas, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Texas, Utah, and Virginia.¹

SPANISH IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

Dickinson was the first college to have a professor of Spanish (i. e., he was professor of French, Spanish, Italian, and German), unless Bellini, who was professor of modern languages at William and Mary College from 1780, taught some Spanish, which is possible. It is not certain that Claudius Berard, A. M., who held the professorship of modern languages in Dickinson College really taught Spanish, but he no doubt was able to do so, as his title is distinctly "Professor of French, Spanish, Italian, and German."

Mariano Velasquez de la Cadena was elected professor of Spanish language and literature in Columbia University in 1830, and served 30 years. By this time Spanish had secured a foothold in a number of the best schools. We find it in Yale, though not as a regular study in 1826, and in Miami University in 1827.² Lewis Hargous, professor of modern languages in New Jersey College (1830-), taught Spanish there; Augustus Willis, an instructor, taught Spanish at the University of Pennsylvania, 1829-1833; and the University of the City of New York boasted Miguel Cabrera de Nevaes as professor of Spanish.³ (See also Chap. III.)

The study of Spanish in colleges made no great strides until the close of the Spanish-American War of 1898, although by that time most universities had either a professor of Spanish or one who taught Spanish along with other, generally Romance, languages. However, after the war, the prospect of trade and political relations with our Spanish possessions gave a great impetus to the study, and we find the colleges hastening to secure a course in Spanish.

Thus, at the present, out of a list of 340 colleges and universities 171 teach Spanish; while out of another list of 173 colleges and universities 112 teach Spanish. Of the 340 universities and colleges mentioned, 12 teach more than 4 years, 13 teach 4 years, 28 teach 3 years, 73 teach 2 years, and 45 teach only 1 year of Spanish.

Normal schools have not taken up Spanish very extensively. Of a list of 127 normal schools, only 9 offer Spanish.

¹ Data collected by the writer in 1910.

² In Miami University Spanish was required in 1831, and was optional for several years after that.

³ The College and Academy and Charitable School of Philadelphia in the Province of Pennsylvania, since 1775 styled The University of Pennsylvania, had an instructor in French and Spanish, Paul Fooks (1766-1797). Felix Merino followed in the office (1826-1829). Augustus Willis was instructor in Spanish (1829-1833), and the office was again filled (1867-1870) by Leon de la Cova.

Universities and colleges requiring or accepting Spanish in 1888.¹

Institution.	Degree.	First year.	Second year.	Third year.	Fourth year.
Yale University.....	A. B.....	—	—	E	E
University of Notre Dame.....	A. B.....	—	—	E	E
Washburn College.....	A. B.....	F.	E	E	E
	B. S.....	—	—	E	E
	B. L.....	—	—	E	E
Amherst College.....	A. B.....	—	—	E	E
Boston University.....	A. B.....	—	—	E	E
Harvard University.....	A. B.....	(*)	(*)	(*)	—
Wellesley College.....	A. B.....	—	—	—	E
	B. S.....	—	—	—	E
University of Michigan.....	A. B.....	(*)	(*)	(*)	—
College of City of New York.....	A. B.....	(*)	(*)	(*)	—
	B. S.....	(*)	(*)	(*)	—
Lafayette College.....	A. B.....	—	—	E	* U or S
	Ph. B.....	—	—	E	E
	B. S.....	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
	B. S. in Chem.....	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Brown University.....	A. B.....	—	—	—	E
	Ph. D.....	—	—	—	E
University of Texas.....	B. L.....	—	—	—	E
	Scientific.....	—	—	—	E
	Engineering.....	—	—	—	E
	Chemistry.....	—	—	—	E
	Physics.....	—	—	—	E
	Geology.....	—	—	—	E
University of Wisconsin.....	A. B.....	—	(*)	(*)	—

¹ From a table covering 101 institutions. U. S. Bureau of Educ., Rep. of the Commissioner, 1888-89.

- E denotes elective.
 * Required optatively.
 † Elective in fifth year.
 ‡ Fifth year German or Spanish.
 § A modern language elective.

ITALIAN.

"The Italian abounds with works of very superior order, valuable for their matter, and still more distinguished as models of the finest taste in style and composition." Thus wrote Thomas Jefferson, and we know that Jefferson learned Italian in his early years, probably at William and Mary College.

Italian has been practically unknown in public schools in America, except in the cosmopolitan schools of San Francisco. However, three Italian schools were for years maintained by the Children's Aid Society in the city of New York, and had large enrollment. They were for Italian children exclusively, were nonsectarian, and taught especially English, manual training, and politics.¹

Bellini, himself an Italian, taught Italian in 1780, and afterwards, at William and Mary College.

Dickinson College had a professor of French, Spanish, Italian, and German from 1814 to 1816, while in Columbia University we find the first professors of Italian in the persons of Lorenzo Da Ponte (1826-1837) and E. Felix Foresti, 1839-1856. Amherst offered Italian for the first time in 1851, and New Jersey College in 1832.

At the University of Pennsylvania Lorenzo de la Ponte became an instructor in Italian in 1830. He was followed by Vincent d'Amarelli (1851-1864) and by Giuseppi Mazza (1867-1869). These men were

¹ U. S. Bureau of Educ., Rep. of the Commissioner, 1862-63, p. 619 f.

not members of the faculty. No one was designated for Italian until 1892, when Hugo Rennert was made professor of Romance languages.

Slowly, universities and a number of the better colleges came to offer a course in Italian. The appended table shows the requirements in Italian in 101 universities and colleges in 1888. Italian was in no case required for entrance. To-day, of a list of 174 colleges and universities, 66 teach Italian, while of another list of 340 colleges and universities, 90 teach Italian.

Of the 340 universities and colleges mentioned, 4 teach more than 4 years; 6 teach 4 years; 9 teach 3 years; 33 teach 2 years; and 37 only 1 year of Italian.

Normal schools have not embraced Italian; only one of a list of 127 offers it.

Universities and colleges requiring or accepting Italian in 1888.¹

Institution.	Course.	First year.	Second year.	Third year.	Fourth year.
Yale University.....	A. B.....			E	E
University of Notre Dame.....	A. B.....	E	E		
Amherst College.....	A. B.....			E	
Boston University.....	A. B.....			E	
Harvard University.....			(²)	(²)	
Wellesley College.....	A. B.....			E	E
	B. S.....				E
University of Michigan.....			(²)	(²)	
Syracuse University.....	A. B.....				E
	Ph. B.....				E
	B. S.....				E
	C. E.....				E
Lafayette College.....	A. B.....			E	
	Ph. B.....			E	E
	B. S.....	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)
	B. S. in Chem.....	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)
University of Pennsylvania.....	Arts.....				E
Brown University.....	A. B.....				E
	Ph. B.....				E
University of Wisconsin.....			(²)	(²)	

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¹ From a table covering 101 institutions. U. S. Bureau of Educ. Rep. of the Commissioner, 1888-89, pp. 1224-1293.

² Denotes Elective.

³ Required optatively.

⁴ A modern language elective.

CHAPTER XII.

MODERN LANGUAGES IN NORMAL SCHOOLS, SUMMER SCHOOLS, SCHOOLS OF LANGUAGES, AND UNIVERSITY EXTENSION.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The first normal schools in the United States were those established at Lexington, Barre, and Bridgewater, Mass., in 1839. In common with all similar schools which soon sprang up, east and west, these did not teach modern languages. As the courses were lengthened to three, and later to four years, German and French were introduced, generally as optional with the classics.

Thus in 1898 statistics show that 25 per cent of the normal schools accepted German or Latin for entrance.¹ In the same year the Massachusetts schools offered two years of German and two years of French.²

In 1903, the typical four-year normal-school course allows French and German (in New England, French required) as electives or requires them optionally with Greek. More rarely, Spanish is offered.³

Data obtained from the catalogues of 127 normal schools in 1910 show that 4 require French or German one to three years for entrance. In 18 French or German, in 1 school Spanish is required for graduation; 69 of the 127 schools teach German; 23 schools teach four years; 22 schools teach three years, 23 schools teach two years, and 1 school teaches only one year of German.

Of the 127 schools, 41 teach French; 8 schools teach four years, 11 schools teach three years, 16 schools teach two years, and 6 schools teach only one year of French.

Of the 127 schools, 9 teach Spanish; 1 school teaches four years, and 8 schools teach two years of Spanish. Only 1 school offers Italian.

When we consider that there are 196 public and 68 private normal schools, with an enrollment of 88,561,⁴ the magnitude of the modern language work in normal schools is apparent.

¹ Ferron. German in the public schools. *In Americana-Germanica*, II: 83 ff.

² U. S. Bureau of Educ. Rep. of the Commissioner, 1898-99. p. 2274.

³ *Ibid.*, 1903. p. 1116 ff.

⁴ U. S. Bureau of Educ. Rep. of the Commissioner, 1910.

Cf. Lucky, G. W. A. The professional training of secondary teachers in the United States. *In Columbia University. Contributions to philosophy, psychology, and education*, XII. Nos. 1 to 4. New York, 1903. Chapter II; also Hinedale, B. A. The training of teachers. *In Education in the United States. A series of monographs, etc.*, edited by Nicholas Murray Butler. 2 vols. Albany, N. Y., J. B. Lyon & co. 1900. pp. 360-400.

On the rise of normal schools see Chas. Brooks. *History of the introduction of State normal schools in America*. Boston, 1864. [Important evidence for the Prussian origin of our normal schools.]

SUMMER SCHOOLS, SCHOOLS OF LANGUAGES, AND UNIVERSITY
EXTENSION.

With the rise of the natural method of teaching modern languages under the leadership of Heness and Sauveur in the later sixties (see Ch. XII) there appeared a number of able men and great numbers of poorly qualified—often itinerant—teachers of German and French, who aroused the ire of the schoolmen by their unscholarly methods of teaching and the oft-times preposterous contentions as to the possibilities of their methods. We were threatened, said the schoolmen, with what is known in Germany as *Sprachmeisterei*, i. e., the teaching of the modern languages by unscholarly foreigners. However, the natural-method propaganda seems to have given an impetus to the teaching of modern languages in summer schools, Chautauquas, and language schools, of which there are a great number.

The first summer school of languages was established in 1876, at Plymouth, N. H., by Dr. L. Sauveur. In 1878, a summer school was opened at Marthas Vineyard, by Dr. Homer Sprague and Prof. Elliwood, and French and German were offered.

In 1877 the Summer School of Languages was established at Amherst College by Dr. L. Sauveur, who conducted the school until 1883, when he retired to establish a school at Burlington, Vt. Thereupon the Amherst school came under the direction of Mr. William L. Montague. The object of the school was—

to furnish the best instruction in different departments at the least possible expense to the pupils, and, especially in French and German, to establish a sort of foreign society pervaded by such a linguistic atmosphere that every one who enters it, even as a spectator, shall be inspired with new vigor and enthusiasm in language studies.

The school proposed to supply the wants of three classes of students:

First, teachers, especially American teachers of foreign languages, who desire to gain hints and suggestions on the latest and best methods of teaching those languages. Second, professional and business men and women who would like to devote a brief vacation to the study of the humanities; those who enjoy mental culture and literary society while seeking recreation amid rural scenes of great natural beauty. Third, students who desire to begin the study of a language or to make up deficiencies, or to gain greater familiarity with languages. The instruction is based on the oral or inductive method.

The morning is devoted to recitations, the afternoons and evenings to lectures or gymnastics or recreation; Saturday to picnics and excursions.

The term was one of five weeks. There has been an average attendance of several hundred.

The Burlington school of Dr. Sauveur was held in Oswego, N. Y., in the summers of 1886 and 1887, since which time it has been held at Burlington. The term was three weeks. The natural method of instruction was followed. There was an average attendance of about

200. In 1895 this school was again united with the Amherst summer school.

Summer schools of languages were instituted at Cornell College, Iowa, and Iowa College in 1887, and Rutland, Vt. Summer schools have flourished of late years under the auspices of colleges and universities, and Chautauquas have also been common. In most of the latter modern languages, at least German and French, are offered. The students, persons from every walk of life, who receive instruction in languages in these schools are numbered by many thousands.

The Berlitz schools, scattered throughout the country in large cities, approach the natural method in their instruction. They reach large numbers of students, especially professional men and women, and others who wish to learn to speak and read in a short time. They have textbooks especially prepared for their use. These schools are representative of the commercial schools.

University extension courses also offer instruction in modern languages, especially French and German. The work as carried on by the best schools is thorough and performs all that can be done without the aid of the teacher's living personality. No doubt the extension or correspondence courses offered by some lesser schools, especially commercial institutes, are below standard and should be avoided. Thousands are thus receiving good, indifferent, or poor instruction.

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CHAPTER XIII.

THE GROWTH OF MODERN LANGUAGES AS A SCHOOL SUBJECT.

The relative slowness with which the modern languages came into their own as a subject for the curriculum affords a typical instance of the schoolman's conservatism. As long ago as the seventeenth century Latin had lost its position as the international language of cultivated men. Thereafter the growth of the national spirit and the vernacular literature, among other factors, tended steadily to restrict the use of the ancient tongue till it became little more than a professional tool for the lawyer, the statesman, and the cleric. As a rule all accessions to the body of science, art, and culture of every sort were set down in the native language of the writer—predominantly in French, German, or English. It was patent that at least two of these modern languages should be mastered if the educated man was to have access to the same sort of matter as that which was opened to his grandfather through Latin. Nevertheless, the schoolmen, in this country at least, continued to teach Latin with scant regard, if any, to the modern languages, which were usurping its position as the recognized medium of the contemporary thinker.

One of the most prominent early supporters of the modern languages in America was that genius of practicality, Benjamin Franklin, who wrote:

When I had attained an acquaintance with the French, Italian, and Spanish I was surprised to find, on looking over a Latin Testament, that I understood more of that language than I had imagined, which encouraged me to apply myself again to the study of it, and I met with the more success as those preceding languages had greatly smoothed my way. From these circumstances, I have thought there was some inconsistency in our common mode of teaching languages. We are told that it is proper to begin first with Latin, and having acquired that, it will be more easy to attain those modern languages which are derived from it, and yet we do not begin with the Greek in order more easily to acquire the Latin. It is true that if we can clamber and get to the top of a staircase without using the steps we shall more easily gain them in descending; but certainly if we begin with the lowest we shall with more ease ascend to the top, and I would therefore offer it to the consideration of those who superintend the education of our youth, whether—since many of those who begin with the Latin quit the same after spending some years without having made any great proficiency, and what they have learned becomes almost useless, so that their time has been lost—it would not have been better to have begun with the French, proceeding to the Italian and Latin. For, though, after spending the same time they should quit

the study of languages and never arrive at the Latin they would, however, have acquired another tongue or two that being in modern use might be serviceable to them in common life.

The origin of Latin and Greek schools among the different nations of Europe is known to have been this: That until between three and four hundred years past there were no books in any other language; all the knowledge then contained in books, viz, the theology, the jurisprudence, the physic, the art military, the politics, the mathematics and mechanics, the natural and moral philosophy, the logic and rhetoric, the chemistry, the pharmacy, the architecture, and every other branch of science being in those languages, it was, of course, necessary to learn them as the gates through which men must pass to get at that knowledge.

But there is in mankind an unaccountable prejudice in favor of ancient customs and habitudes, which inclines to a continuance of them after the circumstances which formerly made them useful cease to exist. A multitude of instances might be given, but it may suffice to mention one. Hats were once thought a useful part of dress; they kept the head warm and screened it from the violent impression of the sun's rays and from the rain, snow, hail, etc., though, by the way, this was not the more ancient opinion or practice. From among all the remains of antiquity, the bustoes, statues, basso-relievos, medals, etc., which are infinite, there is no representation of the human figure with a hat or cap on, nor any covering for the head, unless it be the head of a soldier, who has a helmet, but that is evidently not a part of dress for health but as a protection from the strokes of a weapon.

At what time hats were first introduced we know not, but in the last century they were universally worn throughout Europe. Gradually, however, as the wearing of wigs and hair *nicely* dressed prevailed, the putting on of hats was disused by genteel people lest the curious arrangements of the curls and powdering should be disordered, and umbrellas began to supply their place; yet still our considering the hat as part of the dress continues so far to prevail that a man of fashion is not thought dressed without having one, or something like one, about him which he carries under his arm. So that there are a multitude of the politer people in all the courts in capital cities of Europe who have never, nor their fathers before them, worn a hat otherwise than as a *chapeau bras*, though the utility of such a mode of wearing it is by no means apparent, and it is attended not only with some expense, but with a degree of constant trouble.

The still prevailing custom of having schools for teaching generally our children in these days the Latin and Greek languages I consider, therefore, in no other light than as the *chapeau bras* of modern literature.

Thus the time spent in that study might, it seems, be much better employed in the education for such a country as ours, and this was indeed the opinion of most of the original trustees [of the Academy of Philadelphia].

The preceding chapters have shown in detail the progress of the modern languages in the various classes of schools, as well as the standing of the study as a branch of the college curriculum. Such men as Ticknor, Follen, Longfellow, Lowell—not to mention dozens of other teachers who were just as efficient but who won less fame—served to give dignity to modern language instruction and to assure it a place along with Latin and Greek. The unevenness of this competition is patent. Latin and Greek had the prestige of centuries, countless numbers of students had been instructed in them, they gave the badge of culture; and the conservatism of the schoolmen of that early day was their stay. But in spite of all these handicaps

the modern languages won. They won because of inherent value and because of the enthusiasm and the scholarly stamp of those who taught them.

Final recognition of the significance of modern languages in education came in the last quarter of the nineteenth century with the elevation of the modern-language teacher in the colleges and universities from the merely tutorial to the professorial rank. In the same period falls also the beginning of the scientific study of the modern languages in American universities.

To-day the value of the modern languages as a branch of study, both in secondary and higher schools, is no longer questioned; they have become a recognized part of a liberal education.

Citations from three representative American educators may suffice to show the present attitude and feeling of educators generally as to the value and the place of modern languages in our educational scheme:

Had we nothing else with yet stronger recommendations to apply to, the German and French, especially the former, would answer to us all the essential disciplinary purposes of philological study; as, indeed, to many they are and must be made to answer those purposes. As the case stands, they are among the indispensable parts of a disciplinary education; he who quits school and enters upon the active work of life without mastering either or both of them can not claim to have enjoyed the benefit of a liberal training.—Whitney, W. D., *Language and education*. North American review, 113: 365f. (1871).

Third, in these days it is important that he [the educated man] should also have a knowledge of other modern tongues. More than two of these would be advantageous, but a liberal education absolutely requires that every English-speaking person should have a knowledge of French and German also; for it is with the French and the Germans that we are brought most frequently in contact, and it is from the French and the Germans that in these days we receive the most important contributions to literary and physical science.—Gilman, D. C. Is it worth while to uphold any longer the idea of a liberal education? *Educational Review*, 3: 117.

The next subjects for which I claim a position of academic equality with Greek, Latin, and mathematics are French and German. This claim rests not on the usefulness of these languages to couriers, tourists, or commercial travelers, and not on their merit as languages, but on the magnitude and worth of the literatures, and on the unquestionable fact that facility in reading these languages is absolutely indispensable to a scholar, whatever may be his department of study. Until within 100 or 150 years scholarship had a common language, the Latin; so that scholars of all the European nationalities had a perfect means of communication, whether in speaking, writing, or printing. But the cultivation of the spirit of nationality and the development of national literatures have brought about the abandonment of Latin as the common language of learning, and imposed on every student who would go beyond the elements of his subject the necessity of acquiring at least a reading knowledge of French and German, besides Latin. Indeed, the advanced student of our day can dispense with Latin better than with French, German, or English; for, although the antiquated publications in any science may be printed in Latin, the recent (which will probably contain all that is best in the old) will be found printed in one of these modern languages. I can not state too strongly the indispensableness of both French and German to the American or English student. Without these

languages he will be much worse off in respect to communicating with his contemporaries than was the student of the seventeenth century who could read and speak Latin; for through Latin the student of the year 1684 could put himself into direct communication with all contemporary learning. So far as I know, there is no difference of opinion among American scholars as to the need of mastering these two languages in youth. The philologists, archaeologists, metaphysicians, physicians, physicists, naturalists, chemists, economists, engineers, architects, artists, and musicians, all agree that a knowledge of these languages is indispensable to the intelligent pursuit of any one of their respective subjects beyond its elements. Every college professor who gives a thorough course of instruction—no matter in what department—finds himself obliged to refer his pupils to French and German authorities. In the reference library of any modern laboratory, whether of chemistry, physics, physiology, pathology, botany, or zoology, a large proportion of the books will be found to be in French or German. The working library of the philologist, archaeologist, or historian teaches the same lesson. Without a knowledge of these two languages it is impossible to get at the experience of the world upon any modern industrial, social, or financial question, or to master any profession which depends upon applications of modern science. I urge no utilitarian argument, but rest the claims of French and German for admission to complete academic equality on the copiousness and merit of the literatures and the indispensableness of the languages to all scholars.—Eliot, Charles W. What is a liberal education? Century magazine, 28: 206f. (1884).

CHAPTER XIV.

METHODS OF TEACHING MODERN LANGUAGES.

The history of modern-language teaching in the United States may be said to have revolved about three methods—the grammar-translation method, the natural method, and the direct method. The terms are not scientifically descriptive, and of course no one of the three methods has prevailed at a given time to the exclusion of the others; yet roughly they represent what has been the trend at different stages in modern language instruction. In Chapter XV the details of the various methods are noted, but it seems desirable at this point to present an impartial summary of each of the three methods cited, particularly as all three still form the subject of more or less animated debate.¹

THE GRAMMAR-TRANSLATION METHOD.

The so-called "grammar-translation method" typifies the traditional system of foreign-language instruction in modern schools. Derived originally from the method of teaching Greek and Latin, it still survives to a considerable extent to-day, though largely freshened and humanized by more modern ideals of education. Its good and bad points are not unfairly summed up in the report of the committee on college entrance requirements of the National Education Association, as follows:

When the modern languages first became a regular subject for serious study in secondary schools, it was natural that teachers, having no other model to imitate, should adopt the time-honored plan followed in departments of Greek and Latin. According to this method the pupil is first put through a volume of paradigms, rules, exceptions, and examples which he learns by heart. Only when he has thoroughly mastered this book is he allowed to read; and even then his reading is usually regarded as a means of illustrating and emphasizing grammatical principles, rather than as a source of inspiration or of literary education. The amount of foreign literature studied by the class is, moreover, extremely small; but it is all carefully analyzed and translated, every lesson being in general repeated several times. Composition is used as an instrument for increasing still more the student's familiarity with inflections and rules. The foreign language is never spoken, and pronunciation is considered unimportant.

¹ No attempt will be made to discuss methods of the past, which have chiefly an historical interest, such as those of Ascham, Ratichius, Cogeanus, and Iscoto. For information about them the teacher is referred to Street: *A study in language teaching*. Pedagogical seminary, 4:268ff, April, 1897; or Bahsen, L. *The teaching of modern languages*. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1908. The Langenscheidt, Mastery, Rosenthal, and other similar systems are not academic and need not be discussed here.

This method has fallen into discredit; and while it is not yet entirely banished from classical instruction, it can scarcely be found, in its original purity, among the modern-language courses of any civilized region. It has, however, certain undeniable advantages. In the first place, it trains the mnemonic faculty; in the reaction against the hard, unattractive schooling of our fathers modern pedagogical fashion has gone so far that the power of conscious acquisition and retention is hardly exercised at all; children go to college or out into life with an embryonic memory; and the teacher's task rivals the labor of the Danaides. Secondly, the careful study of grammatical rules and their nice application in translation and composition form one of the best possible exercises in close reasoning. It may be urged that logical processes are not natural to the child; neither are they natural to the uninstructed adult; but to be a successful student or an intelligent citizen, a boy or man must be able to arrive at rational conclusions. Hence, it is one of the chief duties of education to afford practice in clear and orderly thinking. The principal value of arithmetic and algebra as secondary school studies lies in the fact that in them right and wrong reasoning are immediately and unmistakably distinguished by their results. In most subjects the white and black are not so clearly defined; between them lies a broad gray zone, the region of "not quite correct" and "not altogether bad", and it is toward this neutral belt that nearly all the pupil's efforts bend. The children "don't see why" their answer is not as good as any other, and the sloth and slovenliness native to the untrained human mind remain undisturbed. Now, grammatical analysis and synthesis, while less mechanical and more varied in their operation than elementary mathematics, are nearly or quite equal to it as a means of inculcating the habit of accurate ratiocination.

On the other hand, the grammar method is open to criticism on the ground that it neglects two of the most important objects of foreign language study: The broadening of the mind through contact with the life, the ideas, and the forms of thought and expression of different times and countries; and the cultivation of the artistic sense by appreciative study of literary masterpieces. A still more potent objection is the contention that pure grammar is not calculated to inspire interest in pupils of the high-school age. This objection seems to be well founded, and, if so, it is a fatal one; for modern pedagogy, if it has accomplished nothing else, has established the fact that interest is absolutely essential to the performance of the best work in any field. It appears, then, that the day of the pure grammar method is past; but while devising a system more in accordance with the principles and possibilities of our time, let us not forget that the old-fashioned way had its good features.¹

In our American practice, where the deadliness of the strict grammar-translation method soon acquired disfavor, the so-called "reading method" was adopted. This is practically a diluted form of the grammar-translation method, with the emphasis on "reading" (i. e., translation), and a superficial use of the grammar. It is still found to some extent. It has been advocated for those who wish to learn to read quickly, but the present-day reformers claim that even if the object is only to learn to read, this can be accomplished more swiftly by the direct method. It is contended that there is no pedagogical theory back of it, and it tends to laziness on the part of the teacher and lack of interest in the student.²

¹ National Educational Association. Report of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements, University of Chicago Press, 1899, pp. 84-86.

² In the matter of terms it is necessary to observe that the name "reading method" is sometimes used to signify the grammar-translation method.

THE NATURAL METHOD.

For many years it has been one of the common charges against the teaching of modern languages in American schools that the students may study the language for several years and still not be able to speak or understand it. The indictment is perhaps not so significant as it sounds at first; nevertheless, a reaction was bound to come. The natural method represents the reaction. It lays great stress on the control of the spoken language. Quoting again the words of the report already indicated:

At the opposite pedagogical pole from the grammar method, we find the conversational or "natural" method. This educational "naturalism" is a reaction against the inflexible systematism of earlier teachers; we would, therefore, expect it to be somewhat aggressive and somewhat formless, more given to pulling down than to building up. It is a principle, an impulse, rather than a plan; and its products depend, to a greater extent than those of any other school, on the personality of the instructor. Too often the results of a protracted and supposedly successful course of unalloyed conversation are a rapid but unintelligible pronunciation, the fluent use of incorrect forms, and, worst of all, a most discouraging self-complacency. Some peculiarly gifted teachers have succeeded in combining alertness with a reasonable degree of accuracy, but it will probably be found, in all such cases, that the instructor has resorted to devices not strictly "natural."

What is the genuine "natural method?" In its extreme form it consists of a series of monologues by the teacher, interspersed with exchanges of question and answer between the instructor and pupil—all in the foreign language; almost the only evidence of system is the arrangement, in a general way, of the easier discourses and dialogues at the beginning and the more difficult at the end. A great deal of pantomime accompanies the talk. With the aid of this gesticulation, by attentive listening, and by dint of much repetition the beginner comes to associate certain acts and objects with certain combination of sounds and finally reaches the point of producing the foreign words and phrases. When he has arrived at this stage, the expressions already familiar are connected with new ones in such a way that the former give the clue to the latter, and the vocabulary is rapidly extended, even general and abstract ideas being ultimately brought within the student's comprehension. The mother tongue is strictly banished, not only from the pupil's lips, but, as far as possible, from his mind. Not until a considerable familiarity with the spoken idiom has been attained is the scholar permitted to see the foreign language in print; the study of grammar is reserved for a still later period. Composition consists of the written reproduction of the phrases orally acquired.

This method—if "method" is the proper term—is based on two general ideas, one true, the other false. The first is the belief that the interest so necessary to the successful prosecution of any study (and especially to language work) can most easily be aroused by the actual spoken use of the foreign tongue. The second is the theory that a boy or a man can best learn a new language in the manner in which an infant first acquires its native speech. Hence comes the epithet "natural." The advocates of this view overlook, first the fact that the child requires 8 or 10 years of incessant practice to gain even a tolerable command of its own tongue, and, secondly, the vast difference between the mind of the baby and that of the youth. The really natural methods of acquisition at these two stages of development are almost diametrically opposed. Let us consider, for instance, the learning of pronunciation. The newborn child, after various unsuccessful experiments, produces sounds correctly because it has no previous habits of speech to contend with. The boy or man, unless he is

phonetically trained, or exceptionally acute of hearing, does not imitate at all. He merely substitutes for the several strange vowels and consonants the English sounds which the foreign ones happen to suggest to him. This is why the pronunciation of conversational classes is generally not a whit better than that of scholars taught after the most antiquated fashion. In the attempt to inculcate the other elements of speech—inflections, syntax, and phraseology—the purely imitative process shows itself to be almost equally inadequate. We may justly urge, furthermore, against this style of teaching, that it affords only the poorest kind of mnemonic training; that it favors vagueness of thought and imprecision of expression, and finally, that it sacrifices the artistic interest of language study to a so-called "practical" one. On the other hand, it certainly does awaken enthusiasm among the pupils, and it stimulates and holds the attention.

The natural method has been vehemently attacked and just as vigorously defended. At present the violence of the contest has abated, and we are able to judge dispassionately the results of its introduction into our educational life. Those results have been mainly good. In summer schools and other institutions that have used the imitative process exclusively most of the pupils are persons who have had or will soon get some practice in grammar and reading. For them the conversation lessons are supplementary and form a useful addition to their training. In schools and colleges that have not accepted the "naturalistic" theory the fame of the new method has obliged teachers to adopt some of its practical features, thus bringing much needed life and variety into their instruction. It seems probable that the next generation will regard "naturalism" rather as a vivifying influence than as an independent method.

During its brief vogue, in the third quarter of the century, the natural method under Henness, Sauvœur, and others created considerable excitement, raised many sanguine hopes and was soon relegated to the ubiquitous "professor" and the commercial school. The words just quoted, which in effect characterize the natural method as an impulse rather than a method will probably stand as proper and final.

The epithet "natural" is of course sometimes used to signify what in our time is called the direct method, and confusion results. Thus a prominent writer who stands for a thorough academic method writes in 1874:

It is a matter of great satisfaction that the only true mode of learning languages, the natural one, by word of mouth from living teachers, is becoming common, the language itself first, and afterwards the philosophy of it—the rules. It is most desirable that this mode of learning the ancient languages should be introduced, to learn first the language, to read and understand it, and afterwards the rules. Indeed, I would not recommend the study even of Greek, if most or much of the time given to it had to be thrown away upon the grammar.¹

MODERN DIRECT METHODS.

Before taking up the so-called "direct method" in its modern developments, it is necessary to consider the work of François Gouin, a Frenchman, whose experiments form an interesting preliminary to

¹ Dr. L. B. Emerson in an address before the Boston society of natural history, January 8, 1874.

what has been done in more recent times. Gouin, dissatisfied with the inefficiency of conventional methods of teaching modern language, invented a series system, a direct method, in which the conversations, or lessons, treat of a unified theme, such as: "I open the door," or "The maid pumps water." Each lesson is written out in a series of sentences, each of which tells of an action. Gouin considered that in this way language material can be more easily learned than otherwise, and he said he had learned this system by observing children in their talk.

Gouin set himself to working out a thorough linguistic system which should include the entire vocabulary of the language to be taught. Accordingly, he arranged his lessons in general series, on such topics as "man," "the quadrupeds." Under "man" came the various series on man, and under these the individual lessons on man's activities. Gouin worked this out very thoroughly, crossing out each word in his dictionary as he used it, and continuing until his dictionary was exhausted. For imparting the vocabulary of a 12-year-old child, 1,200 lessons of from 18 to 30 sentences each, were found sufficient, and these he taught in 300 recitation hours. For imparting the vocabulary of an adult educated person Gouin used from 3,000 to 4,000 lessons, which he taught in from 800 to 900 recitation hours. To this vocabulary of the "objective" language Gouin added from 1,000 to 2,000 lessons on figurative language, while the language for abstract processes was intermingled with the ordinary lessons from day to day.

Thus the method was thorough enough on the side of the vocabulary; and as Gouin himself taught the grammar, this part of the instruction was likewise well cared for, although his highly original scheme for the treatment of the senses is somewhat fanciful. Gouin's personal teaching was, according to good testimony, a remarkable achievement.

As to the method of teaching the lessons: The teacher speaks the sentence slowly, laying emphasis on the verb. The student repeats the same. When a paragraph is completed it is repeated by several of the members of the class in turn and then by the entire class. Thus through the entire lesson. The next day the lesson is reproduced orally, each student giving one sentence in turn, and the greater part of the hour is devoted to teaching the new lessons. At home the student rewrites the lessons in another tense, person, number, etc. Grammatical instruction is begun at the outset on the inductive plan. The reading of texts is taken up later.

As to the pedagogical aspects of this method, it is plain that it rests on the principle of mental visualization, with imitation as a prominent factor.

Gouin's idea that language can best be taught in series is psychologically and pedagogically correct. This basic principle has been adopted even in the teaching of the mother tongue for the reason that material arranged in a natural series is easier to remember than in any other arrangement. This may best be made evident by a paragraph of a Gouin lesson. Thus:

The child washes his hands and face; the child goes to the washstand; he takes up the water pitcher; he pours water into the basin; and he places the jug on the washstand; he takes up the soap; he dips the soap into the water; he rubs his hands with the soap; and he washes his hands thoroughly, etc.

When the class can reproduce this, orally and in writing, without verbally memorizing it, they have thoroughly acquired that much vocabulary. This method does away with the use of the mother tongue in the classroom, and it gives Sprachgefühl.

The rapid growth of the method after its publication in the eighties of the last century has now been checked by the advance of the direct or reform method. But the reform method itself makes considerable use of the "series" idea, and Prof. Max Walter, one of the chief representatives of this method, justifies such use in these words:

A great advantage of the Gouin method consists in the fact that the student is forced to visualize for himself the process of a series, to determine actions in their causal relation, and to clothe them in the garb of language.¹

The Report of the Committee of Twelve has a good word to say for this method, as its first and concluding paragraphs show:

Out of the conviction that modern-language study should be made attractive, and out of the desire to adapt instruction to the known workings of the human mind, has come a system that seems more deserving of serious attention than the grammar method or the natural style of teaching.

The Bétis² or Gouin method has the following obvious advantages: It trains the memory; it fascinates the student and holds his attention more closely than any other mode of teaching now in vogue; it gives the pupil, in a reasonably short time, a ready command over a large, well-arranged, and well-digested vocabulary; it affords, through some of its conversational groups, an insight into the life of a foreign country. As for the other side, the system seems, as far as we can ascertain the facts, to lay itself open to the criticisms that it affords but little opportunity for the exercise of judgment; that it entirely neglects in the first years the cultivation of the esthetic sense, and assigns literary study to a stage which high-school pupils will scarcely ever reach. Moreover, its treatment of pronunciation is decidedly unsatisfactory; but this defect can probably be remedied without disturbing the rest of the scheme.³

The direct method, although conceived and advocated by various teachers since the time of Luther, was started on its triumphant

¹ In English nach dem Frankfurter Lehrplan, etc. Marburg, 1900.

² The Bétis method is an adaptation of the Gouin method.

³ National Education Association. Report of the committee on college entrance requirements. Chicago, University of Chicago press, 1899. pp. 67-68.

For more recent adaptation and use of the method, see Handschin. A historical sketch of the Gouin series system of teaching modern languages and of its use in the United States. School review, 20: 170-176, Mar., 1913; and the Miami University bulletin. Oxford, Ohio, Nov., 1908.

course in the eighties of the past century by Wilhelm Viëtor, a German, in his brochure *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren*.¹ Viëtor, who has remained in the leadership of the movement, gave to the method its insistence upon the phonetic drill, which has remained one of the characteristics of the method as used in Europe, although many teachers disregard it. Wherever the method has been adopted in the United States, this part of the program has not been strictly adhered to, partly, no doubt, because our courses in modern languages are shorter and demand that we get on faster; partly because the knowledge of phonetics is not yet generally diffused among our teachers; partly because the pronunciation of German, the language principally taught here, is hardly as difficult as that of English and French, the languages taught in the German schools; and, finally, because we have not felt the imperative need of a good pronunciation as have the European nations who are aiming at a practical mastery of the foreign tongue.

The method, as its name indicates, plans to teach the foreign language by imitation, without much intervention on the part of the mother tongue. However, it also makes use of the analytical and synthetic methods to a great degree, in that the reading matter is thoroughly analyzed into its parts and construed, later to be reconstructed in original paraphrases. The direct method makes use of all that is valuable in the other methods, and thus may be considered an eclectic method which is eminently adapted to our modern education with its varied demands. The tenets of the method, as they stand out both in theory and practice in the schools of Germany, are as follows, though, as stated above, not all German teachers have embraced the new method, nor do even all of the progressives introduce the strict phonetic drill:

1. Phonetic drill in the elementary stages of the instruction.
2. The foreign language is the medium of instruction.
3. Reading forms the center of instruction, but there are well-planned conversation lessons at each hour.
4. Grammar is taught inductively, in part or entirely.
5. The teaching of composition is limited to "free composition," i. e., original writing on a set theme, or on the reading lesson, etc.
6. Translation into the mother tongue is limited to a minimum.
7. Object teaching is used in the early stages.
8. *Realien* are used extensively.

¹ Hellbrann, 1890.

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- Brebner, Mary. The method of teaching foreign languages in Germany. London, 1904.
- Brenl, Karl. The teaching of modern languages and the training of teachers. Cambridge (England), 1906. 156 p. 8°.
- For elementary books after this method, see the Walter-Krause German series Beginners' German. New York, Scribner. Also several new books from the presses of Holt & co., Heath & co., and Ginn & co.
- For reading books built on this method, see Savory's books, e. g., Reformlesebuch. New York, 1908, Oxford University press, American branch.
- For elementary lessons on the Gonin series plan, see Handschin's German lessons for beginners. Miami Univ., Oxford, Ohio.
- The organ of the reform movement is "die neueren sprachen," Marburg, Germany. (10 issues a year.)

CHAPTER XV.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE LITERATURE ON THE METHODS OF TEACHING MODERN LANGUAGES.

In the teaching of any subject the practice of the schoolroom and the theory propounded in the textbook have an interactive effect. Theory reflects or revolutionizes practice; and practice may originate, modify, extend, or destroy theory. The changes in methods of teaching modern languages in this country have already been considered with reference to their effect upon the growth of these subjects in the curriculum. Consideration is now to be given to these changes with reference to their influence upon the literature of the subjects.

The early teachers of modern languages had but poor equipment in the way of grammars and reading texts for class use. It was not till 1784 that the first French grammar was published in this country, that of John Mary, instructor in Harvard.¹ Another successful grammar of the earlier times was that translated and amplified by Longfellow. This work went through at least three editions.²

One of the earliest works issued to meet the demand for reading texts was "The French reader, consisting of selections from classical French writers, adapted to the use of schools and private classes." This reader was an anthology from Fénelon, Chateaubriand, St. Pierre, Cuvier, Buffon, Lalande, and others.³

Naturally, the grammar-translation method of teaching, dominant from the very inception of modern language instruction almost to the present, was reflected in the early textbooks, as will be shown by an examination of the appended list of textbooks, published in the country up to 1826.

Speaking modern languages was not much practiced.⁴ However, Ticknor early advocated a large use of oral language as a *sine qua non* of intelligent study. Method, he says, must vary in teaching various classes of learners. For children the natural, for adults the deductive method is best. Translation is made use of at all times, but he insists upon good English in the translations.⁵ Another method is

¹ Boston 1774, 140 p.

² Lombard. Elements of French grammar, with additional notes for the use of schools, etc., by H. W. Longfellow. 3d ed., Boston, 1834.

³ Frost, J., Philadelphia, 1835.

⁴ Forman. Thomas Jefferson, p. 196.

⁵ American Institute of Instruction. Boston, 1833, pp. 25-43.

set forth in Jackson's "Nature improved, or a new method of teaching languages, exemplified by its application to Latin, Greek, and French."¹ According to this method, pronunciation is taught by many examples; conjugation is taught and illustrated by many phrases, "but written rules of syntax are not wanted till the language is nearly mastered." For the rest, conversations were to complete the course. But the point of copious illustration of every phenomenon had been made by Ratichius, Comenius, and others, far more powerfully two centuries earlier. Thus, there is nothing new in this method.

Meantime the modern languages as a subject of instruction occupy a larger and larger share of attention. In 1836 M. Poyen, a teacher of French in Boston, contributes an article to "The Ladies' Magazine," entitled "What are the languages to be taught to youth?" in which he breaks a lance for the modern tongues. In 1838, a speaker before an important educational meeting in Ohio made out a good case for the modern languages and asserted that to learn to speak them "is now about to become essential."²

Questions concerning the teaching of modern languages begin to appear on the programs of education societies. Thus, at the eighth annual session of the American Institute of Instruction, held at Worcester, Mass., 1837, Mr. Charles Picot,³ of Philadelphia, read a paper, on "The Teaching of French," in which he says that the teachers of French in America are not well qualified, and proceeds to give an account of his own method. In the West, at the convention of western colleges, which was held at Miami University in 1837, one of the questions set for discussion was: "Ought the modern languages and music to be introduced into the college course?"

The battle of method continued. Arnold, of Rugby, was the authority of those in this country who advocated the grammar translation method.⁴ The plan of the modern gymnasium (Leipzig), of concentrating on one language at the outset, with at least 10 to 12 lessons a week in it and associating geography and history with the instruction, was presented in 1858.⁵ Rev. Thomas Hill advocated a reading grammar method in 1859, and made the suggestion of daily rapid and extensive reading aside from the regular reading text.⁶ Prof. Edward H. Maguire, a prominent educator and teacher of French, wrote his Complete French Grammar, Boston, 1866, which was

¹ Philadelphia, 1827. 166 p.

² Meline. Address on the study of modern languages. Transactions of the Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers. Cincinnati, 1838.

³ M. Picot was the editor of a series of six school texts. Among them were: Interesting narratives in French, etc. Philadelphia, 1845. Historical narratives in French, etc. Philadelphia, 1845. Fleurs du Parnasse françois, etc. Philadelphia, 1845.

⁴ Barnard's Am. Jour. of Educ., 4: 565 f.

⁵ Ibid., 4: 232 (1858).

⁶ Ibid., 7: 467.

followed by his Introductory French Reader and his French Prose and Poetry. These books were popular and exerted a considerable influence upon the teaching of French. Prof. W. D. Whitney wrote an able treatise on the uses of the modern languages, but left the matter of the method by which they should be taught rather to be inferred.¹ G. F. Comfort² proposed to begin one modern language at the age of 10 or 12 and a second one or two years before leaving the secondary school, both to be continued in college. Latin and Greek, he held, should be taken up in the sophomore and junior years in college. In modern languages he advocated a direct method.

Prendergast's "Handbook to the mastery series" was first published in New York in 1868, as a work of 92 pages. The idea underlying the Mastery system is "ringing the changes upon a few sentences with occasional additions." Short sessions should be held in teaching beginners "three or more of ten minutes each, six hours apart" daily. The learner is not allowed to compose, nor is he to see the spelling at first. This is a memory system; no culture nor disciplinary element enters except in so far as these are inherent in reading.

Prof. Max Müller's views on teaching modern languages were brought before the American public in 1872, as follows: Fluency in speaking is not to be acquired in the ordinary classes; weight should be laid on grammar and reading; the student's knowledge of Latin should be utilized in teaching him French; there should be two teachers for modern-language classes, one a native of the country whose language is studied, this man to teach the pronunciation and idiom, the other to teach the rest.³

The Robertsonian method was also advocated at this time. This method, which was followed chiefly in France, was similar to the Langenscheidt method in Germany, which is sufficiently known.

In 1876, before the National Education Association, Prof. Joynes laid stress on the disciplinary value of the modern languages, advocated the method of study customary in teaching the classics, deprecated the direct method of teaching German in our lower public schools, and suggested that the position of the modern-language teacher in colleges be raised from the tutorial to the professorial.⁴

Sauveur, in his brochure, *De l'enseignement des Langues Vivantes*,⁵ gives a brief account of his natural method, which is, in effect, a treatise on how to conduct conversation in the foreign language.

¹ North American Review (1871), 343 ff. Whitney's compendious German grammar, New York, 1869, is the most thorough of its time and embodies the results of a comparative grammatical study.

² Scribner's Magazine, 4 : 414-424.

³ Barnard's Am. Jour. of Educ., 23 : 468. Cf. also *ibid.*, 23 : 50; 22 : 249; 24 : 65, 73, 81.

⁴ The position of modern languages in the higher education. In National Education Association, 1876, p. 111 ff.

⁵ Boston and New York, 1878. See also the author's Introduction to the teaching of living languages without grammar or dictionary. Boston, 1875.

This work is very enthusiastic in tone and contains fine stimuli. Other books by Sauveur are of the same purport.¹

From this time on, the volume of literature on the teaching of modern languages shows greater and greater increases. The general tendency, however, is steadily to advocate the direct method at the expense of the grammar-translation method until by 1903 most teachers no longer considered it progressive to come out against the newer system, however profession may have agreed or disagreed with schoolroom practice.

The current of thought in this country on the subject of language teaching is summarized in the accompanying bibliography (see Part II).

The influence of foreign books and practice on the teaching in the United States is to be found indicated in the various guides mentioned in the bibliography. Some notices will also be found scattered through the preceding pages of this book. Lack of space precludes taking up the various books and periodicals here. Suffice it to call attention to the general tendencies and achievements of European modern-language teaching. Europeans attach more value to the practical as against the philological mastery of language. To do this they use a direct method in distinction from our grammar-translation method—a method from which, however, we are gradually departing. They also wisely begin the study of languages earlier than we. They lay no stress on grammatical minutiae, especially at the beginning of a course, because they are agreed that to do so makes of the pupil a word student. They have pretty well discarded translation as a means of learning a foreign language. Composition, excepting "free composition," is taboo. Realien are made much of, and finally—though this seems to many the most important part of the European teaching—a rigid course in phonetics forms the beginning of the instruction in many schools.

An annotated list of American publications upon modern language teaching, arranged in chronological order, will be found in Part II, together with a list of modern-language texts for the teacher.

FRENCH BOOKS PUBLISHED BEFORE 1826.

Carre. A new and expeditious method for learning the French language, exemplified by an intelilinear translation of words, in English, of the first six books of the adventures of Telemachus, to which is prefixed a complete system of the French pronunciation and prosody. Philadelphia, 1822.

¹ Sauveur. *Entretiens sur la grammaire*. 4th ed. New York, Holt & Co., 1879. In this French treatise on French grammar, M. Sauveur undertakes in a series of 28 lectures or conversations to teach the more difficult forms and theory of French grammar. "His idea is that formal grammar should not be taught until the student is prepared to learn it in French. Abundant citations from French authors illustrate each point. Other books by the same author are: *Causeries avec mes élèves*, *Petites causeries*, *Causeries avec les enfants*, *Fables de la Fontaine*.

- Chazotte.** An essay on the best method of teaching foreign languages, as applied with extraordinary success to the French language; with a table displaying the philosophy of the relative personal pronouns, and rendering their use and syntax perfectly easy at first sight. To which is prefixed a discourse on the formation and progress of language. Philadelphia, 1817.
- Hentz, N. M.** A classical French reader selected from the best writings of that language in prose and poetry. Boston, 1825.
- A manual of French phrases and French conversations adapted to Wano-strocht's grammar. Boston, 1822.
- Mary, John.** A French grammar. Boston [?] 1784. 140 p.
- Murray, L.** Lecteur françois or recueil de piéces en prose et en vers tirées des meilleurs écrivains, etc. New York, 1803.
- A new grammar of the French language, originally compiled for the use of the American Military Academy by a French gentleman. New York, 1804. 194 p.
- Perrin, J. B.** A grammar of the French tongue, grounded upon the decisions of the French academy. From the 11th London ed. Carefully revised by a suitable person. New York, 1819.
- Phillips.** A key to French pronunciation and French idiom. Baltimore, 1812.
- Poppleton.** New elements of conversation in English and French, etc. Boston, 1825.
- Pyron du Martre, A.** Syllabaire françois, or a French spelling book, also an introduction to French grammar by way of question and answer. By Mr. Porney (pseudonym). New York, 1815.
- Texier de la Pommeraye, A.** An abridgment of a French and English grammar. Philadelphia, 1822.

OTHER EARLY FRENCH BOOKS OF NOTE.

- Manesca.** A philological recorder, adapted for the oral system of teaching living languages. New York, 1834.
- Mons. Bugard's** practical translator, to students and teachers of the French language. French practical translator, or easy method of learning to translate French into English. Containing (1) a treatise on French pronunciation; (2) the general principles for the use of the parts of speech, and directions for finding them in any dictionary; (3) a collection of interesting exercises, the difficulties of which are calculated gradually to increase with the knowledge of the students; (4) a vocabulary of the different words used in the exercises. (This book was highly esteemed by educators. Second edition, 1837. No place of publication given. Probably it was Boston.)
- Surrene, Gabriel.** (French teacher to the Military and Naval Academy, Edinburgh.) A new French manual, comprising a guide to French pronunciation; a copious vocabulary; selection of phrases; a series of conversations on the curiosities, manners, and amusements of Paris, and during various tours in Europe; models of letters, etc. Designed as a guide to the traveler, and an attractive class book for the student. Rev. and enl. by A. Pestiaux, professor of the French language in the city of New York. New York, 1838. 244 p. 18¢
- Conversational phrases and dialogues for French and English.** Boston, 1837. 121 p. 18¢ (This work is a compilation from the eighteenth Paris edition of Bellinger's conversational phrases. "It is probably one of the most acceptable works of the kind which has ever been prepared. We do not hesitate to commend it to the class of pupils for whom it was intended.")

EARLY GERMAN BOOKS.

- Bachmair, J. J.** A complete German grammar. 3d ed. London. Reprinted by H. Miller, Philadelphia, 1772. 313 p.
- A German grammar containing the theory of the language through all the parts of speech, etc. Philadelphia, 1788. 100 p.
- Follen, Charles.** A practical grammar of the German language. Boston and Cambridge [about 1825] (21st rev. ed. Boston and Cambridge, 1859). 283 p.

PART II.

LIST OF WORKS ON THE TEACHING OF MODERN LANGUAGES.

(Chronologically arranged.)

1875.

Heness, G. *Der leitfaden für den unterricht in der deutschen sprache ohne sprachlehre und wörterbuch* * * * Boston, 1875.

In his introduction, the author says the book embodies his method, but it consists only of conversations. However, he does claim that the proper order of study is: Speaking, reading, writing, grammar, and dictionary. Grammar serves only to correct mistakes, and the dictionary to recover words which can not be recalled without it.

1876.

Raumer, K. von. *Instruction in German. In Barnard's German pedagogy.* 2d ed. Hartford, Conn., 1876. p. 391-459.

This gives a historical sketch of the teaching of the German language in Germany.

1877.

Kiddle, Henry and Schem, Alexander J., eds. *The cyclopædia of education: a dictionary of information* * * * New York, E. Steiger & co., 1877. 275 p. 8^o.

An article on "Modern language" gives a review of modern language teaching in the United States.

1878.

Levy, J. *The study of modern languages. Thorough method vs. the natural method.* Boston, 1878. 26 p. 8^o.

1884.

Brandt, H. C. G. *How far should our teaching and textbooks have a scientific basis?* *In: Modern language association of America. Transactions, 1884-85. vol. 1. p. 57-63.*

Contends that all textbooks used in teaching modern languages should have a scientific basis, which has been given to modern language study by European scholars, whose work in this field he reviews. He advocates taking the study of modern languages in the broad sense of linguistic-philological study and discusses the study of phonetics.

Eggert, C. A. *Modern languages and the college. Education, 4: 527-33, May, 1884.*
Elliott, A. M. *Modern languages as a college discipline. Education, 5: 49-55, September, 1884.*

Favors a thorough linguistic and historical method of study.

Goebel, Julius. *German classics as a means of education. In: Modern language association of America. Transactions, 1884-85. vol. 1. p. 63-64.*

Shows the value of a study of German classical literature and claims for its equal potency for culture as for the Greek.

Hewett, W. T. The aims and methods of collegiate instruction in modern languages. *In Modern language association of America. Transactions, 1884-85. vol. 1. p. 25-36.*

He suggests a few good ideas. German and French should be remanded to the public schools to a time when children learn them easily. Preparatory schools can furnish adequate instruction in them, as the experience in New England shows. He quotes figures to prove his contention. The spoken language should be used as far as possible in elementary courses. He dwells on the use of the right sort of textbooks and inveighs against philological study in classes which need more elementary work.

Wilde, W. C. Notes on the origin of the Italian language. *Education, 4: 244-55, January, 1884.*

1885.

Fay, Charles E. The preparatory schools and the modern language equivalent for the Greek. *Education, 5: 553-67, July, 1885.*

Read before the Massachusetts classical and high school teachers' association, April 10, 1885.

This paper seeks to show that the discipline offered by the modern languages is equal to that of the classics. Discusses the natural method of teaching. Conversation, he thinks, should be introduced. The modern languages are a proper substitute for Greek.

See also *Humane culture and education among the Romans. Education, 5: 46-48, July, 1885.*

Greene, John. Essentials of linguistic training. *Education, 6: 117-23, November, 1885.*

The natural method is good when the object is to teach conversation, while for ordinary uses, he advises a rather philological method.

Marcel. The study of languages brought back to its true principles, or the Art of thinking in a foreign language. New York, 1885. 228 pp.

The writer calls his method the practico-comparative, i. e., a rational reading method. We should begin with reading, which leads to speaking, which in turn leads to writing. Double translation forms part of his method.

Publications of the Modern language association of America, Cambridge, 1884 to date, contain numerous slight discussions of methods in addition to the longer articles which are adduced chronologically in the following pages.

1886.

Carter, Franklin. Study of modern languages in our higher institutions. *In Modern language association of America. Transactions, 1886. vol. 2. p. 3-21.*

Comfort, George F. Modern languages in education. Syracuse, N. Y., C. W. Barden, 1886. 40 p. 16¢

A reprint of "Should the study of the modern precede that of the ancient languages?" *Scribner's monthly, 4: 414-, August, 1872.*

Paul, H. *Prinzipien der sprachgeschichte.* Halle, 1886.

Paul gives it as his view that we learn living languages more by imitation than by rule. This view is concurred in by Storm in his *Englische philologie.* Leipzig, 1892.

Smith, Minna C. The ancient-modern language controversy. M. Frary and his critic. *Education, 6: 405-409, March, 1886.*

A review of a review of *La Question du Latin* by M. Frary, a Frenchman, in which he would discard the classics and substitute therefore the modern languages.

1887.

Kroeh, Charles Frederick. Methods of teaching modern languages. *In Modern language association of America. Transactions and proceedings, 1887. vol. 3. p. 169-85.*

Brief expositions are given of the scholastic (grammar-translation) method; the practical method (Toussaint-Langenscheid method); Gallard's modern French method; Marcel's rational method; the mastery system (the meisterschaft system); and the natural method. The last, on which Professor Kroeh has made improvements, is treated at some length.

Noble, Edmund. Modern language teaching in Europe. *Education*, 8:152-56, November, 1887.

Says the English are poor linguists because of egotism in regard to their own language. They carry polyglot pages with them on the Continent, and return after decades of foreign residence without having learned the foreign language. Germans are good linguists, and modern language teaching is good in Germany. Russians are born linguists. French, German, and English are spoken widely in Russia. The French are the poorest linguists, but they were fortunate in having their tongue adopted as the language of diplomacy. Their modern language teaching is miserable. Compare also Carter's Study of modern languages in our higher institutions. *Modern language association of America. Transactions*, 1886, vol. 2, p. 3-21. Cf also New York regents report, 1886, p. 713 ff.

Van Daell, Alphonse N. The educational value of the study of French in high schools. *Academy*, 2: 164-70, May, 1887.

Sets forth points in favor of French and discusses teachers and texts.

White, Horatio S. The teaching of a foreign literature in connection with the seminary system. *In Modern language association of America. Transactions*, 1887, vol. 3, p. 48-57.

Reviews the teaching of foreign languages and literatures in connection with the seminary system, giving a good idea of the methods, facilities, and extent of this study at that time.

1888.

De Pont, P. R. A working library for a teacher of the French language. *Academy*, 3:311-14, June, 1888.

Gives list of books.

Gastineau, Edmond. The conversation method for speaking, reading, and writing French. New York and Chicago, Ivison, Blakeman & co. [1888] xxii, 530 p. 8°

Lyman, A. B. French in English, or French phrases phonetically formed with real English words. Baltimore, J. Smith, 1888. 42 p.

Tetlow, John. Is a modification of the present modern language requisitions for admission to college desirable and practicable? *Academy*, 3:453-69, November, 1888.

Discusses the requirements of various colleges and asks whether the requirements should not be modified.

Thomas, Calvin. A list of texts for teachers of German. *Academy*, 3:244-45, May, 1888.

Van Daell, Alphonse N. Who shall teach French or German? *Academy*, 3:537-45, December, 1888.

Reviews the requisites in teachers of modern languages and makes a plea for more discretion in selecting teachers.

1889.

Easton, Morton W. Notes on preparatory French. *Academy*, 4:10-16, February, 1889.

Reviews several weak points in preparatory French instruction and adduces the difficult points of grammar which should be cleared up in preparatory work.

Magill, E. H. The best methods of teaching modern languages. *In U. S. Bureau of education. Report of the Commissioner for the year 1889-90.* vol. 2, p. 1148-49.

Magill advocates a reading method with sufficient grammar to insure accuracy. Compare Joynes' reading in modern language study. *In Modern language association of America. Publications.* vol. 5.

1890.

Coy, E. G. French and German as substitutes for Greek. *Academy*, 5:399-407, November, 1890.

The argument is against the substitution. Cf. also *ibid*, p. 448.

1891.

Chamberlain, A. F. Modern languages and classics in America and Europe since 1680. Toronto, 1891. 60 p. 8?

Lougee, Susan C. The study of modern language. *Education*, 12:221-28, December, 1891.

This is a brief for the natural method.

Moore, R. W. Methods of teaching modern languages. *School review*, 1:569-70, November, 1893.

A favorable review of "Methods of teaching modern languages. Fourteen papers on the value and on methods of modern language instruction, by some of the foremost teachers of the country." Boston, D. C. Heath & Co., 1893. 12?

Stickney, Cora. On the study of French and German. *Education*, 11:364-69, February, 1891.

The writer discusses the natural as against the grammar-translation method, and concludes that the natural method is best for children; the grammar method best for adults.

1892.

Grandgent, Charles H. The teaching of French and German in our public high schools. *School and college*, 1:148-52, March, 1892.

Compare résumé of same article in *Academy*, 6:562 ff. Conversation and writing are side issues. Reading and the study of literature form the principal end of the instruction.

Hausknecht, Emil. American system of education. In U. S. Bureau of education. Report of the Commissioner for the year 1892-93. vol. 1. p. 521-33.

The writer, a German, deprecates our methods of teaching modern languages as being very crude and ineffective.

Heller, Otto. Modern languages as a "mental discipline." *Education*, 13:102-9, October, 1892.

Deals with Babbitt's paper on Common sense in teaching modern languages. (See under 1893.)

Lowell, James Russell. Latest literary essays and addresses. Boston, 1892.

The author speaks highly of the uses of the modern languages in this address delivered before the Modern language association of America, in 1889, and published in the Publications for 1890. He favors the translation method by which he was taught, but warns against making too linguistic the study which he would make literary.

A new method of teaching modern languages. *Educational review*, 4:80-84, June, 1892.

Reprinted from an article by "A. A. M." in the *Journal of education* (London). Contains a list of books written on and in accordance with the phonetic system.

This paper on the rise of the reform method in Germany begins to acquaint Americans with the nature of this movement and the methods employed by the reformers. See also Vietor, W. A new method of language teaching. *Educational review*, 6:351-59, 1893. Cf. also Babbitt, E. H. The pedagogical section of the Modern language association. *Educational review*, 7:188-91.

The German reform movement, which had been most active since the beginning of the eighties, becomes now the pacemaker for American modern language teaching.

1893.

Babbitt, E. H. The preparation of modern language teachers for American institutions. In Modern language association of America. Publications, 1893. vol. 8. p. lii-lxi.

Reviews the requisites in a teacher of modern languages. He should know his subject, and he should know English thoroughly. The effort to create the atmosphere of the foreign country in the classroom is deprecated, but foreign travel and residence are important for the teacher.

Bowen, B. L. French in Ohio high schools and colleges. Columbus, Ohio, 1893.

A plea for more time and attention to French in Ohio is made by Prof. Bowen in this statistical study containing also hints on method.

Sprachmeisterel, as the natural method is dubbed, continues to draw the ire of the schoolmen, as is shown in the following: Modern language teaching and *sprachmeisterel*. *Dial*, 16:129-30.

Boyesen, H. H. and others. Will any kind or amount of instruction in modern languages make them satisfactory substitutes for Greek or Latin as constituents of a liberal education? In Association of colleges and preparatory schools in the Middle States and Maryland: Proceedings of the first annual conference, 1893. p. 38-64.

Something is still heard of the old discussion upon the relative merits of the ancient languages as compared with the modern. Boyesen, Brandt, Sachs, and MacKenzie seek to answer the question.

Prof. Boyesen's paper is a brilliant brief for the modern languages. The conclusion of the four papers is that as a mental discipline Latin and Greek are superior, but that few ever acquire any Latin or Greek. Modern languages, on the other hand, yield greater educational results and are therefore to be preferred in our schools.

Findlay, John J. Reform in modern language instruction. Educational review, 5: 334-44, April, 1893.

For the first time, the Gouin series system comes in for notice, which is, however, derogatory.

Hochdoerffer, Richard. The study and teaching of modern languages. Springfield, Ohio, 1893.

This pamphlet is out of print. The writer is well qualified for his task, having been associated with the Sauveur school at Burlington, Vt.

McKibben. Standards of French pronunciation. In Modern language association of Ohio. Proceedings, 1893.

Some changes that are taking place in French pronunciation are noted.

Methods of teaching modern languages: Papers on the value and on methods of modern language instruction * * * Boston, D. C. Heath & co., 1893. vi, 185 p. 16° (Heath's pedagogical library)

References: p. 107-108.

A remarkable collection of fourteen papers reprinted from other publications, which, although now partially superseded, were important for this instruction at the time. They are as follows:

A. M. Elliott: Modern languages as a college discipline. (Favors a thorough linguistic and historical method of study.)

Calvin, Thomas: Observations upon method in the teaching of modern languages. (Jousts against the natural method and in favor of the traditional grammar-translation course.)

E. S. Joynes: Reading in modern language study. (The point is made that reading should be done extensively and for pleasure.)

W. T. Hewett: The natural method (criticised). (He adduces arguments customarily urged against the natural method, viz: What is natural for pupils of tender age is not so for adults, etc.)

F. C. de Sumichrast: Notes on the teaching of French. (Gives suggestions on an eclectic method.)

A. Lodeman: Practical and psychological tests of modern languages study. (Offers an excellent study of the psychological aspects of modern language study, together with outlines for a direct method.)

F. M. Warren: Collegiate instruction in the Romance languages. (Contributes a slight résumé of the history of modern language instruction in colleges, together with a brief for the modern tongues.)

E. H. Babbitt: How to use modern languages as a means of mental discipline. (Compares the disciplinary value of ancient and of modern languages; emphasizes the disciplinary side of modern language study. The grammar-translation method is advocated.)

C. H. Grandgent: The teaching of French and German in our public high schools. (Recommends the grammar-translation method, although conversation is to be encouraged and although the final aim of the course is "to get along without translation.")

O. B. Super: Aim and scope of the study of modern languages and methods of teaching them. (Indorses the grammar-translation method.)

C. F. Kroeh: The natural method (explained). Translation may be used after *sprachgefühl* has been acquired by the pupils. Grammar is taught in small installments as soon as the students can understand it in the foreign language.)

W. S. Macgowan: The "reader" the center of modern language teaching. (Reading must be the center of the instruction, and it must be the basis for the study of grammar.)

H. C. O. von Jagemann: On the use of the foreign language in the classroom. (It is recommended to use only the foreign language in the classroom. The foreign language should also be the means of teaching the grammar. A method by which this can be done is outlined. This is an excellent paper, the result of the writer's own practice and experience.)

E. H. Babbitt: Common sense in teaching modern languages. (Emphasis is placed on making modern languages a disciplinary study; Sprachmeistererei is deprecated. Americans are "visualizers," i. e., they learn easiest by seeing the printed page, and hence the grammar-reading method is best for them. The writer sets down what he considers requisites in modern language teachers. He wishes to see the personnel of the modern language teachers raised.)

Appended to this volume are several pages from the report of the Committee of ten.

National education association of the United States. National council of education. Report of the Committee of ten on secondary school studies . . . Washington, Government printing office, 1893. ii, 249 p. 82 (U. S. Bureau of education [Publications] whole no. 205)

Anticipates the report of the Committee of twelve (1898).

Wilson. Instruction in modern languages preparatory to college. *In* Modern language association of Ohio. Proceedings, 1893. p. 13-18.

Discusses the amount and kind of work done in high schools, and deplors the lack of contact between high school and college teachers. The question of method is touched upon.

1894.

Cutting, Starr, W. Should the elementary study of grammar be chiefly inductive? *In* Modern language association of America. Publications, 1894. vol. 9. p. xix-xxiv.

Prof. Cutting contends that it should be in the early stages of the study and gives valuable suggestions as to the method. He has exerted a great influence along this line by his actual practice in the classroom.

Magill, Edward H. The new method in modern language study. *In* Modern language association of America. Publications, 1895. vol. 10. p. xxiii-f.

A paper read at the 12th annual meeting of the Association. December 27-29, 1894.

The title of this paper is a misnomer in that it advocates the regular grammar-translation method, although conversation is supposed to be introduced late in the course.

Payne, William M. Modern language in secondary schools. *School review*, 2: 74-82, February, 1894.

Advises against trying to teach conversational German and quotes various professors on this point. Reading must be the prominent aim, of course. He desires *Lehrfreiheit* for teachers in secondary schools.

— Modern language teaching and *sprachmeisteri*. *Dial*, 16: 129-30, March 1, 1894.

Rambeau, A. On the value of phonetics in teaching modern languages. *Die neueren Sprachen*, 2: 1-20.

Discusses value of phonetics and gives valuable scheme of procedure for teaching elementary phonetics.

Tetlow, John. Foreign language study in grammar schools. *Educational review*, 7: 111-21, February, 1894.

Contends it should be started midway in the grammar school course, and prefers to start with French. Time for this study may be gained by omitting parts of English grammar and geography. One hour a week should be taught by a native Frenchman.

Thomas, Calvin. The teachers's outfit in German. *School review*, 2: 401-12, September, 1894.

Gives bibliography.

1895.

Schilling, Hugo K. Educational value of the modern languages. *Educational review*, 9: 385-90, April, 1895.

Counts up various uses of the study; compares the value of modern languages with that of Latin and Greek, and contends that the study of modern languages should precede that of Latin and Greek because better adapted to abilities of young pupils.

Spencer, Frederick. On the reform of methods in teaching the modern languages, together with an experiment in the teaching of German. *In* Modern language association of Ohio. Proceedings, 1895.

1896.

Brandt, Francis B. Some psychological aspects of the teaching of modern languages. *In Association of colleges and preparatory schools of the Middle States and Maryland. Proceedings of the 9th annual convention, Easton, Pa., November 29-30, 1895. Philadelphia, 1896. p. 54-60.*

Discussion follows.

The forms of thinking are three: 1. Cognition or conception, the characteristic of which is *unity*. 2. Judgment, the characteristic of which is *emphasis*. 3. Reasoning, the characteristic of which is *coherence*. In a concept we have a logical subject or a logical predicate; in a judgment, we have a categorical proposition; in reasoning, we have connected discourse. These are the three forms of thought molds. The pedagogical application is that words must be studied in their coherent relations; that is, in sentences.

Bright, J. W. Die neueren sprachen in den Vereinigten Staaten. Die neueren sprachen, 4: 567-68 (1896).

Tells of status of preparation on the part of teachers of French in the United States, and says they do not become proficient in speaking but are trained in the literature and the history of the French language. However, they perfect themselves to some extent in conversational courses or by visits to France.

Bruce, Charles A. La Fontaine in the classroom. *In Modern language association of Ohio. Proceedings, 1896. p. 69-81.*

Sets forth virtues of La Fontaine as a classroom text.

Cranz, Kate. Prose selections for German classes. *In Modern language association of Ohio. Proceedings, 1896. p. 64-68.*

Advocates reading easy prose instead of predominantly classics.

Deering, William. German classics in high schools. *In Modern language association of Ohio. Proceedings, 1896. p. 55-63.*

Deplores early use of classics in high school. Easy literature should be read first. If classics are taught, they should not be merely translated, but enjoyed and appreciated in their entire cultural value.

Eggers, E. A. Pictorial aids in the teaching of German literature. *In Modern language association of Ohio. Proceedings, 1896. p. 82-93.*

List of books with descriptions.

Learned, M. D. Differentiation and environment in modern language instruction. *In Association of colleges and preparatory schools in the Middle States and Maryland. Proceedings of the 9th annual convention, Easton, Pa., November 24-30, 1895. Philadelphia, 1896. p. 45-54.*

The need of differentiation of the instruction in various classes and in various kinds of schools according to the aim, e. g., in the school of language, the fitting school, and the college or university is stressed. He also pleads for the use of *Realien* and a proper care of the esthetic aspects of modern language instruction.

Nightingale, A. F. Modern language requirements. *School review, 4: 424-33, June, 1896.*

Results of a questionnaire on college entrance requirements in languages. Concludes that Greek must yield to modern language, or modern language to science, or Greek to science, in our secondary school curricula.

Spiers, I. H. B. The oral element in modern language instruction. *In Association of colleges and preparatory schools in the Middle States and Maryland. Proceedings of the 9th annual convention, Easton, Pa., November 24-30, 1895. Philadelphia, 1896. p. 37-45.*

He gives excellent grounds for the oral work in that it yields a knowledge of grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary, and a *readiness* in all of these. However, McLouth affirms in the discussion that follows that the average college student takes German and French as a means, and that therefore he should be taught to read, i. e., to translate, and offers suggestions on how to accomplish this most expeditiously.

1897.

Goebel, Julius, Jordan, David Starr and Putzer, ———. German in the public schools. *In California teachers' association*, 1897.

Street, J. R. A study in language teaching. *Pedagogical seminary*, 4:269-93. April, 1897.

This is a scientific study, giving a résumé of various methods of teaching modern languages as an introduction, but the most valuable part of his work is on the side of the psychological aspects of the subject.

1898.

Charvet, Louise. The way to learn a language. *Educational review*, 15: 74-79, January, 1898.

This is a favorable exposition and discussion of the Gouin method.

Magill, Edward H. A new departure in the study of modern languages. *School review*, 6: 257-60, April, 1898.

The writer gives notice of the work of international correspondence between school children as carried on by a committee of the Modern language association of America, of which he is the chairman. The same subject received attention elsewhere.

Modern language association of America. Report of the Committee of twelve. *In U. S. Bureau of education; Report of the Commissioner for the year 1897-8*, vol. 2. p. 1391-1433.

Submitted at a meeting of the Association held at Charlottesville, Va., December, 1898. Appointment of committee grew out of a request of the National education association of the United States. It was desired that the association draw up model preparatory courses in French and German, and make recommendations concerning the practical management of these courses. See also *National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1899*. p. 707-55. In the latter: recommended courses of study in German, p. 732-43; same for French, p. 743-47; and specimen examination papers in French for admission to college, p. 747-50; same for German, p. 751-54.

This is the most important paper of 1898. For a synopsis see Chapter VII. For an extended and quite favorable review and discussion of the report consult *Pädagogische monatshefte* (Milwaukee, Wis.), 1: 10-13, 26-29, 20-22, March, April, and May, 1900; also *Educational review*, 19: 143-52, February, 1900.

Paschall. German instruction in high schools. *In Modern language association of Ohio. Proceedings, 1898*. p. 33-45.

Speaking can not be successfully taught; therefore we must concentrate on reading and grammar.

Walker. A natural method for learning languages. *In Modern language association of Ohio. Proceedings, 1898*. p. 22-30.

Deplore shortsightedness of natural-method men, but proceeds to expound a natural method of his own.

1899.

Daprich, Emil. Die methoden des modernen sprachunterrichts. *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 1: 33-36, December, 1899.

Excellent outline of courses in German in elementary and secondary schools, together with discussion of aims.

De Brisay, Charles T. The De Brisay analytical French method. A scientific system of acquiring a thorough conversational and literary knowledge of the French language. Embracing a vocabulary of seven thousand words. Toronto, Canada, and Rochester, N. Y., Académie de Brisay, 1899-1906.

Duby, Marie C. French is not yet a dead language. *In Modern language association of Ohio. Proceedings, 1899*. p. 107-13.

Agitates for a live treatment of French in classroom and advises a course in French syllabication at the beginning of the course of study.

¹ In the year 1906 the name of this journal was changed to *Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik*. It is published by the National German-American teachers' seminary, Milwaukee.

Dürst, Marie. Wilhelm Tell. *In* Modern language association of Ohio. Proceedings, 1899. p. 104-29.

This is a discussion of William Tell as a high-school text.

Joyes, Edward S. Dictation and composition in modern language teaching. *In* Modern language association of America. Publications, 1900. vol. 15. p. xxv-xxx.

A highly valuable paper at the time.

Read at the 17th annual meeting of the association, New York, December 27-29, 1899.

Meslow. The use of phonetics. *In* Modern language association of Ohio. Proceedings, 1899. p. 101-6.

This calls attention to the value of phonetics for modern language teaching, supplies examples, and gives a slight bibliography.

Werthner. The modern language teacher's task in the high school. *In* Modern language association of Ohio. Proceedings, 1899. p. 64-71.

The paper deals with various classes of modern language students and their different needs, and tells how they are differentiated in the Steele High School, Dayton, Ohio. In methods the writer wishes to progress and to make use of some illustrative material.

1900.

Cutting, Starr W. Einige prinzipien des sprachunterrichts. *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 1: 14-21, March, 1900.

The author sets forth that he embodies much of the reform teaching in his own class work. His main principles follow: 1. Visualizing and hearing a foreign language are equally valuable. 2. The spirit of the language resides in the sentence, not in isolated words. 3. The study of colloquial language should precede that of the classics. 4. A live study of the language increases the interest of the pupil. 5. There is a distinction between *active* and *passive* vocabulary acquired by the learner. The passive vocabulary includes words that can be recognized, the active those that can be used in writing or conversing.

The writer shows methods of acquiring each sort of vocabulary and writes concerning the value of each. Translation into the mother tongue is to be avoided and translation into the foreign language is to be practiced largely.

Hepp, Jean. Ueber natürliche methoden beim lehren neuer sprachen. *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 1: 2-5, 7-12, January and February, 1900.

Discusses the natural and Berlitz methods and casts doubts on their efficiency.

Das höhere unterrichtswesen in den Vereinigten Staaten. *Deutsche rundschau*, 1900.

This work gives a general survey of higher instruction in the United States.

Jenkins, R. S. The position of German teaching in the high schools of Ontario. *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 1: 26-28, May, 1900.

Gives short account of status, with statistics.

Lawton, William C. A substitute for Greek. *Atlantic monthly*, 85:807-10, June, 1900.

The writer advocates German as a substitute for Greek in elementary and high schools.

Schinz, Albert. Objections to the use of some modern language text-books. *Educational review*, 19:75-80, January, 1900.

Objects to the use of slang and colloquialisms in certain books.

Spanhoofd, Arnold Werner. Die erste stufe des deutschen unterrichts in der hochschule. *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 1: 9-18, October, 1900.

The writer discusses the intensive study of a limited amount of reading material with a view to the acquisition of an *active* vocabulary. He deprecates the reading method, especially sight reading.

Stern, Leo. Griechisch oder deutsch? *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 1: 29-30, June, 1900.

This gives a review of Lawton's article quoted above.

Sweet, Henry. The practical study of languages. . . . New York, Holt & co., 1900.
xiv, 280 p. 12?

Bibliography: p. 279-80.

This significant book favors beginning with the spoken languages.

Thiergen, Oscar. Reform in the German higher schools and the reform movement in modern language teaching. School review, 8 : 230-33, April, 1900.

This is an exposition of the reform teaching in Germany, which continues to engross the attention of writers, although, unfortunately, very few teachers put this method into practice.

Viereck, L. German instruction in American schools. In U.S. Bureau of education. Report of the Commissioner for the year 1900-1. vol. 1. p. 531-708.

The year 1900 brought forth this first historical American work on German instruction in the United States. It originally appeared in Braunschweig, 1900, under the title, *Zwei Jahrhunderte deutschen unterrichts in den Vereinigten Staaten*. This English translation is an abridgment.

1901.

Chapin, Charles W. E. Development of the study of Greek and French in American colleges. Chautauquan, 32 : 581-84, March, 1901:

"After a study of the development of courses in Greek and French in American colleges and universities, and a survey of the place which each occupies in them to-day, the conclusion must be reached that neither has expanded at the expense of the other."

Chapman, Frederick W. The question of languages as affected by our new political relations. Education, 21 : 357-59, February, 1901.

Relates to Spanish and advocates simplified spelling in English.

Frohlicher, Hans. Über ziele und lehrmittel des deutschen unterrichts an sekundarschulen und gymnasiën. Pädagogische monatshefte, 2 : 138-44, March, 1901.

Another tenet of the German reform party finds more adherents, viz., that one aim of the teaching is the introduction to the culture of the foreign country.

German conference. In National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1901. p. 590-91.

The German conference of the National education association concurred in the views expressed in the preceding paper. Translation, it was said, should be used as a means of testing the pupils' knowledge of a text, not as a means of his obtaining such knowledge. Retroversions were also advocated.

Kuttner, Bernhard. Wertachätzung und lehrmethoden der deutschen sprache. Pädagogische monatshefte, 2 : 185-92, April, 1901.

The grammar-translation method falls more and more into disrepute. Prof. Calvin Thomas is severely censured for his favorable attitude towards this method which his opponents, basing their opinion on a great body of reform literature and practice, describe as ein überwundener standpunkt. More attention is paid to object lessons in elementary instruction while in accordance with the reform program in Germany the inductive study of grammar is advocated.

Learned, M. D. Deutsch gegen Englisch, oder Deutsch neben Englisch? Pädagogische monatshefte, 2 : 290-93, September, 1901.

The question of the study of German in the public elementary schools combines to call forth supporters for German as a means of culture and discipline.

1902.

Cooley, Edwin G. Teaching German in Chicago schools. Educational review, 24 : 333-34, November, 1902.

Tells of changes in organization of German teaching.

Jagemann, H. C. G. von. Das rüstzeug eines lehrers des deutschen. Pädagogische monatshefte, 3 : 261-88, September, 1902.

The question of the Reellen by which to introduce the learner to the foreign civilization continues to grow in importance. Following Stephan Waetzhold's lead in Germany, American pedagogues are demanding more attention to the teaching of the foreign civilization and institutions.

German instruction in our elementary public schools is best given by beginning with object lessons. Good outlines for such a course are given. After three to five months of such instruction, narration is introduced.

Kern, Paul O. Should teachers of German aim at some acquaintance with the historical development of the German language and literature?—The linguistic aspect of the question. *School review*, 10 : 60-68, January, 1902.

For the literary side of the question see article by Prof. C. von Klenze, in same review, p. 68-69.

Learned, M. D. When should German instruction begin in the public schools? *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 3:86-89, February, 1902.

The question when German instruction should begin in our public schools is discussed from the viewpoint of American and European experience and practice. Discussion of the attitude in Germany on this point is given as follows: In the elementary schools, the foreign language should always be taught as a living tongue. When German instruction should begin in the public-school course depends on local conditions, but it should be begun early enough before the high school to give the pupil a simple speaking and writing knowledge of German.

McLouth, Lawrence A. The teaching of literature in the secondary schools. *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 3 : 119-24, 158-65, March and April, 1902.

Stress is laid on literary appreciation as against grammatical or philological study of literature.

Prokosch, Ed. Der erste deutsche sprachunterricht an angloamerikanischen schulen. *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 3 : 307-11, October, 1902.

Weick, W. H. Der erste sprachunterricht auf anschaulicher grundlage. *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 3 : 311-15, 333-38, October and November, 1902.

This is a review of various methods.

1903.

Altschul, Arthur. Ueber die natürliche methode im deutschen unterricht. *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 4 : 322-32, November, 1903.

By natürliche methode the writer means the direct method. It includes speaking, reading, and memorizing. He gives outlines, aims, and methods.

Bahlsen, Leopold. Die deutsche lektüre an den amerikanischen schulen. *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 4 : 165-76, May, 1903.

This is a chapter of Bahlsen's book, *The teaching of modern foreign languages*. Boston, Glun & co., 1905.

Buehner, Valentin. The educational value of modern languages. *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 4 : 197-201, June, 1903.

Remarks on the historic development of this study in the United States, and on its value.

Cear, John F. The study of modern languages and literatures. *Educational review*, 25 : 39-48, January, 1903.

Dwells on the differences between the German and the American viewpoint. The student must be introduced to the spirit of the language. He wants American students to view German literature as the expression of the national consciousness.

Florer, Warren W. Remarks on the direct method of teaching German. *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 4 : 303-9, September-October, 1903.

Thoughts on modern language teaching culled from noted authors. Outlines of a proposed course. Gives bibliographical information.

[Griebsch, M.] German in public schools. *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 4 : 108-11, March, 1903.

German should be taught in the elementary schools by special teachers.

Gröben, G. G. von der. Entwicklung und stand des deutschen unterrichts in den schulen von Erie, Pa. *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 4 : 215-21, June, 1903.

Grummann, Paul H. Review of Viereck's German instruction in American schools. *Educational review*, 26 : 194-98, September, 1903.

This is a rather unfavorable review, imputing bias and incompleteness.

Mackay, D. and Curtis, F. J. First French book according to the "New method" of teaching modern languages. London and New York, Whittaker & co., 1903. xvi, 321 p. 8p

This work is reviewed by E. Manley in *School review*, 12:335-36, June, 1904.

- Silberberg, Betty. Correlation of German with other studies. *Pädagogische Monatshefte*, 4: 82-87, 113-18, February and March, 1903.
Correlation of the modern languages with other studies is demanded in an excellent discussion of the relations between English and German languages, literatures, and institutions.
- Wolf, Ernest. Die realien im deutschen sprachunterricht. *Pädagogische Monatshefte*, 4: 240-47, September-October, 1903.
Advocates the use of realien, and gives outlines.

1904.

- Aldrich, Fred D. The function of grammar in the teaching of modern language. In National education association of the United States. *Journal of proceedings and addresses*, 1904. p. 525-28.
Grammar is a means to an end; it should be restricted to use as an aid in understanding and should be taught inductively for young and deductively for older students.
- Atschul, A. Die natürliche methode in der grammatik. *Pädagogische Monatshefte*, 5: 255-62, September-October, 1904.
This is an exposition principally of Gouin's chapter on teaching grammar. Compare Gouin's *The art of teaching and studying languages*.
- Bagster-Collins, Elijah W. The teaching of German in secondary schools. New York, The Macmillan co., 1904. viii, 232 p. 12.
Bibliography: p. 224-32.
This book, the most influential of the year, gives a good exposition of the reform method used in Germany and advises it, with modifications, for the United States. Unfortunately, the work has a decided bias in that it was written with one eye on Thomas's "Practical German grammar." On the whole, it is the best book we have for young teachers, containing as it does a good bibliography, excellent outlines of method, and the results of broad experience. We have here, then, the second important work which advocates essentially the direct method for the United States. The contents can only be indicated here. After a historical introduction follow chapters on: The value of German; Aim of a course; Pronunciation; Work in speaking; Grammar; Written exercises; Composition; Reading; Translation; Vocabulary; and Bibliography.
- Batt, Max. Conversation as a vehicle of instruction in modern languages. In National education association of the United States. *Journal of proceedings and addresses*, 1904. p. 532-33.
Advocates conversation, but says it should be used with caution.
- Brereton, Cloudeley. The teaching of modern languages in England. *School review*, 12: 441-61, June, 1904.
Tells of the compromise method adopted in England, i. e., the reform method, with modifications. A discussion of method is included.
- C. C. Land und leute. Ein mahnwort. *Pädagogische Monatshefte*, 5: 310-17, December, 1904.
With the acceptance of the direct method the *realien* were bound to receive increasing attention. One of the foremost articles on these is that by C. C., in that it calls forth considerable discussion (see the following numbers of the *Monatshefte*) and also gave practical helps and bibliography. One may say that by this time the direct method has won the day, in theory at least. All of the papers which have appeared in 1904, save two, stand for the reform method or for reform ideas.
- Chambers, Samuel A. French instruction in California—its aims and methods. *School review*, 12: 473-81, June, 1904.
Brief exposition of reform movement in Europe, which the writer advocates for the United States in part.
- Cohn, Adolphe. The adjustment between secondary school and college work in modern languages. *School review*, 12: 468-72, June, 1904.
Discusses foreign language in German and in American schools. Instruction in modern languages should be relegated to lower schools for the foundations; to higher for a study of the literature, which is to be conducted in the foreign language.

- Cutting, Starr W. Some defects in the teaching of modern languages in college and university. *School review*, 12 : 306-18, April, 1904.
 Also published in *Pädagogische Monatshefte*, 5 : 38-43, January, 1904.
 The defects are: Neglect of the spoken language; literary study and reading of classics are often begun too early; too much stress is laid on the facts of language history, etc. A valuable paper.
- Darrin, Katherine. German language in the classroom. *School review*, 12 : 559-62, September, 1904.
 The tendency seems more in favor of a direct method and against translation. German is demanded as the language of the classroom.
- Duby, Marie-Caroline. The teaching of French. *School review*, 12 : 518-23, June, 1904.
 Inveighs against annotated editions and the study of phonetics.
- Eliot, Charles W. What has been gained in uniformity of college admission requirements in the past twenty years? *School-review*, 12 : 757-69, December, 1904.
- Fontaine, C. The teaching of French in secondary schools. *School review*, 12 : 511-17, June, 1904.
- Goettach, Charles. International correspondence of pupils: Its present status in Germany. *School review*, 12 : 78-83, January, 1904.
- Gohdes, W. H. Modern language instruction in secondary schools. *In Schoolmasters' association of New York and vicinity. 12th annual report, 1904.* p. 43-53.
 Good points of direct method are stated. An important discussion follows on p. 52-65.
- Grandgent, C. H. French as a substitute for Latin. *School review*, 12 : 462-67, June, 1904.
 Contends that it is not a proper substitute.
- Gregor, Leigh R. Translation. *School review*, 12 : 482-90, June, 1904.
 A plea for good English in translation and for special vocabularies.
- Gronow, Hans. International correspondence of pupils. *School review*, 12 : 84-88, January, 1904.
- Haertel, Martin H. International correspondence of pupils: Its present status in English speaking countries. *School review*, 12 : 89-96, January, 1904.
 This notes the status of the movement at the time.
- Heine, Heinrich. Das chorsprechen und -lesen in der schule. *Pädagogische Monatsheft*, 5 : 239-43, September-October, 1904.
 Advises its use with moderation and gives methods.
- Ingres, Maxime. The teaching of modern languages under present conditions. *School review*, 12 : 491-501, June, 1904.
 Spoken language is necessary in the classroom. The writer expresses certain ideas formerly advocated by Gouin.
- Jenkins, Thomas A. A brief for French in the high school. *School review*, 13 : 77-83, January, 1905.
 Read November 12, 1904, at the annual conference of teachers of Romance languages in colleges and schools in relations with the University of Chicago.
 Makes out a justification for French in the high school.
- Jespersen, Jens O. H. How to teach a foreign language. . . . London and New York, The Macmillan co., 1904. 194 p. 12?
 Select list of books: p. 193-94.
 This is another important book of the year, giving an exposition of the direct method as used in Scandinavia and pleading for its extension.
- Johnson, W. E. Rapid reading. *In National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1904.* p. 528-31.
 Reviews the customary arguments for and against this practice.

Moseley educational commission to the United States of America, October-December, 1903. Reports. London, Published for the proprietor by the Co-operative printing society (ltd.), 1904. xxiv, 400 p. 8°

Although modern language as a disciplinary and cultural study comes to demand and to receive more recognition in college and high school as a substitute for the classics, nevertheless the Moseley commission consider our teaching of modern languages crude.

Ransmeier, J. C. The educational significance of modern language study in the secondary school. South Atlantic quarterly, July-October, 1904.
Offers a good review of the thought on the subject and hints on a conservative method.

Rogers, Howard J., ed. Congress of arts and sciences. Universal exposition, St. Louis, 1904. vol. 3. Boston and New York, Houghton Mifflin co., 1907.
Contains department of history of languages, with a valuable bibliography.

Smith, George A. The aim of modern language study in our secondary schools. In National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1904. p. 522-24.
Contains ideas on the grammar-translation method, formerly advocated by others.

Snow, William B. The teaching of French in secondary schools. School review, 12: 502-10, June, 1904.
Plea for more discussion of the subject, for the direct method, and for greater concentration in courses.

Spanhoofd, Arnold Werner. Aim and character of the work of first-year German. Education, 24: 581-95, June, 1904.
A combination of inductive and deductive methods of teaching grammar is recommended for the first year of the high school. The inductive method is best for young pupils, the deductive for adults.

Trettien, A. W. Psychology of the language interest of children. Pedagogical seminary, 11: 113-77, June, 1904.
Gives theories of the origin of language, and periods of physical and psychical growth in children. The preadolescent period is the golden time of verbal memory. Adolescence is the period of greatest avidity in language learning. Prof. Trettien's paper establishes a scientific basis for elementary language teaching.

Vreeland, Williamson U. The modern languages in secondary schools and colleges. In Association of colleges and preparatory schools in the Middle States and Maryland. Proceedings, 1904. p. 30-48.
Language study should be cultural. The power of concentration must be got somehow. Thoroughness, not scope, should be the aim in elementary classes. More systematic course of training in modern language is necessary. Discussions follow.

Worden, J. P. Illustrated aids to the teaching of modern language, with special reference to the teaching of German. In National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1904. p. 533-36.

1905.

The literature of the year is strong in the matter of the Realien. There is evident a better knowledge of the practice and theory of teaching modern languages in Europe. A body of standards, mostly established in Europe, is coming to be recognized. The psychological phase of the study, too, as put forth principally in German publications is coming to its own. Random subjective discussion of these problems is no longer wanted. Whoever would from now on make an advance in this work must be in possession of a thorough knowledge of a vast body of valuable literature on the subject.

Arnold, Frank R. "Couleur locale" in the French classroom. School review, 13: 540-43, September, 1905.
Pleads for the use of Realien; for texts without annotation; for unilingual dictionaries, etc.

[Ashleman, Lorley Ada] French [in the University of Chicago elementary school] Elementary school teacher, 5: 599-600, June, 1905.
This is an exposition of aims and methods. Dramatics used extensively.

[Ahléman, Lorley Ada] The teaching of a language in the elementary school. *Elementary school teacher*, 5: 285-91, January, 1905.

She stands squarely for the direct method, advocates games, and gives examples.

Bahlsen, I. The teaching of modern languages. Translated from the German by M. B. Evans. Boston, Ginn & co., 1905. 97 p. 8¢

This volume contains the lectures delivered in 1903 by Prof. Bahlsen at Teachers College on The teaching of modern languages. It was published two years later in the United States by Ginn & co. This important contribution to the subject in America outlines the history of the methods of modern language teaching in Europe. The chapter on pronunciation gives an elementary treatise on phonetics and sound physiology of French and German. The analytical inductive method of teaching is set forth. The concluding chapter offers outlines for a course in reading. The influence of this book has been considerable. The standards set up and the method advised for use in the United States are widely at variance with those laid down in the report of the Committee of twelve (1898), in that the book stands squarely for a direct method with a large use of the foreign language in the classroom.

There are several reasons why more teachers have not taken up the direct method. Many teachers were, and are, unfit to do so because of lack of adequate training. But even with a sufficient reading, writing, and speaking knowledge they found the new style of teaching unworkable for the reason that they had not seen the direct teaching in actual use. If young people are to learn to use a new method effectively, they must see it in actual operation. In teachers' courses in the universities they had learned and read about the new method but had had no opportunity to see it in use. Moreover at one time the weight of authority seemed to be against, or at least not to be in favor of, the direct method. However, in spite of this, the new movement has gained such force that by this time it is at least unfashionable to come out against it.

Becker, Henrietta. Methods of teaching German. Chicago, Scott, Foresman & co. [1905?] 9 p. 8¢

An elementary discussion of methods.

California association of teachers of German. Report of committee on a four years' course in German for secondary schools. Hugo K. Schilling, chairman. *In Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik*, 7: 48-53, 71-76, February, 1906.

This plan is based upon a preliminary report which was discussed and adopted at a meeting of the association held in Berkeley, Cal., December 28, 1905, in connection with the annual session of the California teachers' association.

Contains outlines, including bibliography and suggestions on method. Reprinted in pamphlet form, 1906. No place of publication given.

Chamberlin, W. A. The comparative study of words in foreign languages. *School review*, 13: 315-23, April, 1905.

Crane, Thomas F. The modern languages in secondary schools and colleges. *In Association of colleges and preparatory schools in the Middle States and Maryland. Proceedings*, 1905. p. 23-30.

Historical notes on modern language teaching and on entrance requirements. What schools shall teach elementary modern languages? Training of teachers of foreign travel and residence recommended.

Cutting, Starr W. Über den gebrauch von lehrbüchern beim unterricht in der deutschen sprache. *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 6: 219-26, September-October, 1905.

Text-books are made too much of in teaching. More use should be made of the spoken language. The characteristics of good text-books are enumerated.

Hohfeld, Alexander Rudolph. Die zukunft des deutschen unterrichts im amerikanischen unterrichtswesen. *Pädagogische monatshefte*, 6: 238-45, September-October, 1905.

Discusses the question pro and con and claims a place for German in the public elementary schools, not as a concession to the Germans, but because of the cultural and educational value of a foreign language. In Germany, a modern language is taken up at about the age of nine in the höheren bürgerschulen, gymnasien, etc. The Nationaler deutsch-amerikanischer lehrerbund should cooperate with the Modern language association of America and the National education association of the United States to further the cause of German in the public elementary schools. Unfortunately, nothing came of this proposition.

— and others. Report of a committee of nine. Madison, Wis., 1905. 19 p. 8¢

This is a brief for a modern language—in this case, German—in the upper grades of the grammar schools in Wisconsin.

Kagan, Josiah M. *and others*. Leave of absence for study abroad. *In New England modern language association. Publications, 1905. vol. 1, no. 1. p. 13-30.*

Contains excellent discussions of foreign travel and residence for modern language teachers, together with addresses, names, etc.

Kern, Paul O. "Die neueren sprachen." *School review, 13: 51-54, January, 1905.*
Notice of this journal and extracts from an article on the progress in modern language teaching in Germany since 1860.

— The question of translation in the teaching of modern languages. *School review, 13: 293-306, April, 1905.*

Argues against translation, and for the inductive method of teaching grammar. Distinguishes between the direct or reform method and the natural method, which latter he will none of. Reading is to form the center of instruction, but speaking is important. Many of the means of the reformers and of others are given.

— Realien im neusprachlichen unterricht. *Pädagogische monatshefte, 6: 226-38, September-October, 1905.*

An excellent discussion of the history of Realien in Germany and of their use. German literature is only a very small part of German life and history. We must study all of German life. The modern language must acquaint the learner with the foreign people. The study of classical literature has a place because it is the best reflector of the culture of a nation although not the only one. Advocates appointing a committee to make a collection of Realien for the study of German. This important paper ends with a good bibliography.

Norton, Edward L. *and Ashléman, Lorley Ada*. Dramatics in the teaching of a foreign language. *Elementary school teacher, 6: 33-39, September, 1905.*

A plea for dramatics, and three dramatized scenes.

Rambau, Adolphe. The teaching of modern languages in the American high school. *Die neueren sprachen (Marburg, Germany), 13: 193-209, 1905.*

The writer makes a comparative study of this teaching. As to method, speaking should precede writing. Knowledge of phonetics necessary to teacher.

Reiff, Paul. Der unterricht in den modernen sprachen auf der deutschen erziehungsabteilung der weltausstellung. *Pädagogische monatshefte, 6: 41-50, February, 1905.*

Gives a list of books and helps, with slight discussion of some methods.

The three following papers by Prof. Sachs stand squarely for the direct method; attack the usual course of random reading; deprecate the common practice of taking up classics before the class is well grounded in the living language and grammar; and call attention to the best French and German readers as models for the hoped-for reader in this country. He says it is not necessary to wait for perfect teachers before starting on the direct method. Discusses the training of teachers.

Sachs, Julius. The German reform method and its adaptability to American conditions. *In New England modern language association. Publications, 1905. vol. 1, no. 1. p. 30-65.*

Favors the German reform method, with slight modifications, for use in the United States. Discussions follow.

— Modern languages in secondary schools. *Educational review, 29: 163-78, February, 1905.*

Bibliographical note: p. 178.

— The modern languages in secondary schools and colleges. *In Association of colleges and preparatory schools in the Middle States and Maryland. Proceedings, 1905. p. 9-23.*

Lays stress on proper choice of readings, and points to European experience and literature in modern language teaching. The equipment of a teacher is discussed. We need not wait for perfect teachers before starting on the direct method. Teachers in secondary schools need special preparation for their work. The usual college courses in methods are not sufficient.

[Scherz, Anna] German [in the curriculum of the University of Chicago elementary school] Elementary school teacher, 5: 600-1, June, 1905.
Stands for direct method.

1906.

Ashléman, Lorley Ada. Le jeu un facteur important dans l'enseignement d'une langue. Elementary school teacher, 7: 288-95, 484-88, December, 1906, and April, 1907.

Aspinwall, William B. The direct method of teaching modern languages. (As applied in the schools of France) Education, 27: 45-48, September, 1906.
Sketch of present methods in France. Shows influence of Gouin in France. Gives some of the devices used.

Bigelow, John, jr. Modern language teaching, with special reference to pronunciation and conversation. Technology quarterly, 19: March, 1906.

Brooks, Frank E. B. The French course in the Horace Mann school. Teachers college record, 7: 148-66, March, 1906.
Course in direct method; outlines, phonetics. Very suggestive.

Dexter, Edwin G. Ten years' influence of the report of the Committee of ten. School review, 14: 254-69, April, 1906.
Data on the prevalence of the modern languages in high schools of the United States.

Fay, Charles E. and others. Specimen entrance examination papers in French and German, prepared by college and preparatory teachers for discussion at the 3d annual meeting of the New England modern language association, May 12, 1906. In New England modern language association. Publications, 1906. vol. 1. no. 2 B. p. 5-45.

Florer, Warren W. and others. Material and suggestions for the use of German in the classroom. I. Ann Arbor, Mich., G. Wahr [c 1906.] v. 8.
Outlines of grammar; analysis of Immensee and Wilhelm Tell, with suggestive material for theme writing; suggestions on high school reading in German.

Gohdes, William H. The German course in the Horace Mann school. Teachers college record, 7: 167-73, March, 1906.
Gives outlines, full and suggestive.

Kiefer, Arthur. Der deutsche unterricht und der lesestoff in der hochschule: Mit randbemerkungen. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 7: 105-8, April, 1906.
Discussion of Idealen, Formalien, and Realien. Contends that too much stress is laid on classics. More time should be given to Realien.

Lautner, John E. The question and answer method in modern-language teaching. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 7: 197-203, September, 1906.
Advises use of foreign language in classroom. Writing and speaking are motor processes (expression); hearing and seeing are sensory processes (impression). Both must be used and connected. Psychological grounds for importance of living language.

Super, Charles W. Acquiring languages. Nation, 83: 220-21, September 13, 1906.
Deals with the study of Latin and Greek, but lays stress on cultural side of language study.

1907.

Borgerhoff, J. L. Variations in the pronunciation of French. School review, 15: 61-73, January, 1907.

[Carruth, W. H.] What should be the minimum preparation for teaching German in American secondary schools? Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 8: 81, March, 1907.

Outlines a discussion introduced by the above-named address in the departmental meeting of Germanic languages, central division of the Modern language association of America, 1906.

Evans, M. B. The subjunctive mode in elementary German instruction. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 8: 309-17, December, 1907.
Slight discussion of the theory of the subjunctive. Examples to illustrate the practice of teaching it.

¹ Formerly Pädagogische Monatshefte, Schwaben, Würt.

Goodnight, S. H. Einige moderne einrichtungen im interesse des fremdsprachlichen unterrichts. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 8: 99-106, April, 1907.

Notice and exposition of the working of the international correspondence between school children, and of the work of the Société d'échange internationale des enfants et des jeunes gens pour l'étude des langues étrangères.

Grandgent, C. H. Is modern-language teaching a failure? School review, 15: 513-34, September, 1907.

Cf. also School review, 12: 462-67, June, 1904, where much of the same material has appeared. A pessimistic view of modern-language teaching. Writer thinks that this teaching is more or less of a failure as compared to the teaching of Latin and Greek. Fortunately for the modern-language teachers this paper is soon after discredited and put to shame by a clear-cut statistical study. Cf. Young, W. H. School review, 16: 258-64.

[Griebsch, M.] Ist die fertigkeit im mündlichen gebrauch der deutschen sprache von dem lehrer des deutschen zu fordern? Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 8: 321-22, December, 1907.

Hall, G. Stanley. Should modern be substituted for ancient languages for culture and training? In New England modern language association. Publications, 1907. vol. 1, no. 3. p. 45-74.

Handschin, Charles H. A manual for teachers of German in high schools and colleges. Miami bulletin, February, 1907. Series VI, no. 1. 16 p.

Advocates a direct method with the first one-half or three-quarters of a year based on the Gouin series system.

Lotspeich, C. Schwierigkeiten des deutschen für englischsprechende schüler. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 8: 214-21, September-October, 1907.

Gives list of such difficulties, and means of overcoming them.

O'Shea, Michael V. Linguistic development and education. New York, London, The Macmillan company, 1907. xviii. 347 p. 12°.

Bibliography: p. 329-37.

Gives good summary of European theory and practice in the teaching of modern languages. Stands for direct method.

Notes on the teaching of languages. [Editorial] School review, 15: 223-26, March, 1907.

On the excellence of the instruction in modern languages in Europe. Notice of reform movement.

Roedder, E. C. Statistisches zum gegenwärtigen stande des deutschen unterrichts an den amerikanischen universitäten. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 8: 317-20, December, 1907.

Gives figures on total enrollment in a few colleges and universities, also enrollment in German courses, the number of such courses, etc.

Sisson, Edward O. Reading versus translating. School review, 15: 508-12, September, 1907.

Advises not to translate, but gives no adequate substitute.

Tuckermann, Julius. Courses in French and German. In New England modern language association. Publications, 1907. vol. 1, no. 3. p. 75-79.

Detailed plans. Quite suggestive.

Shall the preparatory schools be held to a definite and uniform course in French and German as they are in Latin and Greek and English? In New England modern language association. Publications, 1907. vol. 1, no. 3. p. 18-44.

Discussion follows.

Writer sets down the following propositions: 1. More time and a prescribed amount of time should be given to modern languages. 2. A few specified books should be read and studied carefully, while some should be specified for rapid reading. 3. Pay more attention to pronunciation and to the oral use of language. 4. An elementary knowledge of both French and German should be required of all who enter the colleges. 5. French and German should be allowed as many credits for entrance to college as Latin and Greek.

- Why should the teacher of German have a knowledge of phonetics? A symposium. *School review*, 15: 46-60, January, 1907.
Articles by A. C. von Noé, Edith Clawson, and Paul O. Kern.
Emphasizes the value of phonetics in modern-language teaching.
- Woldmann, H. Der gegenwärtige stand des deutschen unterrichts in den Vereinigten Staaten. *Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik*, 8: 221-29, September-October, 1907.
An excellent sketch of the history of German instruction in the United States. Takes pride in past achievements in this line and points out the way for the future.

1908.

- Angus, Frances R. The teaching of French in the University high school (University of Chicago). *School review*, 16: 125-33, February, 1908.
The writer seems to have worked out a scheme of her own for the teaching of French which bears resemblance to the Gouin method, and which shows the marks of being well worked out and effective. Compare also Fritsche. The study of the systematic vocabulary. *School review*, 16: 102-9, February, 1908. Gives notice of Gouin series system.
- Bristol, George P. Foreign languages in the high school. *Educational review*, 37: 243-51, March, 1909.
Not important on the modern language side.
A paper read at the annual meeting of the Associated academic principals of New York State, December, 1908.
- [The course of study in German in the University elementary school, Chicago, Ill.] *Elementary school teacher*, 8: 534-35, May, 1908.
- David, Henri C. The direct method in French secondary school. *School review*, 16: 123-25, February, 1908.
On the working of the direct method in France. Status of this instruction there.
- Dodge, Raymond. School artifice and psychological principle in modern language instruction. *In New England modern language association. Publications*, 1908. vol. 1, no. 4. p. 61-71.
The writer comes to the conclusion that "to teach a modern language means to use all the school technique and all our pedagogical tact to re-create in each individual student the definite mental habits of a man." On the side of psychology, however, nothing new is brought forth; in fact, the well-known psychological processes are not mentioned nor illuminated.
- Dürst, Marie. Modern languages taught as living languages. *Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik*, 9: 276-81, November, 1908.
Favors an eclectic method, but which is almost a direct method, only that the writer can not see how to do without translation, "especially for beginners."
- Eiselmeyer, John. The training of the teacher of German. *Monatsheft für deutsche sprache und pädagogik*, 9: 3-6, January, 1908.
Also in Wisconsin teachers' association. Madison, Wis., Democrat printing co. [1908] p. 72-73. He must, besides having a general education, have a knowledge of German and German institutions, of methods of teaching modern language, and a sufficient amount of practice teaching.
- Faulkner, H. The high-school course in German. *University of Virginia. Alumni bulletin*, July, 1908.
- Fritsche, G. A. The study of the systematic vocabulary. *School review*, 16: 102-9, February, 1908.
Notice of the Gouin series system and of some other books.
- Furnas, Edith. The study of synonyms as an aid in the acquisition of a vocabulary. *School review*, 16: 115-18, February, 1908.
Contains bibliographical references.
- Gruener, Gustav. Methods of using the modern languages orally in the classroom. *In New England modern language association. Publications*, 1908. vol. 1, no. 4. p. 21-22.
The speaker points out the dangers in the oral teaching. Prof. Gruener was followed by Mr. M. Kagan and Miss Mary A. Sawtelle, who favored a large oral use decidedly and were carrying this out in their respective schools (p. 22-41).

Handschin, Charles H. A manual for teachers of German in high schools and colleges. Miami university. Bulletin, November, 1908. 18 p.

The writer has since 1905 used an adaptation of the Gouin series system consisting of one hundred lessons constructed after Gouin's plan, and follows this up with a direct method in which most of the devices of the reform method are used. This pamphlet gives a slight account of the practice.

Hülshof, John L. The use of phonetics in language teaching. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 9: 311-13, December, 1908.

Outlines of work in phonetics for beginning class in German.

Kern, Paul O. Eine rechenstunde im deutschen unterricht. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 9: 68-71, 100-4, March and April, 1908.

Excellent detailed plan, very useful for such as have not taken up the use of German in the classroom.

— The study of cognates as an aid in the acquisition of a vocabulary. School review, 16: 109-12, February, 1908.

Gives tables, &c.

Kiefer, A. Report on the present status of instruction in German in the high schools of Ohio. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 9: 136-39, May, 1908.

Krause, Gertrude E. The study of the vocabulary in modern language teaching as outlined by the reformers. School review, 16: 112-15, February, 1908.

Kromer, Adolph. The position of grammar in language instruction. In National education association of the United States. Journal of addresses and proceedings, 1908. p. 644-45.

In favor of teaching grammar inductively.

Libby, Walter. Forms of high school recitation. Education, 28: 604-5, June, 1908.

Remarks on a recitation in a German class.

Merrill, Arthur G. Some features of the German work at the Francis W. Parker school. Elementary school teacher, 8: 289-300, February, 1908.

Outlines of work done; correlation of work in art and in German; bibliography on this.

Purin, Charles M. Deutscher sprachunterricht und bewusstes deutschum. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 9: 42-46, 71-76, 104-7, February, March, and April, 1908.

Good thoughts on the history of the Germans in the United States. Valuable for the teacher of German. Plea for more vigorous propaganda for study of German.

Schacht, F. W. The study of derivatives and composites as an aid in the acquisition of a vocabulary. School review, 16: 119-22, February, 1908.

Skinner, M. M. In wie weit darf man sich beim unterricht in der deutschen sprache des übersetzens ins englische bedienen? Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 9: 9-14, 33-42, January and February, 1908.

Translation to be restricted to a minimum. For it, use retelling of the contents in German. Discusses choice of texts.

Snow, William B. Language or languages? In: New England modern language association. Publications, 1908. vol. 1, no. 4. p. 41-50.

Plea for more language and fewer languages in the secondary schools.

Spanhoofd, Arnold Werner. Psychologische grundlage für die methoden des unterrichts in den modernen sprachen. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 9: 237-43, September-October, 1908.

The same method will not do for children and adults. Interest is an essential element. Conversation must be cultivated. The writer makes no attempt to analyze the psychological aspects of modern language teaching, but is strong on the practical application of psychological principles to this teaching.

Talamon. La méthode directe en France. In: New England modern language association. Publications, 1908. vol. 1, no. 4. p. 52-61. ♦

Gives an historical sketch and slight exposition of the method.

Woldmann, H. Ist die fertigkeit im mündlichen gebrauch der deutschen sprache vom lehrer der deutschen zu fordern? Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 9:7-8, January, 1908.

Answers decidedly in affirmative.

Wolf, Ernst L. Die hilfsmittel im modernsprachlichen unterricht. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 9:213-25, September-October, 1908.

A historical survey of modern language instruction. Necessity of aids and list of such. On the use of pictures, models, etc.

Objective aids in teaching modern languages. In National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1908. p. 640-44.

In favor of the reform method, against translating and for use of Realien.

Young, Walter H. Is modern language teaching a failure? School review, 16:258-64, April, 1908.

Shows by statistics of the College entrance examination board that the modern languages are taught better than Latin or Greek.

1909.

Ayer, Charles C. Why Americans are underlanguage. Forum, 41:137-41, August, 1909.

An important article which touches on the fact that "the living spoken language is scarcely heard in the classroom" (in the United States) and "that many of our American-born language teachers are unable to speak the languages they teach." To this is ascribed a share in the deplorable fact that Americans can not speak any language but their own. A review of the paper is contained in American review of reviews, 40:366-67, September, 1909.

Bagster-Collins, Elijah W. Beobachtungen auf dem gebiete des fremdsprachlichen unterrichts. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 10:216-25, October, 1909.

The same textbooks should not be used in the various classes of schools, as is now often the case. A standard vocabulary should be adopted for assimilation by elementary and secondary pupils. The college professor has not the viewpoint of the high school or elementary teacher, and therefore can not prepare his textbook for him. An oral examination should be set for entrance to college.

Bristol, G. P. Foreign languages in the high school. In New York associated academic principals. Proceedings, 1908. p. 39-46.

Latin should be studied first in the high school, to be followed by German, which may be followed by French. Shows that Latin is concise and that mental acumen is necessary to translate it. French requires little knowledge of grammar while 50 per cent of its words are English. In Latin 60 per cent of the words are English. German requires a good knowledge of grammar and only 25 per cent of the German words have English equivalents. A very interesting article, but not enough data. The computations are based on a passage from Caesar and French and German translations of the same.

Evans, M. B. The high-school course in German. University of Wisconsin. Bulletin, April, 1909. 34 pp.

Gives outline of courses, bibliography, and general suggestions on grammar-translation-conversation method.

Fick, H. H. Erfolgreicher deutschunterricht in amerikanischen öffentlichen schulen. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 10:229-37, October, 1909.

Writes on the value of German educational ideals in the United States, and proves that the additional study of German in our schools does not overburden or disadvantage those children who take it; on the contrary, these children are prevalently, throughout the country, better in all branches than other children. He cites prominent educators, east and west, to support this contention. He gives an exposition of the three systems used in teaching German in elementary schools, which are as follows: 1. By special teachers. 2. In special schools. 3. In the parallel class system, in which the class is instructed alternately by an English and by a German teacher.

Gideon, A. The phonetic method in teaching modern languages. School review, 17:476-89, September, 1909.

Gives an excellent exposition of the reform method of teaching modern languages in which he believes.

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Handschin, Charles H. The first lesson in German. Ohio teacher, 30:58-60, September, 1909.*

Pleads for a direct method, outlines a plan, and gives slight bibliography.

— Translation versus understanding. Ohio educational monthly, 58:494-97, September, 1909.

Argues against translation and for direct assimilation and treatment of texts in German.

Inglis, Alexander J. Cooperation and correlation in language teaching in the high school. Teachers college record, 10:63-78, March, 1909.

The subject of correlation in language teaching, in which considerable good work has been done in Germany, receives its first notice in the United States in this paper by Prof. Inglis. He contends that students should be classified according to previous training, and that two foreign languages should not be begun at the same time. He pleads for the use of uniform grammatical terminology and for the correlation of various studies. To effect the last, "the teacher of foreign language should familiarize himself with those elements of the other languages taught that will be of assistance in correlating the different languages of the school curriculum."

International congress on the teaching of modern languages. In U. S. Bureau of education. Report of the Commissioner for the year 1909. Washington, 1909. p. 193.

Notice of a proposed congress to be held at the Sorbonne, Paris, April, 1909.

Krause, Albert C. The teaching of modern languages in German secondary schools. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 10:177-82, 291-98, June and November, 1909.

Gives a good exposition of the reform or direct-method teaching in several German schools, which he endorses highly. Also gives tables of number of hours, etc.

McKee, Ralph H. Latin vs. German. Popular science monthly, 75:393.

The writer, in a statistical study, shows that pupils who study German before they come to college make a better showing as students than those who have studied Latin; also that the study of German has a more beneficial influence on the students' English than does the study of Latin.

Nalder, F. L. Modern languages in the high school. Some values and needs. Northwest journal of education, 23:208-11.

Modern-language courses are too short in Washington (State). Makes plea for longer courses and for teaching the colloquial language and the recent literature; also for better teachers. Appended pages 211-13 are a reprint of a British article on the subject.

New England modern language association. Committee on college entrance requirements. Report, May 8, 1903. (Robert H. Fife, jr., chairman) Boston, Ginn and company, 1909. 42 p. 8¢ (Publications of the New England modern language association, vol. 1, no. 6a)

The most important document of the year is the report of the Committee on college entrance requirements. The requirements in modern languages demanded by the New England colleges are set down, and the answers to a long list of questions on modern language conditions, sent to the schools and colleges of New England, are tabulated and discussed. It is impossible here to discuss all of the questions raised. A few of the most interesting are: Do you find that sufficient attention is given to the spoken language in preparation? Over half the answers are in the negative. Do you consider the ability to understand the spoken language and to use it in class an important help to the freshman in carrying on his work in French and German? Of fifty answers, considerably over half answer affirmatively.

The upshot of the investigation is fairly in favor of a direct method with thorough drill in grammar and practically no use of phonetic script but decidedly in favor of the use of Realien. Although the answers showed that at the time classrooms were very rarely supplied with Realien. This report may be ranked as the most satisfactory and efficient document extant, although not covering as great a field as the report of the Committee of twelve.¹

Skinner, M. M. Some practical hints for teaching students how to read German. School review, 17:529-41, October, 1909.

Advocates and outlines a method of making translation easier and more valuable, thus: First, let the class extemporize on the text; the next day work this portion over once more without a dictionary; and last (third day), work it out thoroughly with the aid of a dictionary. A good paper, and shows that the writer has used his own method, and is not merely theorizing.

¹ At the Christmas meeting of the Modern language association of America (central division) in 1910 a committee of three was appointed to bring in a revision of the report of the Committee of twelve.

Spanhoofd, Arnold Werner. Warum sollte der fremdsprachliche unterricht in der elementarschule beginnen? Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 10 : 241-49, October, 1909.

The necessity of differentiating the instruction in the lower and higher schools is urged repeatedly. The elementary and secondary schools should use the direct method, laying stress on the acquisition of oral language. The colleges have not time to do this, and must restrict their efforts to teaching students to read. To learn a second language is not detrimental to a child's linguistic development, but advantageous, as is shown by children in bilingual districts and by the experience in many American schools.

Tuckermann, Julius. Symbols and substance in modern language teaching. Journal of education (Boston), 70 : 92-93, July 22, 1909.

Emphasis on pronunciation. Recounts European experience in methods, and argues against translation and for the use of a direct method.

Whitney, Marion. Problems and opportunities of the modern language teacher. Vermont state teachers' association. Report, 1909. Randolph, Vt., 1910. p. 111-25.

The modern languages are the modern humanities. Hints on a direct method.

1910.

Evans, M. B. Modern language teaching in the Frankfurt "Musterschule." Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 11 : 74-79, March, 1910.

Exposition of classroom work in direct method in the Musterschule.

Judd, Charles H. On scientific study of high-school problems. School review, 18 : 84-98, February, 1910.

The writer approaches the subject of method from the standpoint of the general student of education in a very suggestive paper. He would differentiate sharply between the two kinds of knowledge grammatical and natural, both of which are conceded to be equally valuable. In examinations, too, the questions should deal partly with one, partly with the other sort of knowledge; and they should be kept strictly apart for the purpose of learning in which sort of work interpretative or grammatical, the students have made the better progress. A thorough consideration of such papers would show at what ages pupils learn best by one or the other method.

Krause, Carl Albert. What prominence is to be assigned to the work in speaking the foreign language? Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 11 : 39-43, February, 1910.

You can not do too much consistent work in speaking the foreign language. Justifies this assertion by usual arguments. Demands that work in speaking the foreign language be required in all grades of modern language teaching.

Libbey, Walter. An experiment in learning a foreign language. Pedagogical semi-nary, 17 : 81-96, March, 1910.

The writer gives tabulations of students' progress in learning a foreign language. Interesting. References: p. 96.

Monteser, Frederick. The direct method of teaching modern languages, and present conditions in our schools. In National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1910. p. 523-27.

Shows the strength which the direct-method movement has attained. Monteser alludes to the bettered conditions in modern language instruction in the United States; advocates the direct method, and gives some concrete examples of how it may be introduced at once. In the discussion that follows (ibid., p. 528-29) C. A. Krause is in accord with the advocacy of a direct method. J. A. Bole (ibid., p. 529-32) insists that translating from English into German is injurious, and quotes Sweet in the same strain. For it he would substitute reproduction, in German, of matter, read or heard, orally or at the blackboard, where it can be corrected at once. (Ibid., p. 532-33.) The discussion of the paper by Jonas is favorable. (Ibid., p. 532-33.)

Rathmann, J. Der aufsatz in der volkschule. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 10 : 105-8, 131-36, April and May, 1909.

Valuable outlines and plans.

Schick, Theodore W. A course in German in the high school. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 11 : 310-11, December, 1910.

Outlines aims and methods. States the principles of the direct method tersely and clearly.

Skinner, M. M. Vacation loan-libraries for students of German. *Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik*, 11: 114-18, April, 1910.

Plan to loan books to students for vacation reading. Collections for this purpose are to be made by the modern language department.

Steuber, Frederick J. When and how to teach Schiller's "Wilhelm Tell" in the high school. *Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik*, 10: 100-107-42, 168-72, April, May, and June, 1909.

Methods and outlines.

Stewart, Caroline T. Translating from German into English. *Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik*, 11: 270-72, November, 1910.

Gives a list of "little words" often translated wrongly, and gives English equivalents. It is not quite clear why a journal which stands avowedly for the direct method should print articles of this kind.

Super, Charles W. Learning foreign languages. *Popular science monthly*, 77: 561-69, December, 1910.

General discussion, insignificant for our subject.

Tuckermann, Julius. Modern language teaching in New England. In *National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses*, 1910. p. 519-22.

Gives results of a questionnaire and argues for better preparation of teachers and better cooperation between secondary schools and colleges.

Wolf, Ernst L. Hilfsmittel für den modernsprachlichen unterricht. *Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik*, 10: 2-5, 76-78, January and March, 1909.

Bibliography and lists of Realien.

1911.

Armstrong, Edward C. The place of modern languages in American education. *School review*, 19: 506-609, November, 1911.

The modern languages have but lately come into their own. To-day they have taken a reputed place beside Latin and Greek. Need for practical command of languages not as great as in European countries, but there is a field for this sort of teaching. However, the object of our instruction in the regular schools is not this but rather disciplinary and cultural. We may very properly train our students to understand if not to speak. Except in this particular, our aims are the same as those of the classical instruction. Modern language study gives an insight into foreign culture and makes for mutual understanding and peace between nations. The modern languages have sufficient inflections and syntax to offer a disciplinary study. Illustrations to show this.

Ayer. On learning a modern language. *University of Colorado studies*, 2: 115.

Betz, W. College entrance requirements in modern languages. *School review*, 19: 406-9, June, 1911.

Reprints six resolutions, adopted by the Buffalo section of the New York modern language association on the matter of unjust, excessive, and contradictory entrance requirements of certain colleges which can not be met by the high schools. Pleads for the use in college catalogs of the terminology used by the College entrance examination board.

Blayney, Thomas L. The modern languages as cultural college disciplines. *Educational review*, 41: 478-88, May, 1911.

The old tenet that the Realien must be taught is reiterated, and although nothing new is said in most cases, the subject bears repetition as long as this teaching is still so generally neglected as it is.

Comfort, G. The teaching of modern languages in our secondary schools. *Westonian* (Westtown, Pa.)

Cutting, Star Willard. The teaching of German literature in high schools and academies. *School review*, 19: 217-24, April, 1911.

Most attention should be paid to nineteenth century prose; more historical reading and less fiction demanded. Desires to have the reading matter discussed in German.

Decker, Winfred C. Greater efficiency in modern language instruction. In *New York state teachers' association. Proceedings of 55th annual meeting*, Rochester, N. Y., December 27-29, 1910. Rochester, N. Y. [1910] p. 127-42.

What we should and can do in the high school is to teach German to the extent it can be taught according to the new methods without any regard to what the colleges demand. The colleges in time will be found to adjust their requirements to the high school teaching.

Dingus, L. R. A plea for the modern languages in the normal school. *In* Southern educational association. Journal of proceedings and addresses of the 21st annual meeting held at Chattanooga, Tenn., Dec. 27-29, 1910. [Nashville, Tenn., 1910] p. 38-44.

A study must have value within itself and rest its claim to a place in the curriculum upon that. The civilization of France and Germany is important. More adequate training of teachers is necessary.

Engel. A laboratory method in beginning German. *Die neueren sprachen*, 19:87-97, May, 1911.

Gives an exposition of an original method of the author.

Foesler, L. Can the standard of efficiency in modern language teaching in the secondary schools be raised? *In* Modern language association of America. Publications, 26:xxiv ff.

The chairman of the central division of the Modern language association of America, in this address before the association, reviews the present state of modern language instruction in the Central West. He lays stress upon the cultural side of this study, and upon the necessity of beginning it earlier in our schools; gives some opinions on the subject as brought out by a questionnaire, and says: "Then, again, the specific line of study we represent is by this same public regarded as a luxury rather than a necessity. What with the undeniable and inevitable press of the so-called practical, vocational, or utilitarian branches clamoring for recognition and a place in school curricula, and the consequent uncertainty of educational values, relative and absolute, it is small wonder that such is the case."

He gives, also, valuable data on the preparation of teachers in the Central West as follows: Seventy-six per cent are college graduates; nearly 50 per cent took a teacher's course in methods of teaching modern languages in college; 32 per cent speak German as a native tongue; 34 per cent enjoyed residence or study abroad, or both.

The training of these teachers as obtained in Central West(ern) colleges is as follows: From 22 to 38 semester hours (above the two years elementary course) are required of the candidates in German. A variety of subjects, from grammar and composition to historical grammar and phonology and literature, are included in this. The cultural side is rather overdone, says the writer.

In secondary instruction more definite results should be striven for, i. e., courses should be standardized; schools should be more closely inspected; colleges should keep in touch with their graduates who go out to teach.

There is need also for more definite organization among modern language teachers, with the object of improving this instruction. Data is given also on the number of schools offering this instruction, together with amounts offered.

Gray, Roland P. English and the foreign languages. *Educational review*, 41:306-13, March, 1911.

Faulty English is encouraged by allowing poor translations, un-English phrasing, grammar, and word order. More care should be bestowed upon elegant translation.

Guerard, Albert Leon. Literary appreciation in the study of foreign languages; its opportunities and limitations, with especial reference to the study of French. *In* National education association of the United States. Journal of addresses and proceedings, 1910. p. 641-46.

Hänssler, William. Modern German literature in the high school. *Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik*, 12:138-45, May, 1911.

States the principles of selection; lays stress on the literary-aesthetic point of view; gives bibliography and outlines a course of reading. Valuable.

Handschin, Charles H. Instruction in French and German in Ohio. *Miami bulletin*, February, 1911, 18 p. (Miami University, Oxford, Ohio).

Gives a historical sketch of this instruction from the earliest times in Ohio, with statistics and bibliography. Data is given also on the sort of courses offered by Ohio high schools, colleges, and universities, together with a classification of methods of instruction used in the various schools, and a comparison of the state of this instruction in Ohio with that in the United States as a whole.

Problems in the teaching of modern languages. *Education*, 32:203-13, December, 1911.

The writer makes a plea for wider use of Realien and gives bibliography on the subject. He gives a digest of the literature on the matter of translating in modern language study, and concludes that the direct method is correct and expedient, and that translation should be restricted to a minimum. This will make more nearly possible the use of the foreign language as the medium of communication in the classroom. Conversation when properly conducted is oral composition, which is as valuable as written composition, with which it should alternate.

Henseling, Adolf. Zur methodik des aufsatzunterrichts. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 12: 84-89, March, 1911.

Detailed outlines and plans for essay writing. Valuable.

Hoff. Foreign languages. When and why teach them? Washington educational association. Addresses and proceedings, 1910. Seattle, Northwest journal of education publishers. p. 141-47.

Modern language study should be begun in the grades and continued in the high school. A brief for the study of modern languages.

Krause, Carl A. Discussion on present conditions and the direct method. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 11: 308.

Reiterates some principles of the reform teaching.

— Some remarks on the Regents' examination in German. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 12: 105-8, April, 1911.

Criticizes the questions and proposes in lieu of translation, retelling in German; and for composition, *freie reproduktion*. Grammar is to be taught inductively.

Kruse, H. O., *chairman*. Report of the Committee on standardization of German instruction in Kansas. n. d. n. p.

Not yet in print. Manuscript copy supplied by courtesy of Prof. Kruse, of the University of Kansas.

Now published in Course of study for the high schools of Kansas. Topeka, State printing office, 1912. p. 155-64.

The report sets up the following purposes of this instruction:

1. General disciplinary value.
2. Introduction to the life and literature of Germany. Knowledge and sympathy thereby gained furthers good citizenship.
3. Preparation for pursuits that require a reading knowledge of German.
4. Foundation for an accomplishment which is of use in business, travel, etc.

The preparation of the teacher is discussed; a three years' course for secondary schools is outlined in detail; and a bibliography of helps for the instruction follows.

Kuersteiner, A. F. The needs of modern-language instruction. School review, 19: 555-68, October, 1911.

Elementary instruction in modern language should be relegated to the high school, and more time should be given to it. The linguistic side should be emphasized in high school, the literary side in college. In high school only literature written after 1830 should be read. The high-school teacher should have good pronunciation and fluency in speaking the foreign language, also knowledge of phonetics, although the high school is not the place for theoretical phonetics. English should disappear from the classroom the third year. Translation from foreign language to English may be used in moderation, but translation from English into the foreign language should be discarded after the first year. Hints on how to teach grammar inductively and on conversation.

Münch, Wilhelm. Lebende sprachen und lebendiger sprachunterricht. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 12: 33-39, 70-77, February and March, 1911.

Stress is laid on a wide-awake use of the oral method of reading and on spontaneity in composition. Method means much, but it dare never rob the teacher of his freedom.

Nollen, John Scholte. Aims of the teaching of modern languages in the secondary school. School review, 19: 550-54, October, 1911.

Aims are to impart ability to read, to pronounce, and to understand the spoken language. Hints on devices of the reform method.

Pace, Edward A. French and German in the university. Catholic university bulletin, 10: 182-95, April, 1904.

Reform in grammatical nomenclature in the study of the languages. A symposium.

School review, 19:610-42, November, 1911.

Part of the program of the Michigan schoolmasters' club, Ann Arbor, Mich., April 1, 1911.

Contains: 1. Rounds, C. R.—The present situation and possible remedies, p. 610-16. 2. Meader, C. L.—The problem from the standpoint of general linguistics, p. 617-18. 3. Kuerstner, A. F.—The problem from the standpoint of the romance languages: French, p. 618-19. (Generalizations in syntax should not be made so broad as to be beyond the grasp of pupils in the common and high schools. It is not so important for such pupils to be able to classify subjunctives, say under four heads, as that they should see the reason why a verb is in the subjunctive.) 4. Wagner, C. P.—The problem from the standpoint of the romance languages: Spanish, p. 619-20. (It has been asserted that every additional language the student learns adds to his confusion. Data gathered in the writers' class does not support this view.) 5. Scott, F. N.—The problem from the standpoint of English, p. 620-24. 6. Diekhoff, T. J.—Functional change of the subjunctive in German, p. 624-30. (Calls attention to some changes in function in German subjunctive and classifies all German subjunctives as potential or optional. Excellent statement of the theory of the subjunctive in German.) 7. Hale, W. G.—The closing of the symposium, p. 630-42.

Skinner, M. M. Aspects of German teaching in America. Educational review, 41:34-41, January, 1911.

Takes the examinations of the college examination board to task for questions which pervert the aims of good teaching. For composition he would substitute *freie reproduction*.

Prof. Skinner has worked out a treatment of reading which is individual. He quite does away with translation and substitutes for it a retelling of the matter read in the student's own words. He has explained his method elsewhere (see under 1906), and it seems to have much good in it, altho the writer did not succeed with it on trial. It has the advantage of not being a theory merely, since Prof. Skinner has tested its efficiency through long experience.

Stewart, Caroline. Something about synonyms. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 12:170-72, June, 1911.

Gives a lot of words with meanings.

Walter, Max. Empfehlenswerte lehrbücher für den modernsprachlichen unterricht. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 12:177-78, June, 1911.

A list with names of publishers.

Über fremdsprachliche klassikerlektüre. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 12:109-14, April, 1911.

Pleads for freedom for the teacher in his methods of teaching that he may develop his own strength and individual capabilities. While an exact study of grammar is expected, still the esthetic enjoyment and the interest of the student is considered fully as valuable as the rigid linguistic drill.

1912.

Danton, George H. Lotto or composition. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 13:107-15, April, 1912.

Argues against the traditional work in composition.

Handschin, Charles H. A historical sketch of the Gouin series system of teaching modern languages and of its use in the United States. School review, 20:170-76, March, 1912.

Gives an account of the rise and spread of this method in Europe and the United States. Extensive bibliography.

Senger, J. H. The final aim of modern foreign-language study in secondary education. In National education association of the United States. Journal of proceedings and addresses, 1911. p. 639-41.

The aim is to develop in our students "through respect for others, a noble self-respect making for order, law, and justice, which can not fail to bring us nearer to peace on earth and good will toward men."

Spanhoofd, Arnold Werner. Translation into English. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 13:44-53, February, 1912.

Argues for the value of translation.

Voos, Ernst. Personality and enthusiasm versus method. *Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik*, 13:74-84, March, 1912.

Bellittles method and lays emphasis on personality and enthusiasm.

Walter, Max and Krause, C. A. *Beginners' German*. New York, Scribner's sons, 1912. xiii, 231 p. 8°

— German lessons. A demonstration of the direct method in elementary teaching. New York, 1911. 229 p. 12°

Dr. Walter, of the *Musterschule Frankfurt am Main*, has given a considerable impetus to the use of the direct method by his trip through the United States in the spring of 1911, and by his teaching at Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, from February to the end of April, 1911. This book containing the lessons as he taught them at Teachers College best illustrates his method.

LIST OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEXTS FOR THE TEACHER.

To give a list of modern language texts and materials of instruction published in the United States from the earliest times is out of the question here. Even to attempt an exhaustive list of the present-day books seemed inadvisable. The lists here given together with the extensive bibliographies of books and *Realien* referred to in Chapter XIV will no doubt suffice the teachers' needs. As far as space and the nature of this monograph allows, the most noteworthy early modern language texts have also been adduced in Chapter XIV. Because of their great numbers, only a few notable publications of the following publishers (whose catalogues are easily obtainable) are listed in this bibliography: D. Appleton & co.; Silver, Burdett & co.; Heath & co.; Holt & co.; Macmillan co.; Scott, Foresman & co.; Merrill & co.; Ginn & co.; American book co.; Brentano & co.; Jenkins; Steiger & co.; Stechert & co.; Newson; The Oxford press, American branch. Only American publications are listed.

Quite complete lists of the European publications on methods will be found in the following six books:

METHODS.

Bagster-Collins, Elijah W. *The teaching of German in the secondary schools*. New York, The Columbia university press, Macmillan co., agents, 1904. ix, 232 p. 8°
Bibliography: p. 24-32.

[Bahlsen, Leopold] *New methods of teaching modern languages*. Translated from the German by Marshall B. Evans. New York, Columbia university press, 1903. 102 p. diags. 8° (Teachers college record . . . vol. iv, no. 3)
Bibliography: p. 26-27, 39-41.

Breul, Karl Hermann. *The teaching of modern foreign languages and the training of teachers*. 3d ed. rev. and enl. Cambridge, University press, 1906. xi, 156 p. 8°

Bibliographical appendix: p. 102-14.

"The reference library of a school teacher of German": p. (116)-144.

Breymann, Hermann Wilhelm. *Die neusprachliche reformliteratur von 1876-[1909]*
Eine bibliographisch-kritische übersicht . . . Leipzig, A. Deichert (G. Böhme) 1895-1909. 4 v. 8°

— *Die neusprachliche reformliteratur von 1894 bis 1899*. Leipzig, 1900.

Carpenter, George Rice and others. *The teaching of English in the elementary and the secondary school*. New York [etc.] Longmans, Green & co., 1903. viii, 380 p. 8° (American teachers' series, ed. by J. E. Russell)

Includes bibliographies of German and French composition. See also preceding list of works on the teaching of modern languages.

PERIODICALS.

It is impossible here to quote the multitudinous German, French, Italian, and Spanish newspapers and magazines which have a bearing on the modern language situation. For a list of several thousand of these see: The American newspaper annual and directory, Philadelphia, Pa.

A list of the American periodicals of education, which devote some space to modern language instruction, is found in the annual reports of the U. S. Commissioner of education, Washington, D. C., from year to year.

The following are the most prominent periodicals dealing entirely, or to a considerable extent, with the teaching of modern languages:

- Education, Boston, Mass. (Monthly)
- Educational review, Rahway, N. J. (Monthly)
- Journal of education, Boston, Mass. (Weekly)
- Journal of English and Germanic philology, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill. (Quarterly)
- Journal of modern philology, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. (Quarterly)
- Modern language association of America, Cambridge, Mass. Publications. (Quarterly)
- Modern language notes, Baltimore, Md. (12 numbers a year)
- Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, formerly Pädagogische monatshefte, Milwaukee, Wis. (Monthly)
- National education association of the United States, Winona, Minn. (One volume a year)
- Romantic review, New York. (Quarterly)
- School review, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. (Monthly)

GENERAL BIBLIOGRAPHY AND TRANSLATIONS FROM THE GERMAN.

- Handschin, Charles Hart. Bibliography of English translations from German novels. Monatshefte für deutsche sprache und pädagogik, 9: 186-88, 300-3, June and November, 1908.
- Handschin, C. H. A working library for the department of German in high schools and academies. Miami bulletin (Miami university, Oxford, O.), April, 1906.
- Katalog der lehrmittelausstellung für den unterricht in den modernen sprachen. Nationales deutsch-amerikanisches lehrerseminar. Milwaukee, 1908.
Strong on European publications.
- Nollen, J. S. Chronology and practical bibliography of modern German literature. Chicago, Scott, Foresman & co. 118 p. 8¢ (\$1)
- Poll, Max. Bibliographical hints for teachers of German. Cincinnati, University teachers' bulletin, v. 1, no. 1, series iii.
- Wisconsin university bulletin. Philology and literature series, v. 4, nos. 1, 2. (50 cts. each).
Lists translations of German literature up to 1890.

COPY BOOKS (IN FOREIGN MODERN LANGUAGES).

- Luekens. System of German penmanship. Nos. 1-6. Milwaukee, Brumder.
- New standard German writing book. Nos. 1-4. Milwaukee, Brumder.
- Wernli-Hillmantel. Deutsche vorschriften. Nos. 1-4. Milwaukee, Brumder.
- Vorlagen für deutsches schön schreiben. Halbschrift. Serie I bis V. Cincinnati, Gustav Muehler.

COMMERCIAL CORRESPONDENCE.

- Berlitz, Maximilian Delphinus. *El Español commercial*. New York, Berlitz, 1908. v, 105 p. 12° (75 cts.)
- Bithell. *Handbook of German commercial correspondence*. New York, Longmans, Green & co., 1908. 296 p. 12° (\$1.25)
- Kenyon, Herbert Alden. *Spanish commercial correspondence; with exercises, notes, and vocabulary*. Ann Arbor, Mich., Wahr, 1907. 12° (75 cts.)
- Marsh, Lewis. *Elementary German commercial correspondence*. New York, Pitman, 1905. illus. 12° (60 cts.)
- Foreign traders' correspondence handbook. New York, Macmillan, 1905. 12° (75 cts.)
- Monteverde, R. D. *Pitman's commercial correspondence in Spanish*. New York, Pitman, 1907. 12° (\$1)
- Pitman, Sir Isaac. *Deutsches kaufmännisches lesebuch*. New York, Pitman, 1904. 12° (German commercial reader) (85 cts.)
- *International mercantile letters. German-English*. New York, Pitman, 1908. 12° (85 cts.)
- *Lectures commerciales*. New York, Pitman, 1904. 12° (Pitman's French commercial reader) (85 cts.)

CONVERSATION AND COMPOSITION BOOKS.

GERMAN.

- Bétiis, Victor and Swan, Howard. *The facts of life. (German) Part 1*. New York, Longmans, Green & co., 1904. 144 p. 8° (80 cts.)
- Florer, Warren W. *A guide and material for the study of Goethe's Egmont*. Ann Arbor, Mich., Wahr, 1904. v, 79 p. 16° (20 cts.)
- *Guide for the study of Riehl's "Burg Neideck" and Von Jagemann's "German syntax"*. Ann Arbor, Mich., 1900. 16° (30 cts.)
- *ed. Heyse's L'Arrabbiata*. Ann Arbor, Mich., Wahr [1902] vii, 3-85 p. 16° (15 cts.)
- *Material and suggestions for the use of German in the classroom. I*. Ann Arbor, Mich., Wahr [1906-] v. 16° (40 cts.)
- *Questions on Thomas's grammar with essentials of grammar in German*. Ann Arbor, Mich., Wahr, 1903. 62 p. 16° (20 cts.)
- *and Wolf, Ernst L. A guide for the study of Goethe's Hermann und Dorothea*. Ann Arbor, Mich., Wahr, 1904. iii, 82 p. 16° (30 cts.)
- Gastineau, Edmond. *The Gastineau method. The conversation method for speaking, reading, and writing German . . .* New York, Cincinnati [etc.] American book co. [1889] xx, 534 p. 12° (\$1.25)
- Goldberger, Ludwig Max. *Das land der unbegrenzten möglichkeiten . . .* New York, Brentano, 1905. 8° (\$2.35)
- Hildebrandt, Gustav. *Exercises for translation, English into German*. San Francisco, Freygang-Leary co., 1905. 12°
- Hildner and Diekhoff. *Anleitung zum verständnis von Storms Immensee*. Ann Arbor, Mich., 1900. 16° (15 cts.)
- Jäschke, Richard, *comp.* *English-German conversation dictionary, with a German-English vocabulary, and a grammatical appendix*. New York, Wycil, 1907. 570 p. 32° (75 cts.)
- Kron, R. *German daily life: a reader*. New York, Newson, 1901. 16° (Modern language books) (75 cts.) Uniform with this is: Kron, *French Daily Life*.
- Steiger, E. *Manual Steiger: sistema de kindergarten*. Chicago, Steiger, 1900. illus. 8° (75 cts. and \$1.25)

- Waite, Charles B., *comp.* Homophonic vocabulary; more than 2,000 words having a like sound and like significance in English, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, German, Dutch, Danish-Norwegian, Swedish and Russian. . . . Chicago, Waite, 1904. 8° (\$2)
- Wesselhoeft, Edward C. Advanced German conversational exercises. New York, Pitman. (20 cts.)
- American-German letter writer. Milwaukee, Brumder, 1888. 720 p. 12° (\$1.50)
- Briefsteller für deutsche in Amerika. Milwaukee, Brumder, 1888. 360 p. 12° (75 cts.)
- Wolf, Ernst. Guide for the study in German of Lessing's *Minna von Barnhelm*. Ann Arbor, Mich., Sheehan, 1904. 12° (30 cts.)
- and Florer, W. W. Guide for the study of Schiller's *Wilhelm Tell*. Ann Arbor, Mich., Sheehan, 1904. 12° (30 cts.)

FRENCH.

- Bacon, Edwin Faxon. Une semaine à Paris, with a series of illustrated conversations. New York, Cincinnati [etc.] American book co. [1901] 136 p. inclu. illus., map. 12° (\$1.50)
- Bercy, Paul. Short selections for translating English into French; new ed., with selections from examination papers of leading colleges, arranged progressively with notes. New York, Jenkins, 1909. 146 p. 12° (75 cts.)
- Bétis, Victor and Swan, Howard. Class-room conversations in French . . . New York, Longmans, Green & co., 1904. 93 p. 8° (Psychological methods of teaching and studying languages. French series, no. 2) (80 cts.)
- Facts of life . . . In 2 pts.; with complete index in English and French. New York, Longmans, Green & co., 1904. 8° (Psychological methods of teaching and studying languages. French series, nos. 1 and 2) (Each 80 cts.)
- First facts and sentences in French . . . New York, Longmans, Green & co., 1905. 135 p. 12° (60 cts.)
- Boquel. Random exercises in French grammar. New York, Putnam, 1908. (\$1.40)
- Clark, T. M. En voyage. New York, Jenkins [1903] 124 p. 12° (75 cts.)
A collection of conversations in French and English, adapted to the use of tourists and classes.
- Connor, James. Conversation-book in French and English for use of schools and travelers. New York, Brentano. (60 cts.)
- Dubois and De Geer. Lectures et conversations. New York, Jenkins, 1909. 151 p. 12° (75 cts.)
- Du Croquet, Charles P. French drill-book: A. New York, Jenkins, 1891.
— B. New York, Jenkins, 1891.
- Fitzgerald, Kathleen. Parlez-vous français? . . . New York, Longmans, 1907. illus. 12° (30 cts.)
- Fontaine, Camille. Choses de France, leçons de conversation . . . New York, Jenkins [1905] vi, 104 p. 12° (75 cts.)
- Gastineau, Edmond. The conversation method for speaking, reading, and writing French. New York, American book company. (\$1.25)
- Hein, Gustav. Exercises in French conversation and composition; with notes and vocabulary. New York, Crowell, 1909. 12° (Modern language series) (40 cts.)
- Hénin, B. L. French verb drill. New York, Jenkins, 1909. 60 p. (35 cts.)
- Laurie, A. [*pseud.* for Pascal Groussot] Une année de collège à Paris . . . New York, Macmillan, 1901. 12° (Stiepmann's elementary French series) (60 cts.)
- Marchand, Charles M. One hundred and two new progressive exercises in prose composition . . . New York, Brentano; [etc., etc., 1904] 108 p. fold. tab. 16°

- Marsh, Lewis.** French translation and composition. New York, Pitman, 1905. 12° (85 cts.)
- Prentys, Elsie P. and R. F.** French for daily use . . . New York, Jenkins [c1910] vi, 160 p. 24°
- Rippmann, W. and Buel, W. H.** Causeries avec mes élèves. New York, Jenkins, 1902. (\$1.25)
- *Contes merveilleux.* New York, Jenkins, 1902. (\$1.50)
- *Corrigé des exercices de la petite grammaire française.* New York, Jenkins, 1902. (50 cts.)
- *Corrigé des exercices et traductions des petites causeries.* New York, Jenkins, 1902. (15 cts.)
- *Corrigé des traductions des causeries avec mes élèves.* New York, Jenkins, 1902. (25 cts.)
- *French daily life, guide for the student . . .* New York, Newson, 1901. 16° (75 cts.)
- Roth, Edward.** *Le conversationniste français.* Philadelphia, Roth, 1908 [1909] 12° (25 cts.)
- Sauveur.** *Causeries avec les enfants.* New York, Jenkins, 1902. (\$1)
- Whitcomb, Rupert Henry.** *French review sentences.* Concord, N. H., The Rumford press, 1905. 57 p. 12°

SPANISH.

- Berlitz, M. D.** *A practical smattering of Spanish.* New York, Berlitz, 1905. 65 p. 16° (30 cts.)
- *Spanish with or without a master . . . 2 v.* New York, Berlitz, 1908. 12° (\$2)
- *Key.* 2 v. New York, Berlitz, 1899-1903. 16° & 12° (50 cts.)
- *and Collonge, Benito.* *Método-Berlitz, para la enseñanza de idiomas modernos. Parte española.* Nueva ed., revista y aumentada. New York, Berlitz, 1905. viii, 216 p. 12° (\$1.50)
- Connor, J. and Langhellest,** ———. *Conversation book in Spanish and English.* New York, Brentano. (60 cts.)
- Knoflach, Augustin.** *Spanish simplified.* Lincoln, Nebr., University publishing co., 1906.

ITALIAN.

- Jäschke, Richard.** *comp.* *English-Italian conversation dictionary.* New York, Wycil. (\$1)
- Stevens, Charles McClellan.** *Italian-English conversation teacher.* Chicago, Donohoe, 1905. 12° (Complete self-teaching language series) (25 cts. and 75 cts.)

DICTIONARIES.

GERMAN.

- Classic German-English dictionary.* New York, Hinds, Noble & Eldredge. (\$2)
- Feller, F. E.** *New pocket dictionary of German-English and English-German.* Rev. by M. A. Curle. New York, Dutton, 1908. 32° (Miniature reference library) (50 cts.)
- James, William.** *Technological dictionary: English, German, French, and Spanish.* New York, Spon, 1908. (\$4)
- Lang.** *German-English medical dictionary:* Philadelphia, Blakiston. (\$4)
- Langham dictionaries.** *English-German and German-English.* New York, Scribner's sons, 1907. 24°
- McLaughlin.** *English-German and German-English dictionary.* Boston, Little Brown & co., 1909. (\$1.25)

- Morwitz. Amerikanisches wörterbuch der englischen und deutschen sprache. New York, Brumber. (\$1.50)
- Tafel-Tafel. Taschenwörterbuch. English-deutsch und deutsch-english. Boston, Kohler. (\$1.50)

FRENCH.

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- Brown and Martin. French and English dictionary . . . New York, Dutton, 1908. 8° (Miniature reference library) (50 cts.)
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