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PRELIMINARY STATEMENTS BY
CHAIRMEN OF COMMITTEES OF THE COMMISSION OF
THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

ON

THE REORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, September 23, 1913.

SIR: The whole problem of secondary education, both as to aims and as to methods, is now undergoing investigation. The demands for the readjustment of the work of the high school are insistent. This bureau has no specialists in secondary education and is unable to respond as it should to the many requests for information in regard to the trend of thought on this subject and for advice in regard to the organization and readjustment of high-school systems. It, therefore, welcomes all the more heartily the cooperation of the commission of the National Education Association on the reorganization of secondary education. This commission is attempting, as the first step in the more thorough study of the high school and its work, to collect the best opinion in this country in regard to the aims and methods that should prevail in secondary education. The accompanying manuscript consists of preliminary statements by the several chairmen of this commission. Their publication for distribution among principals and teachers of high schools and students of secondary education for their criticism will greatly facilitate the work of the commission. I, therefore, recommend that they be published as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education. The final report of the commission should then be published as a revision of this bulletin.

Respectfully submitted.

P. P. CLAXTON,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

THE REORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.

STATEMENT OF CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON ARTICULATION OF HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE.

ORIGIN OF THE COMMISSION.

The commission on the reorganization of secondary education is a logical outgrowth of the first report of the committee on the articulation of high school and college presented in 1911. At that time the committee submitted a broad definition of a well-planned high-school course and recommended the liberalizing of college entrance requirements so that the satisfactory completion of any such well-planned high-school course should be accepted as preparation for college. This report was widely distributed, and its recommendations are receiving approval by an increasing number of educational associations, colleges, and State boards of education.

It was recognized that such liberalizing of college entrance requirements would bring to the high school not only greater opportunity for usefulness, but also increased responsibility for the reorganization of secondary education. Consequently, in 1912, this committee recommended the appointment of subcommittees to report upon the reorganization of the various high-school subjects. Accordingly, 10 subcommittees were appointed by the president of the National Education Association during the ensuing year. Great care was taken in the selection of these committees. Many people, including each State superintendent, were asked to suggest persons best qualified for this important work. The members are well distributed geographically, 30 States being represented.

In 1913 the committee on the articulation of high school and college recommended the formation of a commission to include the committees already organized, a committee on mathematics, a committee on art, and a reviewing committee. This report was adopted by the secondary department of the National Education Association, and the formation of the commission was authorized by the board of directors of that association July 13, 1913.

RESULTS TO BE SECURED.

It is hoped that this commission will—

(*a*) Formulate statements of the valid aims, efficient methods, and kinds of material whereby each subject may best serve the needs of high-school pupils.

(*b*) Enable the inexperienced teacher to secure at the outset a correct point of view.

(*c*) Place the needs of the high school before all agencies that are training teachers for positions in high schools.

(*d*) Secure college entrance recognition for courses that meet actual needs of high-school pupils.

MEMBERSHIP OF THE COMMISSION.

The commission will consist of the following 14 committees:

(*a*) Twelve committees on various high-school subjects, 10 of which were appointed in 1912–13.

(*b*) The committee on the articulation of high school and college, organized in 1910–11.

(*c*) A reviewing committee composed of the chairmen of the preceding committees and not more than 10 "members at large."

The chairmen of the committees already organized are as follows:

Committee on English—James F. Hosic, Chicago Teachers' College, Chicago, Ill.
Committee on social studies—Dr. Thomas Jesse Jones, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.
Committee on natural sciences—William Orr, deputy State commissioner of education, Boston, Mass.
Committee on ancient languages—Dr. Walter Eugene Foster, Stuyvesant High School, New York, N. Y.
Committee on modern languages—William B. Snow, English High School, Boston, Mass.
Committee on household arts—Dr. Amy Louise Daniels, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.
Committee on manual arts—Prof. Frank M. Leavitt, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
Committee on music—Will Earhart, director of music, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Committee on business—A. L. Pugh, High School of Commerce, New York, N. Y.
Committee on agriculture—Prof. A. V. Storm, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minn.
Committee on the articulation of high school and college—Clarence D. Kingsley, high school inspector, Ford Building, Boston, Mass.

The full membership of each of these committees, with two exceptions, is given in this bulletin at the end of the statement of the chairman of that committee. It is probable that some of the committees will be enlarged.

PLAN OF WORK.

Several committees have already made substantial progress; two joint conferences were held in Philadelphia, one in December, 1912, and the other in February, 1913; and preliminary reports were discussed at various round tables of the National Education Association, July, 1913.

The reviewing committee will probably meet for a three-day conference at the University of Chicago, December 29, 30, and 31, 1913. At this conference reports of the various committees will be considered in detail, modifications will be suggested, and the results will be published as the first report of the commission. It is hoped that this first report will be sent to every high school in the United States.

In July, 1914, there will be opportunity for a free discussion of the reports at various meetings of the National Education Association.

The final report of the commission is not expected before 1915.

Each person receiving this bulletin is urged to send suggestions and criticisms to the chairman of the appropriate committee.

CLARENCE D. KINGSLEY, *Chairman.*

FORD BUILDING, *Boston, Mass.*

The other members of the committee on the articulation of high school and college are as follows:

William M. Butler, principal Yeatman High School, St. Louis, Mo.
Frank B. Dyer, superintendent of schools, Boston, Mass.
Charles W. Evans, supervisor of English, East Orange, N. J.
Charles H. Judd, professor of education, University of Chicago, Ill.
Alexis F. Lange, dean of college faculties, University of California, Cal.
W. D. Lewis, principal William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
William Orr, deputy State commissioner of education, Boston, Mass.
William H. Smiley, superintendent of schools, Denver, Colo.

STATEMENT OF CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON ENGLISH.

In order that the report of this committee may represent as fully as possible the results of study and experiment in every quarter, the cooperation of all existing organizations interested in the problem has been and will continue to be sought. The national conference on uniform entrance requirements in English, on May 30, 1911, instructed its executive committee to cooperate; in like manner the National Speech Arts Association and the conference on public speaking of the New England and the North Atlantic States directed appropriate committees to render aid.

The National Council of Teachers of English is yet more closely associated with the work. This council is broadly representative in the character of its membership, both individual and collective, and is thus well fitted to join in the enterprise. The members of its committee on the high-school course, which recently collected information for a report on types of organization of high-school English, are participating actively in compiling a handbook. The members of the committee of the council are as follows:

Franklin T. Baker, teachers' college, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
Elizabeth G. Barbour, girls' high school, Louisville, Ky.
C. C. Certain, high school, Birmingham, Ala.
Allison Gaw, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, Cal.
Mrs. Henry Hulst, Central High School, Grand Rapids, Mich.
William D. Lewis, principal, William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
E. H. Kemper McComb, Manual Training High School, Indianapolis, Ind.
Edwin T. Reed, Agricultural College, Corvallis, Oreg.
Elizabeth Richardson, girls' high school, Boston, Mass.
James Fleming Hosic, chairman, Chicago Teachers' College, Chicago, Ill.

It may be noted by comparing the above list with the names of the committee appearing at the end of this statement that the committee of the council contains three members, including the chairman, who are also members of the committee in the commission on the reorganization of secondary education.

THE POINT OF VIEW.

The committee will endeavor to make a fresh study of English in secondary schools. These schools have developed so remarkably in the past two decades that their function of preparation for advanced academic study is completely overshadowed by other functions. Moreover, these schools serve such various constituencies that the widest possible freedom is necessary. Hence the committee will consider the experience of those who have sought to meet the needs of particular communities. A course which fits the life of the school and prepares young people for the life of the home and of the social and industrial community will, it is now believed, best equip for attendance on higher academic or professional institutions.

With this ideal before them, the various subdivisions of the committee will undertake to select material and outline activities for the successive years of the course. The groundwork of composition will consist of those projects for speaking and writing which young people can be made to feel are worth while. Rhetorical theory will thus be made to serve as the handmaid of expression, not the occasion of it. Books for reading, likewise, will be selected because they are capable of producing a genuine reaction, not because they are illustrative of literary history. In both composition and literature there will doubt-

less be a shift of emphasis toward those subjects and activities which are of greatest value in active life—for example, oral expression—and toward modern books and periodicals. It is not to be inferred, however, that the supreme values inherent in the world's literary masterpieces will be overlooked.

THE PLAN.

A general plan for a handbook has been agreed upon. A section will be devoted to each of the following:

(1) An account of the origin and labors of the committee.

(2) A summary of the work in English of the first six years of the elementary school.

(3) The aims which should guide the English work of the six following years, namely, the seventh and eighth years of the present elementary school and the four years of the present high school.

(4) A general course of study for the later six years, providing abundant material for choice.

(5) Several examples of more limited courses as worked out to meet particular conditions.

(6) A suggestive outline of activities in composition (speaking, writing, spelling, grammar, and rhetoric).

(7) A suggestive outline of activities in literature (interpretation of poetry, fiction, and drama, reading aloud, dramatization, lives of authors, literary history).

(8) A list of books for pupils' general reading, with suggestions as to guidance.

(9) General suggestions as to plans of faculty cooperation in English instruction, size of classes, equipment, etc.

(10) A bibliography upon the preceding topics.

Such a handbook will be useful to administrators in arranging courses of study and in providing equipment, and it will aid the teacher at work, particularly the teacher of limited experience.

AIMS.

The committee believes that a single statement of aims will prove serviceable as a guide to the English work of all schools. Broadly speaking, it should be the purpose of every English teacher, first, to quicken the spirit and kindle the mind and imagination of his pupils; and to develop habits of weighing and judging human conduct with the hope of leading them to higher living; second, to supply the pupils with an effective tool for use in their future private and public life—i. e., the best command of language which, under the circumstances, can be given them.

The particular results to be sought may be somewhat specifically indicated as follows:[1]

I. In general, the immediate aim of secondary English is twofold:

(*a*) To give the pupil command of the art of expression in speech and in writing.

(*b*) To teach him to read thoughtfully and with appreciation, to form in him a taste for good reading, and to teach him how to find books that are worth while.

These two aims are fundamental; they must be kept in mind in planning the whole course and applied in the teaching of every term.

II. Expression in speech includes:

(*a*) Ability to answer clearly, briefly, and exactly a question on which one has the necessary information.

(*b*) Ability to collect and organize material for oral discourse.

(*c*) Ability to present with dignity and effectiveness to a class, club, or other group material already organized.

(*d*) Ability to join in a conversation or an informal discussion, contributing one's share of information or opinion, without wandering from the point and without discourtesy to others.

(*e*) Ability (for those who have or hope to develop qualities of leadership) to address an audience or conduct a public meeting, after suitable preparation and practice, with proper dignity and formality, but without stiffness or embarrassment.

(*f*) Ability to read aloud in such a way as to convey to the hearers the writer's thought and spirit and to interest them in the matter presented.

NOTE.—All expression in speech demands distinct and natural articulation, correct pronunciation, the exercise of a sense for correct and idiomatic speech, and the use of an agreeable and well-managed voice. The speaker should be animated by a sincere desire to stir up some interest, idea, or feeling in his hearers.

III. Expression in writing includes:

(*a*) Ability to write a courteous letter according to the forms in general use, and of the degree of formality or informality appropriate to the occasion.

(*b*) Ability to compose on the first draft a clear and readable paragraph or series of paragraphs on familiar subject matter, with due observance of unity and order and with some specific detail.

[1] This outline, here considerably modified, was originally prepared by Allan Abbott, of the Horace Mann School, Columbia University, and appeared in the English Journal for October, 1912.

(*c*) Ability to analyze and present in outline form the gist of a lecture or piece of literature, and to write an expansion of such an outline.

(*d*) Ability, with due time for study and preparation, to plan and work out a clear, well-ordered, and interesting report of some length upon one's special interests—literary, scientific, commercial, or what not.

(*e*) Ability (for those who have literary tastes or ambitions) to write a short story or other bit of imaginative composition with some vigor and personality of style and in proper form to be submitted for publication, and to arrange suitable stories in form for dramatic presentation.

NOTE.—All expression in writing demands correctness as to formal details, namely, a legible and firm handwriting, correct spelling, correctness in grammar and idiom, and observance of the ordinary rules for capitals and marks of punctuation; the writer should make an effort to gain an enlarged vocabulary, a concise and vigorous style, and firmness and flexibility in constructing sentences and paragraphs.

IV. Knowledge of books and power to read them thoughtfully and with appreciation includes:

(*a*) Ability to find pleasure in reading books by good authors, both standard and contemporary, with an increasing knowledge of such books and increasing ability to distinguish what is really good from what is trivial and weak.

(*b*) Knowledge of a few of the greatest authors, their lives, their chief works, and the reasons for their importance in their own age and in ours.

(*c*) Understanding of the leading features in structure and style of the main literary types, such as novels, dramas, essays, lyric poems.

(*d*) Skill in the following three methods of reading, and knowledge of when to use each:

(1) Cursory reading, to cover a great deal of ground, getting quickly at essentials.

(2) Careful reading, to master the book, with exact understanding of its meaning and implications.

(3) Consultation, to trace quickly and accurately a particular fact by means of indexes, guides, and reference books.

(*e*) The habit of weighing, line by line, passages of especial significance, while other parts of the book may be read but once.

(*f*) The power to enter imaginatively into the thought of an author, interpreting his meaning in the light of one's own experience, and to show, perhaps, by selecting passages and reading them aloud, that the book is a source of intellectual enjoyment.

NOTE.—All bookwork should be done with a clear understanding on the student's part as to what method of reading he is to use and which of the purposes mentioned above is the immediate one. To form a taste for good reading it is desirable that a considerable part of the pupil's outside reading be under direction. To this end lists of recommended books should be provided for each grade or term. These lists should be of considerable length and variety, to suit individual tastes and degrees of maturity.

V. The kinds of skill enumerated above are taught for three fundamental reasons:

(*a*) Cultural. To open to the student new and higher forms of pleasure.

(*b*) Vocational. To fit the student for the highest success in his chosen calling.

(*c*) Social and ethical. To present to the student noble ideals, aid in the formation of his character, and make him more efficient and actively interested in his relations with and service to others in the community and in the nation.

NOTE.—These fundamental aims should be implicit in the teacher's attitude and in the spirit of the class work, but should not be explicitly set forth as should the immediate aim of each class exercise.

PROBLEMS.

The committee has formulated a series of problems which must be worked out. These may be briefly indicated as follows:

I. In general:

(*a*) What is the most effective division of the school course? Is it, for example, that which provides for an intermediate school to include grades seven, eight, and nine?

(*b*) Should the course be planned by years or by half years (semesters)?

(*c*) What minimum of time for class recitations per week should be demanded?

(*d*) Should a choice be offered in the twelfth or in any other grade between a general course in English and specialized courses in English, such as commercial English?

(*e*) How shall due emphasis be secured for speaking, reading, and writing of the more practical matter-of-fact sort without at the same time neglecting the literary or esthetic?

II. As to composition:

(*a*) How shall progress from year to year be indicated and measured?

(*b*) How shall the principles of grammar and rhetoric be sufficiently enforced without over-formalizing the instruction and preventing spontaneity and the operation of specific purposes?

(*c*) How much of the time should be devoted to oral composition and what are the proper relationships between speaking and writing?

(*d*) To what extent may pupils be taught to criticise their own work and that of their classmates?

(*e*) What is the value of the various methods of criticism employed by teachers?

(*f*) What reading is essential to the work in composition?

(*g*) What cooperation of all departments in the work of establishing right habits of collecting and ordering of ideas and of clear and correct expression of them is possible and desirable?

(*h*) What legitimate opportunities for practice in expression does the social life of the school afford and how can these be most effectively utilized?

(*i*) What equipment does the work require?

III. As to literature:

(*a*) How shall progress from year to year be indicated and measured?

(*b*) How shall sufficient knowledge of the backgrounds of literature be insured without defeating the ends of appreciation and a habit of reading books of lasting value?

(*c*) How much of the time should be devoted to oral reading and how shall this be made at once a social accomplishment and a gateway to understanding?

(*d*) What are the proper limits of the study of literary art in the various years? How shall pupils attain to standards of æsthetic judgment?

(*e*) What part should oral and written composition have in the study of literature? What provision should be made for dramatization?

(*f*) What principles should determine the selection of books to be read? For example, should American authors have preference?

(*g*) How shall pupils be trained in the use of current books and periodicals and in the choice and enjoyment of current plays?

(*h*) What responsibility shall the English teacher assume for the general reading of the pupils and for their library training?

(*i*) What equipment does the work require?

The members of the committee will welcome information and suggestions from all who are interested. They wish particularly to learn about the work of schools in agricultural and industrial communities which have developed English courses to meet their peculiar needs.

JAMES FLEMING HOSIC, *Chairman.*

CHICAGO TEACHERS COLLEGE.

The other members of the committee on English are as follows:

Emma J. Breck, Oakland High School, Oakland, Cal.
Randolph T. Congdon, State department of education, Albany, N. Y.
Mary E. Courtenay, Englewood High School, Chicago, Ill.
Charles W. Evans, supervisor of English, East Orange, N. J.
Benjamin A. Heydrick, High School of Commerce, New York, N. Y.
Henry W. Holmes, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
Mrs. Henry Hulst, Central High School, Grand Rapids, Mich.
Walter J. Hunting, superintendent of schools, Carson City, Nev.
W. D. Lewis, principal, William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
May McKitrick, East Technical High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
Edwin L. Miller, Central High School, Detroit, Mich.
Edwin T. Shurter, University of Texas, Austin, Tex.
Elmer W. Smith, Colgate University, Hamilton, N. Y.
Charles S. Thomas, Newton High School, Newtonville, Mass.

STATEMENT OF CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON SOCIAL STUDIES.[1]

THE POINT OF VIEW.

It is probable that the high-school teachers of social studies have the best opportunity ever offered to any social group to improve the citizenship of the land. This sweeping claim is based upon the fact that the million and a third high-school pupils is probably the largest group of persons in the world who can be directed to a serious and systematic effort, both through study and practice, to acquire the social spirit.

Good citizenship should be the aim of social studies in the high school. While the administration and instruction throughout the school should contribute to the social welfare of the community, it

[1] The term "social studies" is used to include history, civics, and economics.

is maintained that social studies have direct responsibility in this field. Facts, conditions, theories, and activities that do not contribute rather directly to the appreciation of methods of human betterment have no claim. Under this test the old civics, almost exclusively a study of Government machinery, must give way to the new civics, a study of all manner of social efforts to improve mankind. It is not so important that the pupil know how the President is elected as that he shall understand the duties of the health officer in his community. The time formerly spent in the effort to understand the process of passing a law over the President's veto is now to be more profitably used in the observation of the vocational resources of the community. In line with this emphasis the committee recommends that social studies in the high school shall include such topics as the following: Community health, housing and homes, public recreation, good roads, community education, poverty and the care of the poor, crime and reform, family income, savings banks and life insurance, human rights versus property rights, impulsive action of mobs, the selfish conservatism of tradition, and public utilities.

Long as the foregoing list is, it is quite apparent that many more vital topics could be added. It is therefore important to understand that it is not the purpose to give the pupil an exhaustive knowledge of any one of these subjects, but rather to give him a clue to the significance of these matters to him and to his community, and to arouse in him a desire to know more about his environment. It is to help him to think "civically" and, if possible, to live "civically." Teacher and pupil must realize that they are studying living things. They must not be content with the printed page. Everything and everybody in the community must be drafted into the service of the boy and girl striving to become an effective part of the "body politic" and a constructive member of the social group. Companions in the schoolroom and on the playgrounds, workers in philanthropy and reform, Government officials and business leaders, voters and laborers of every class are all material for the classroom and laboratory in social studies.

History, too, must answer the test of good citizenship. The old chronicler who recorded the deeds of kings and warriors and neglected the labors of the common man is dead. The great palaces and cathedrals and pyramids are often but the empty shells of a parasitic growth on the working group. The elaborate descriptions of these old tombs are but sounding brass and tinkling cymbals compared to the record of the joy and sorrows, the hopes and disappointments of the masses, who are infinitely more important than any arrangement of wood and stone and iron. In this spirit recent history is more important than that of ancient times; the history of our

own country than that of foreign lands; the record of our own institutions and activities than that of strangers; the labors and plans of the multitudes than the pleasures and dreams of the few.

In order that the aim described above shall be realized, the committee proposes to outline the five following units of social studies:

(1) Community-civics and survey of vocations.

(2) European history to 1600 or 1700 (including English and colonial American history).

(3) European history since 1600 or 1700 (including contemporary civilization).

(4) United States history since 1760 (including current events).

(5) Economics and civic theory and practice.

COMMUNITY CIVICS.

The term "civics" is used here to include all the possible activities of the good citizen, whether as an individual or with private organizations or with government. Community civics is intended to acquaint pupils with the civic condition of their own community. Pupils visit in person and study at close range the vital elements of their city, village, or rural area. Personal visitation and first-hand information is a distinctive feature of the course. It insures the reality and simplicity necessary to a vital knowledge of social forces. It tends to dignify those forces and those places which the pupil usually despises because they are familiar. Finally, knowledge of the neighborhood will show the pupil how an effective education will make him a productive citizen.

It is the belief of the committee that such a course should be offered to the pupil as early as his powers of appreciation allow. The advantages of early acquaintance with the civic conditions are: First, that the larger number of pupils in the lower grades would be reached; and, second, that many pupils realizing the value of education would remain longer in school. In view of this conviction it is fortunate that several experiments have been successfully made in the elementary grades. The following account, taken from an article by Dr. J. Lynn Barnard, a member of this committee, describes the methods which he found successful in the elementary grades of his practice school:

> In the practice school (fifth to eighth school years, inclusive) of the Philadelphia School of Pedagogy, the following tentative course in civics is gradually evolving, with evident interest to both pupil and teacher:
>
> In the first half of the fifth year a beginning is made with the child's common experience within his home and his school. Gas is the first subject taken up informally and the children are encouraged to tell what they know about it and its uses. The teacher guides the conversation so that it naturally leads to the question of where we get our gas. The gas pipe is traced through the

house to the meter and then to the street. When it is learned that the gas is manufactured at a central plant the children are encouraged to visit it, with teacher or parent, and the result of the visit is a letter or report on what was seen. In like manner the subjects of electricity, water, sewage, and the telephone are considered. After the service of the community to the child has been shown with each of the above, the reciprocal duties of the child to the community are brought out by careful questioning, which follows the lines of the pupils' own observation and experience.

In the second half of the fifth year what the child sees by looking out of the window, at home or at school, is drawn upon for material. For example, the policeman, the fireman, the postman, the street sweeper, the garbage collector, the ash collector are severally taken up in the manner already described, never omitting a possible trip and report or forgetting to emphasize the corresponding duties of citizenship resting upon the young citizens of the class.

During the early part of the sixth year some of the educational institutions of the city are visited, such as schools, playgrounds, parks, libraries, museums, historical buildings and localities. Later in the year visits are made to the various public institutions, such as city hall, bourse, customhouse, mint, armories and arsenals, hospitals, and juvenile court. No regular textbooks are used in the fifth and sixth years, but much supplementary material is introduced by the teacher to aid in the interpretation of what has been observed on the various trips. Among other suitable reading books, special mention ought to be made of Richmand and Wallach's Good Citizenship and Hill's Lessons for Junior Citizens. By the close of the sixth year the pupils have acquired a fund of first-hand civic information and experience of a concrete and practical nature, no attempt having been made to generalize or to discuss political rights or duties from a legal standpoint. In fact, the word "government" is not even used; only the more general term "community."

In the seventh year, more attention may safely be given to the end and aim of governmental activity and the way in which public and private agencies unite to accomplish results. For the purpose no better introduction can be found for Philadelphia girls and boys than the beginnings and growth of community action in their home city. They will see how various civic functions, such as street paving and cleaning, and water supply, at first performed by each householder for himself, were gradually taken over by each municipality and performed for all alike. This concrete example of community growth leads naturally to a discussion of the meaning of "community" and "citizenship." The important truth is impressed upon the pupils that they are now citizens of various communities, namely, the home, the school, the playground, the church, the city, the State, the Nation. The family and the home as factors in this community life are particularly emphasized, that the children may rightly appreciate the civic importance of the home. Then follows the story of the making of American citizens out of a constant stream of foreign immigrants, both as to naturalization itself and as to the educative process that may fit the strangers into their new city environment. A series of studies is next undertaken to find out how the community aids the normal citizen in relation to life, health, property, working and business conditions, transportation and communication, education, recreation, religious worship. This is naturally followed by a brief study of how the community takes care of its subnormal citizens, usually referred to as the dependents, the defectives, and the delinquents. Emphasis is placed upon the idea of prevention, or of restoration wherever possible. Poverty, vice, and crime are coming to be recognized as social diseases. This is a fact which every boy and girl should be

made to feel. As each function is discussed, the organization of the city government to do this community work is outlined, with frequent reference to the Philadelphia charter and to ordinances of councils. Careful consideration is given to the cooperation of private agencies with various municipal bureaus and departments, that the pupils may see how community and citizen work together. How the city gets its money to do all it does is briefly explained.

By the time the eighth year is reached the pupil has become so thoroughly grounded in the governmental activities of the city that he is ready to be taken into the larger field of State and Nation. During the first term the work shapes itself as follows: First, how the community aids the normal citizen in his desire for health, security of person and property, business opportunity, education; and second, how the community provides for its unfortunates, by means of charitable and penal institutions. This includes some consideration of the simpler forms of business law and practice, and also some of the commoner types of criminal offenses and the method of their repression and punishment. The governmental organization—legislative, executive, judicial—back of these activities is sketched in outline, both as to selection and control of State officials, not forgetting to discover where the money is found to keep the machinery going. During the second term of the eighth year the pupils learn, as fully as the time permits, how the Federal Government looks after the varied needs and interests of a hundred million citizens and subjects, at home and abroad.

While the study of municipal government is going on, the class is organized on the plan of the Philadelphia city government, so far as practicable, and then according to the commission plan and by an easy transition, when State and National Governments are reached the class takes on those organizations, respectively. This will be recognized as different from the well-known "school city" plan in that the class is organized for purposes of instruction and not for purposes of self-government.

For the seventh and eighth years, a helpful textbook has been found which admirably illustrates the newer civics, Dunn's The Community and the Citizen.

It will be observed that throughout the last two years, when the more serious study of civics is being attempted, the order followed is invariably that of the child's own interest and appreciation, namely, from function to structure, from the executive department which does things to the legislative which plans the things to be done and the judicial which interprets and helps enforce those plans; and then, if necessary, to the charter or constitution which lays down the legal powers and duties of each branch of government.

Moreover, the possibilities for cooperation between the community, acting through government, and the citizens, young and old, acting singly or in voluntary associations, is never lost sight of. How great is this departure from the solemn farce of practically memorizing the Federal Constitution—now in vogue in the city of Penn and elsewhere—can best be appreciated by those teachers who are anxiously awaiting deliverance from bondage through long-overdue revision of their prescribed course of study.

While we are waiting for elementary schools to introduce a course such as Dr. Barnard has outlined, it is recommended that high schools undertake this work in a form adapted to their pupils. It is probable, however, that a brief review of community civics and further attention to a survey of vocations will be a valuable introduction to high-school education even though the pupils have had the elementary course in the grades.

The subject matter of community civics will vary with the community in which the school is located. Communities differ almost as much as individuals. There are the large cities, the villages, and the open country. They differ also as to the characteristics and occupations of the people. It is the hope of the committee to prepare outlines for each of the main types of communities, certainly for rural and urban. The topics given below are merely suggestive.

An explanation of the value of "community health" as one of the topics for this introductory course will make clear the various elements to be considered in selecting topics. The value of a topic for this course depends upon its intrinsic importance to the pupil as a citizen or potential citizen; upon the possibility of presenting it to the boy or girl mind; upon the attitude of the community toward the subject, such as sensitiveness to the discussion of unfavorable conditions; and upon its relation to other studies. There is probably no subject which so well meets all of these requirements as community health. Certainly there is no other topic of more immediate interest to everyone. Health can be made so concrete that even a child can understand much about it. While the community may be sensitive about certain conditions, it is possible to present the facts so definitely as not to injure the teacher's influence. Community health and civic biology when taught in the same school seem to overlap, and yet with the cooperation of the teachers one course should help the other. Civic biology goes to the health department and observes the microscopic analysis of sputum and the multiplication of bacteria in milk. Community health considers the economic loss caused by deaths from impure milk. Civic biology explains what is meant by "death from preventable causes"; community health shows the scandalous carelessness of a social system that permits 650,000 deaths from preventable causes every year in the United States, and then points out civic remedies.

Each of the following topics has been selected with due reference to the foregoing requirements. The logical and complete presentation of civics must wait until a later period in the education of the pupil. In this earlier period the immediate needs of the pupil receive special consideration:

1. Community health.
2. Public recreation.
3. Public utilities, such as roads, street cars, water, gas, and electricity.
4. Family income.
5. Savings banks and life insurance.
6. Poverty, its prevention, and the care of the poor.
7. Crime and reform; juvenile courts.
8. Classification of population with reference to age, sex, occupation, and nationality.
9. Urban life.

10. Rural life.
11. Conservation of the soil and of other natural resources.
12. Human rights versus property rights.
13. Impulsive action of mobs and selfish conservatism of tradition.
14. Social phases of education and the larger use of the schoolhouse.
15. Government machinery.

SURVEY OF VOCATIONS.

The second part of the first unit is a survey of vocations. The following statement, prepared by Mr. William A. Wheatley, a member of this committee, describes his experience with such a course under his supervision:

While the English, biology, and possibly physiography can and should contribute to a knowledge of vocations, a survey can be adequately accomplished only by making it a distinct subject.

In the half-year course in vocations in the Middletown (Conn.) High School there are studied by the boys 50 of the common vocations, including professions, trades, and other life occupations. A similar course, but somewhat briefer, is being organized for the girls.

In studying each of the vocations we touch upon its healthfulness, remuneration, value to society, and social standing, as well as upon natural qualifications, general education, and special preparation necessary for success. Naturally we investigate at first hand as many as possible of the vocations found in our city and vicinity. We have each pupil bring from home first-hand and, as far as practicable, "inside" facts concerning his father's occupation. We also invite local professional men, engineers, business men, manufacturers, mechanics, and agriculturists to present informally and quite personally the salient features of their various vocations. However, strange as it has seemed to us, these experts, not being teachers, often miss the mark completely, and present phases of their work of little interest or value to the pupils, although each speaker has had explained to him carefully beforehand the purpose of the course in vocations and specifically just what is desired in his particular address.

We have found the following works of most value in our work: "What Shall Our Boys Do for a Living?" by Chas. F. Wingate; Doubleday, Page & Co.; "Careers for the Coming Men," a collection of articles, the Sakisfield Publishing Co.; "What Shall I Do?" by J. S. Stoddard; Hinds, Noble & Eldridge; and the general catalogue of the International Correspondence Schools, of Scranton, Pa.

We are confident that this course, besides being intrinsically interesting to the pupils, actually gives them greater respect for all kinds of honorable work, helps them later to choose more wisely their life work, convinces them of the absolute necessity for a thorough preparation before entering any vocation, and holds to the end of the high school many who otherwise would have dropped out early in the race. These results have actually been realized in our practice. Should we then apologize when we ask that this branch be given as much time as commercial arithmetic or commercial geography, or one-half the time given to algebra, or one-sixth the time given to German or French, or finally one-eighth the time given to a course in Latin? A place for it must be found in all our high schools, which are the people's elementary colleges.

HISTORY.

The committee is now prepared to submit only two provisional suggestions on history, namely, first, the conception of history according to which pupils should be instructed; and second, the division of the field of history into three unit courses. This conception of history is so well stated by Prof. James Harvey Robinson, a member of this committee, that we quote from his article in the Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society, May–June, 1911.

The older traditional type of historical writing was narrative in character. Its chief aim was to tell a tale or story by setting forth a succession of events and introducing the prominent actors who participated in them. It was a branch of polite literature, competing with the drama and fiction, from which, indeed, it differed often only in the limitations which the writer was supposed to place upon his fancy.

In order to appreciate the arbitrary nature of the selection of historic facts offered in these standard textbooks and treatises, let us suppose that a half dozen alert and well-trained minds had never happened to be biased by the study of any outline of history and had, by some happy and incredible fortune, never perused a "standard" historical work. Let us suppose that they had nevertheless learned a good deal about the past of mankind directly from the vast range of sources that we now possess, both literary and archæological. Lastly, let us assume that they were all called upon to prepare independently a so-called general history, suitable for use in the higher schools. They would speedily discover that there was no single obvious rule for determining what should be included in their review of the past. Having no tradition to guide them, each would select what he deemed most important for the young to know of the past. Writing in the twentieth century, they would all be deeply influenced by the interests and problems of the day. Battles and sieges and the courts of kings would scarcely appeal to them. Probably it would occur to none of them to mention the battle of Issus, the Samnite wars, the siege of Numantia by the Romans, the advent of Hadrian, the Italian enterprises of Otto I, the six wives of Henry VIII, or the invasion of Holland by Louis XIV. It is tolerably safe to assume that none of these events, which are recorded in practically all of our manuals to-day, would be considered by any one of our writers as he thought over all that men had done, and thought, and suffered, and dreamed through thousands of years. All of them would agree that what men had known of the world in which they lived, or had thought to be their duty, or what they made with their hands, or the nature and style of their buildings, public and private, would any of them be far more valuable to rehearse than the names of their rulers and the conflicts in which they engaged. Each writer would accordingly go his own way. He would look back on the past for explanations of what he found most interesting in the present and would endeavor to place his readers in a position to participate intelligently in the life of their own time. The six manuals, when completed, would not only differ greatly from one another, but would have little resemblance to the *fable convenue* which is currently accepted as embodying the elements of history.

Obviously history must be rewritten, or, rather, innumerable current issues must be given their neglected historic background. Our present so-called histories do not ordinarily answer the questions we would naturally and insistently

put to them. When we contemplate the strong demand that women are making for the right to vote we ask ourselves, "How did the men win the vote?" The historians we consult have scarcely asked themselves that question, and so do not answer it. We ask, "How did our courts come to control legislation in the exceptional and extraordinary manner they do?" We look in vain in most histories for a reply. No one questions the inalienable right of the historian to interest himself in any phase of the past that he chooses. It is only to be wished that a greater number of historians had greater skill in hitting upon those phases of the past which serve us best in understanding the most vital problems of the present.

The three unit courses in history that the committee intends to outline are as follows:

(1) European history to 1600 or 1700 (including English history and colonial American history).

(2) European history since 1600 or 1700 (including contemporary civilizations).

(3) United States history since 1760 (including current events).

The best method of abbreviating the work in history to two units, when such abbreviation is necessary, is still an open question.

The plan of the committee is to refer each period to some historian who has given evidence of "skill in hitting upon those phases of the past which serve us best in understanding the most vital problems of the present," with the request that he give us a statement of such phases as are useful to the high-school boy and girl. This material will then be assembled, reviewed, and referred to high-school teachers of history for trial.

ECONOMICS.

[Statement prepared by Dr. Henry R. Burch, a member of this committee.]

The study of that part of economics usually referred to as production and consumption should constitute the major part of the course in economics for high-school students. While the subjects of exchange, distribution, and economic programs should each be given proper emphasis, it is clear that, because of its essentially concrete and objective character, the study of production and consumption forms the natural basis of an introductory course in economics. It is equally obvious that distribution, because so theoretical and abstract, is the most difficult phase of economics for high-school students to grasp.

The concepts of land, labor, and capital should be vitalized by constant reference to the part they play in national life. Under "land" should be treated such topics as the agricultural, mineral, and water resources of the United States, while proper references should be made at appropriate points to the problems of conservation, irrigation, and reclamation. Similarly, under "labor," such concrete topics as immigration, child labor, women workers, and

industrial risks and accidents should be treated. Under "capital" should be included, in addition to the necessary theoretical discussion on the subject, related concrete problems regarding banks, corporations, trusts, and the effects of increased capital on social happiness.

This study of land, labor, and capital should be followed by an analysis of the productive system of the United States. Here we may trace the development of American civilization along agricultural, industrial, and commercial lines. The present status of American agriculture, with its remarkable possibilities for future development through soil conservation and agricultural science, should be grasped by the pupil. The great industrial structure that has been built up by means of inventions, large-scale production, trust organization, and labor cooperation should be outlined. Finally, the pupil should be led to appreciate the wonderful advance in transportation facilities and the attempts to keep the activities of corporations within the control of the Government.

Concrete economic problems should be taken up wherever possible in connection with that factor of production to which it is most closely related. A subject like trusts, for example, may be treated under the caption of "business organization." The development of the trust from the early forms of business organization through the corporation to the holding company may be described and followed by a more careful study of the details of trust organization. Its advantages and disadvantages may be pointed out and the efforts of the Government to regulate its activities described. If time permits (as in a commercial course, where a year instead of a term is often devoted to the study of economics), the problem may be studied more thoroughly by investigating the actual workings of some well-known organization, such as the United States Steel Corporation or the Standard Oil Co. of New Jersey.

In presenting other phases of economics, the same general treatment should be observed. Every effort should be made to have the pupil realize the importance of investigation and comprehension of the industrial world of which he is a part. For example, under "exchange," it is not so important that the high-school pupil understand the laws of value and price as that he shall know the effect of monopoly on price, the actual functions of money and credit, or the operations of the modern promoter and financier.

In discussing the distribution of wealth, theory necessarily plays an important part. Even here, however, theories may be made real. Constant applications of the theories of rent, interest, profit, and wages are essential to their comprehension by the pupil of high-school age. Diagrams and illustrations from everyday life should be employed. The statement of those theories should be so simple and

their application so frequent as to dispel the atmosphere of mere theory.

In concluding a study of elementary economics, the pupil should be acquainted with some of the more important programs of economic reform at present engaging the attention of social workers. The student should, at the end of the course, be in a position to see just what social workers, single taxers, socialists, organized-labor advocates, and government-regulation enthusiasts are trying to accomplish. The ideal of individual and social welfare will in this manner be impressed upon his mind and serve as an inspiration for his life work.

CIVIC THEORY AND PRACTICE.

In comparison with community civics, this course stresses the formal elements of civic thought. One of the main purposes here is to help the pupil determine the mutual relation of the forces and events which he has been observing and studying throughout his school days. Such works as Wilson's "State," Bryce's "American Commonwealth," and Beard's "American Government and Politics" will give the pupil a deeper insight into the social actions of mankind. A few titles from two of these books indicate the type of knowledge that should be obtained by the pupil:

Wilson's "State." Chapter I. Early forms of government; government rested first on kinship; early history of the family; kinship and religion; reign of custom; competition of customs; individual iniative and imitation. Chapter XIII. The nature and forms of government; government rests on authority and force; true nature of government; new character of society. Chapter XIV. Law; its nature and development. Chapter XVI. The objects of government; society greater than government; the state and education.

Bryce's "American Commonwealth." Chapter 4. Nature of the Federal Government; the House at work. Chapter 5. The committees of the House. Chapter 9. General observations on Congress. Chapter 20. Direct legislation by the people. Chapter 39. The working of city government. Chapter 54. Composition of political parties; appendix, the lobby. Chapter 62. How the machine works. Chapter 68. The war against bossdom. Chapter 74. Types of American statesmen. Chapter 78. How public opinion rules. Chapter 84. The tyranny of the majority. Chapter 97. Woman suffrage. Chapters 98–99. The fault and strength of American democracy.

Frequent use will be made of well-written reports published by public and private organizations on such topics as sanitation, housing, pure food, child labor, recreation, and social education. Emphasis on the formal study must not be permitted to crowd out the observation of actual conditions nor such experience in social service as the time will permit.

The following tentative outline is offered only as indicating the points of emphasis. It is given also in response to demands for

immediate aid by teachers who desire to reorganize their work in civics.

I. Government and public welfare.

Fully two-thirds of the time should be devoted to this topic. Here the pupil studies those activities of the Government which influence his life more frequently than those ordinarily classified under the next topic—Government machinery. Here he learns how broad is the work of the Government and how intimately it influences the life of the individual. The real meaning of government dawns upon the pupil when he learns of the roads, of the weather, of mineral resources, of labor and commercial conditions, and of many other things too numerous to mention. Nongovernmental organizations engaged in work for social improvement should be discussed in connection with the governmental functions to which their efforts are most closely related.

The following topics are suggested: (1) Health and sanitation: Housing, pure food and milk, sewerage, waste disposal, contagious diseases, statistics, medical inspection of school children, health crusades. (2) Education. (3) Recreation. (4) Charities. (5) Correction, juvenile courts, reform schools, etc. (6) Public utilities: Transportation, light, telephone, telegraph, postal system, water, etc. (7) City planning: Sanitation and beauty.

II. Government machinery.

Local, State, National; legislative, executive, judicial; courts and legal processes; election and political activities, including such topics as initiative and referendum.

III. The development of government.

Social psychology, democracy, the family, and other social organizations.

THOMAS JESSE JONES,
Chairman.
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C.

The other members of the committee on social studies are as follows:

William Anthony Aery, secretary of the committee, Hampton, Va.
J. Lynn Barnard, School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia, Pa.
H. M. Barrett, principal East High School, Denver, Colo.
F. L. Boyden, principal of academy, Deerfield, Mass.
E. C. Branson, State normal school, Athens, Ga.
Henry R. Burch, Manual Training High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Alexander E. Cance, Massachusetts Agricultural College, Amherst, Mass.
Miss Jessie C. Evans, William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
F. P. Goodwin, Woodward High School, Cincinnati, Ohio.
Miss Blanche Hazard, High School of Practical Arts, Boston, Mass.
A. B. Howe, high school, Plainfield, N. J.

J. Herbert Low, Manual Training High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.
W. H. Mace, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y.
William T. Morrey, Bushwick High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.
John Pettibone, principal of high school, New Milford, Conn.
James Harvey Robinson, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
W. A. Wheatley, superintendent of schools, Middletown, Conn.

STATEMENT OF CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON NATURAL SCIENCE.

THE OPPORTUNITY OF THE COMMITTEE.

Existing conditions in the teaching of science in secondary schools appear to be favorable for the work of the committee on natural science. Notable progress has been made in determining the sciences which should find place in the program of the high school. Adequate standards of scope and of thoroughness have been established. Progress has been made in the methods and in providing equipment and teaching force. With the recognition of the sciences as essential parts of the high-school program have come ample equipment and adequate teaching force. No high school to-day is considered worthy the name unless it has laboratory facilities. From this vantage ground teachers of science in secondary schools are in a position to study their opportunities and to outline programs for realizing them.

Certain defects of science courses in content and in methods are becoming increasingly apparent. In some respects science teaching is not as closely related to the environment and experience of the pupil to-day as it was a quarter century ago. With the elaboration of apparatus and the increased attention to quantitative methods there has come an aloofness from the experience of everyday life, so that the pupil may secure a high standing in physics, chemistry, or biology without necessarily gaining an understanding of their applications. Moreover, teachers in science in some instances overemphasize the importance of formal and fixed procedure and, as a result, are not alert to utilize new opportunities.

The failure to adapt science instruction to the real needs of boys and girls has resulted in lack of interest on the part of the pupils and, in many schools, altogether too small a percentage of the pupils elect science courses. It is obvious that science teaching will profit greatly when the experience of instructors in many high schools becomes common property. Interesting and fruitful experiments are being conducted, the results of which are full of suggestion, and one function of this committee is to present a statement of such experiments.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE COMMITTEE.

In organizing this committee it seemed desirable to recognize the following courses in science and to assign the consideration of each of these to a special committee: (1) Introductory or first-year science. This is also known as general or elementary science. (2) Physics. (3) Chemistry. (4) Geography. (5) Biology, including botany, zoology, and physiology.

The following persons have agreed to act as chairmen: Introductory science—Prof. J. F. Woodhull, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York. Physics—Prof. C. R. Mann, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. Chemistry—Prof. C. R. Elliot, Normal School, Carbondale, Ill. Geography—Prof. Richard E. Dodge, Teachers' College, New York. Biology—James E. Peabody, Morris High School, New York City.

Some doubt exists as to whether the committee on science should include within its study the application of science in such practical arts as agriculture and household arts. Possibly this field of science instruction in the high school may be considered by the committees charged with reporting on these two subjects.

THE PLAN OF WORK.

At the meeting of the committee held in Philadelphia on March 1, 1913, the following plan was adopted:

Each committee is, in the first instance, to define the aims of its particular science as a high-school study. These aims are to be stated primarily in terms of what each individual pupil should secure in appreciation and in power, and secondarily in terms of knowledge and information.

It is of the utmost importance that the pupil should gain power to apply the facts and principles of science and to interpret natural phenomena. For this reason the teacher of science should draw largely from material found in the environment and should by no means confine attention to the statements in the textbook or to the laboratory exercises. The work in science should be so organized as to lead the pupil to acquire skill in manipulating apparatus and in dealing intelligently with facts and phenomena.

As one result of the high-school work in any science, the pupil should increase his store of general information and become interested in reading books on science and in studying phenomena and almost instinctively approach the facts of nature and of industry from the scientific standpoint. It is obvious that in organizing science courses careful attention must be paid to the maturity of the pupil. Work that appeals to the boy or girl of 13 or 14 is not of a nature likely to interest a pupil in the upper classes of the high school, and the converse is equally true.

In addition to the results of science teaching upon the development of the individual, the committee should consider in what ways science instruction may contribute to the well-being and progress of the community. By selecting material for study from the industries of the town or city and by acquainting the pupil with local application of physics, chemistry, and biology the science teacher can develop interest in and promote intelligence regarding community activities. A pupil thus trained should be a better citizen because his habit of mind will lead him to apply the criteria of science to community affairs.

When each committee has determined the aims of science teaching in terms of the gain to the individual pupil and of community progress and welfare, then it should next select the material to be utilized. Each committee should determine what facts and generalizations should be memorized by every pupil. Each committee should also indicate main lines of general reading and of observation, so that the pupil shall be informed in a large way on the scope of any given science and shall show an intelligent interest in current reading relating to science, particularly in its applications to industry and community welfare, including the safeguarding of public health.

Inasmuch as a most valuable part of science work consists in experiments and exercises conducted by the pupil, each committee should prepare a list of projects and exercises. Such projects and exercises may be classified in two divisions:

(1) Those so essential to an understanding and comprehension of the science that they should be performed by every pupil in the class.

(2) Those that may properly be performed by individual pupils by reason of personal aptitude and special interests.

The distinction between project and exercise may be stated as follows: An exercise is a piece of work done in the laboratory, while a project is the study of some phenomenon or contrivance outside the classroom and where the pupil, as a rule, in connection with this study constructs some useful device. In addition to projects and exercises set by the teacher, pupils should be asked to bring to class problems gathered from their own experience. All work in every science should be closely related to the experience of the pupil.

Each committee should further keep in mind both the limitations and the special opportunities of the small high school. The work in the high school may review, but should not duplicate, that done in the elementary school. Each committee should also prepare lists of reference books and other lines of reading to be used in high schools.

Inasmuch as the aims of science teaching are to be stated in the first place in terms of the growth of the pupil in power and in appreciation, correct methods are of vital importance. It is much

easier to assign lessons from a text or to follow a prescribed program of laboratory exercises than to constantly and continually adapt and apply both material and methods to the real needs of pupils and to utilize illustrations found in the environment. The methods should be described with sufficient definition and in such detail as to aid a comparatively inexperienced teacher, while at the same time the teacher should be encouraged to think for himself and to initiate methods of his own. When one breaks away from a textbook or from a definite list of laboratory exercises there is danger that the instruction may fail in thoroughness, with resultant lack of respect and regard by pupils for the subject. It is probable that each committee will find it desirable to outline a number of model lessons, each illustrating some method. These model lessons may well illustrate how each of the various aims of science instruction may be attained.

The consensus of opinion of the committee at the conference in Philadelphia was that a survey should be made of existing conditions and practices. Apart from the value of the information thus secured the committee will at the outset come into cooperative relations with science teachers throughout the country. Continued progress in teaching science in our high schools is to be determined very largely by the extent to which teachers in this subject cooperate, in order that conclusions gained as the result of experience and experiment may become known to all.

The committee can also be a means of communication between high-school teachers in science and those who are engaged in the practice of training such teachers. Departments of education in colleges may be informed on the aims and methods of science teaching and thus be enabled to adapt their courses to the real needs of the high schools in their field. By this service the committee can indirectly exercise a most effective influence in advancing the standards of science instruction.

Tentative conclusions should be submitted to the actual test of schoolroom conditions; here, again, an opportunity for cooperation on a large scale will be afforded. As a corollary to this statement it may be said that the work of this committee will not be completed for several years; in fact, it will probably be desirable that, when a given membership of the committee has achieved certain results, the personnel should change in order that those who are qualified to proceed with other phases of the work may be called into service.

WILLIAM ORR, *Chairman.*

FORD BUILDING, *Boston.*

The organization of the committee on natural sciences is not yet completed.

STATEMENT OF CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON ANCIENT LANGUAGES.

THE STATUS OF LATIN IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS—QUESTIONS, CRITICISMS, SUGGESTIONS.

The committee on ancient languages has proposed for answer, or at least for discussion, such questions as these: What is the present status of Latin in the public high schools? In the private schools? Is Latin losing ground, gaining, or merely holding its own? If it is losing ground, what are the principal causes of the decline? If there has been a falling off in the relative number of pupils studying Latin, are the causes to be found in the intrinsic difficulty of the subject, unwise choice of materials, ill-adapted pupils, faulty methods, poorly prepared teachers, crowded curricula, rivalry of modern foreign languages and of the so-called practical subjects, changing college-entrance requirements, narrow or mistaken aims of Latin teachers, changing estimate of educational values, social and economic conditions? If these are the main causes of the decline, are there effective remedies available? If so, what are the remedies? Shall we encourage the great mass of those entering high school to begin Latin, or shall we advocate the policy of limiting the numbers to the ablest pupils? If either plan is adopted, are our present courses, subject matter, and methods best adapted to make the subject attractive and useful to the children who take it? Facts, suggestions, personal experiences, constructive and destructive criticism will be welcomed.

We of the committee believe that Latin is not only one of the most effective educational instruments for general culture, but that it is as well one of the most practical subjects in the curricula of secondary schools. We believe that this assertion is capable of convincing proof. Much work has already been done to demonstrate the value of Latin. There is much more yet to be done. For example, we Latin teachers claim, and for good reasons, that our pupils gain excellent training in English from their Latin studies. Why not attempt to prove this by finding out some of the actual facts? A comparison of the English records of a few thousand Latin pupils with similar records of non-Latin pupils of the same grade for a period of three or four years would establish, at least in some measure, the truth or falsity of our claim. Investigations along similar lines might show what relation the study of Latin bears to success in other subjects.

In various schools throughout the country experiments are constantly made, both in subject matter and in method. The committee invites all innovators, experimenters, and pioneers to make reports of successes and of failures. Some are trying the direct method; some

are using the spoken language, wholly or in part, in recitations; some have discovered various ingenious devices for arousing and maintaining interest and for securing greater efficiency. Others have experimented with new materials and with new uses of old materials. Closer correlation with English and other subjects is on trial. The so-called practical phases are receiving attention. The committee would like to know what has been done and is attempted.

Mr. A. I. Dotey, of the De Witt Clinton High School, New York City, recently made a comparative study of the scholarship records of 1,397 pupils for the first six months in high school. Approximately one-third of these pupils began with Latin, one-third with German, and one-third with French. The purpose of the study was to determine the place in scholarship held by each foreign language group. A detailed study revealed many important facts, all of which, if generally known, should encourage teachers of Latin. Only one of the broad generalizations need be mentioned: The Latin group holds first place in scholarship in every subject.

The writer made a similar study of two groups of pupils, of about 200 in each group. The first group elected Latin on entering high school; the second group, German. A comparison was made of success in English. The comparison was carried through three years—six terms. The Latin group was slightly more successful in English the first term, but the difference was not great enough to excite comment. In every succeeding term, however, the Latin group increased its lead over the German group, until in the sixth term the results in English averaged 20 per cent higher for the Latin group than for the German. Are such results typical? If they are, Latin teachers need have no hesitation in claiming that their subject is intensely practical. In the Stuyvesant High School, New York City, until matters of organization made it impracticable, the Latin boys did as much work in German, for example, in three years as the non-Latin pupils did in four, and often did the work better.

During the seven or eight months since its organization, the committee on ancient languages has held one meeting at Philadelphia. The chairman was present also at a preliminary general meeting in December. With a membership widely scattered, it has not been easy to get the views of the different members on any subject. The Philadelphia meeting helped to a somewhat better understanding of the aims and purposes of the committee. The urgent need of work along broad constructive lines was generally admitted. The same spirit of conservatism which for years has characterized the teaching of the classics still prevails even among members of the committee. This conservative spirit is proper and desirable. The

more radical members may need some check. They should be compelled to sustain the burden of proof when vital changes are proposed. That the time is ripe for a reformation, if not for a revolution, few deny. The responsibility rests with the Latin teachers, whether it be a reformation or a revolution.

Thoughtful teachers of the classics are beginning to suspect that some of the attacks directed against Latin are merited. But many teachers do not appear to see the threatening signs of the times. Some are indifferent through ignorance of the facts or through overconfidence. Perhaps they feel that the place of Latin in our scheme of education is so secure that there is no real cause for fear. To the committee this laissez faire attitude seems indefensible.

There are large numbers of teachers, classical and others, who deeply deplore the present-day attitude toward the classics and fear for their future in our educational system. Profound changes are taking place in our civic, social, industrial, and religious life. Our whole scheme of education, from primary school through university, is feeling the effects of these changes. The subjects and methods which were regarded most highly yesterday are discredited to-day, and the end is not yet.

The high schools have been slow to react to the stimulus of the times. The colleges are responsible in no small measure for this condition. The high school is not yet free from traditionalism and from the domination of college and university. The rigid entrance requirements still tend to cripple and limit the effectiveness of the high schools. In comparatively recent years colleges have developed the elective systems, so far as their own courses are concerned, but they have on the whole been slow to extend that policy to entrance requirements. But conditions are rapidly changing. The day is coming and is almost here when it will be generally recognized that the chief business of a public high school is to fit for life. The college in turn will recognize that this preparation for life is also the best preparation for college. The high schools belong to all the people and must serve the children of all the people. Whatever any considerable number of the people wish to have taught must be taught. If there is not a considerable number of people that wish their children to study a subject, very soon that subject will cease to be taught in our public high schools. In these democratic institutions every subject must stand or fall on its merits.

The fate of Latin lies in our own hands. Do we believe in the subject we teach? Do we believe that it deserves a place, and an important place, in our high schools? Latin lacks the novelty of some of the latest offerings. But time perfects and enriches some things. It should bring no discredit to the study of Latin that it has stood the schoolroom test of some 20 centuries. In the high

school course of the future what place will Latin take? What are the aims of Latin teaching? We Latin teachers must work out the correct answers to these questions, or others less qualified to decide will answer them for us in a way distasteful to us and injurious to the cause of sound education.

We have just asked ourselves, What are the aims of Latin teaching? The following are some of the aims which seem worth while: To enrich the English vocabulary, both by the addition of new words and particularly by a more perfect mastery and clear understanding of many of the words already in use; to develop an appreciation of word, phrase, and clause relations; to teach clearness and accuracy of expression, both oral and written; to develop habits of industry and application; to make the pupil an intelligent critic of his own oral and written speech and that of others; to lay a good foundation for the study of English and of other modern languages; to read some of the great Latin masterpieces; "to give a wider view of life through familiarity with a great civilization remote from the present, both in place and time; 'in the cool, calm air of noncontemporaneous events.'"

Many of the results of the successful teaching of Latin just mentioned are, so to speak, by-products. It is worthy of remark that these so-called by-products of the study of Latin—the illumination of an English word, of a grammatical principle, or of a fundamental law of language, the causal remark that throws a suggestive side light upon some vital fact of history, of law, of religious and social custom, and upon civilization in general—are the things which cling in the memory long after one has lost the ability to translate a passage from Cicero or correctly to classify a subjunctive or an ablative.

Few who are really competent to form intelligent judgments with reference to the matter would attempt to refute the claim so generally put forward by teachers of Latin, viz, that Latin offers the most effective way of teaching the fundamentals of English grammar or of the grammar of most other modern European languages. Formal grammar is, to the majority of pupils, a distasteful if not a profitless study. The results obtained are by no means commensurate with the time and effort spent. Modern educational theory and practice tend more and more to subordinate this study in our high schools. Most English teachers whose opinions the writer has asked declare that the difficulties of English grammar are much lessened, if they do not entirely disappear in the case of pupils who study Latin. In these days of crowded cirricula children who are studying Latin should be excused from formal English grammar and from formal study in their English classes of formation and derivation of English words.

It is one of the traditions of classical study that translation from Latin and Greek is a most valuable training in English expression. So far as the earlier years of secondary teaching are concerned, it is scarcely more than a tradition. It is not fair, however, to lay all or even a large fraction of the blame at the door of the teacher. Under the conditions which ordinarily prevail there is small opportunity for such training in the first year. Isolated words, phrases, and short, detached sentences which have practically no bearing on the interests of boys and girls or on the interests of anybody else afford very narrow scope for training in vigor and clearness of expression. In the second year the difficulties have been multiplied, for an author is read whose works contain all sorts of linguistic snares for the unwary. In order to translate into clear and idiomatic English, one must combine in himself the rare qualities of an accomplished Latin scholar with the powers of expression of a master of English.

The first, as well as the second year's work, is dull and difficult because we insist upon reading Cæsar in the second year. Elaborate analyses are made of the vocabulary and syntax of Cæsar, and practically all beginning books are crammed with these "essentials." The work of the first year is planned, not with reference to the capacities and interests of children, but with reference to the vocabulary and syntax of Cæsar. If the children succeed by heroic efforts in thoroughly mastering a "first year book," which, the editor declares, "fits for Cæsar," they are destined to disappointment. Early in the second year they find that they are not fitted to read Cæsar. Even if pupils were able able to read the Gallic War with some degree of ease, it would be a pity to keep boys and girls of 13 and 14 plodding along on Cæsar's Annals for a year. Even the most fascinating story would grow dull if we had to read 10 or 20 lines per day for 200 days, and not everyone finds Cæsar fascinating. If Latin literature, ancient, mediæval, and modern, has nothing more appropriate to offer our children for the second year than the Gallic War, some gifted lover of Latin and of children ought to write, or translate, stories which in content and difficulty shall appeal to the interests and fit the capacities of young people. Latin does not wholly lack such materials.

The subjects for reading should be short and varied. Let us imitate our confrères of the modern languages, who do not make their pupils read dry military and political histories the second year or any other year, but offer bright, entertaining, and varied selections which, while not too difficult, entertain and at the same time instruct. To students in the modern languages, grammar is the drudgery which is relieved by the reading of appropriate texts. To students of Latin, the grammar is no less difficult, but the selections for reading are so

much harder than the grammar that the situation found in the modern languages is reversed.

It is easier to point out defects than to propose effective remedies. The writer does not deceive himself by thinking that the suggestions he is about to make are original or altogether untested by actual experience. If they merely point in the right direction or, failing in that, set others to thinking and working on the problem, the purpose of this paper will be realized.

The writer is of the opinion that the reading of easy Latin should be begun immediately or after a very few introductory lessons. These introductory lessons should aim to supply the minimum of knowledge necessary to an understanding of the very simplest Latin with which the reading begins. From the outset an accurate knowledge of the inflectional forms used should be insisted upon. But these forms should not be learned in parrot fashion, quite apart from their uses. (Right here the direct method might be tried.) The formal paradigms should follow, not precede, the actual use of the forms in translation. A large number of easy oral and, later, written exercises bearing upon and illuminating the story or fable which is read should fix these forms and the necessary syntax firmly in mind. Only so much syntax of moods and cases should be attempted as is absolutely necessary for proper understanding of the easy text read. Relatively few topics of syntax would be studied, emphasis being placed upon the mastery of the forms, the vocabulary, and the art of reading. Correct method of reading, as well as translating, should be insisted upon from the beginning. Words, forms, and principles of syntax should be learned, because needed and when needed in the reading of the text.

It is a pedagogical blunder—fatal to the interest of success of all except the relatively few who have the type of mind that takes pleasure in handling, naming, and putting together the dry bones of the skeleton of a language—to attempt to teach grammatical forms and principles weeks and months before there will be any real occasion to use them. This method has been abandoned by progressive and successful teachers of modern languages, but the teachers of the classical languages, as a rule, still cling to the old, formal method which was unquestionably well adapted to the disciplinary theory of education which prevailed a quarter of a century ago.

The text read, beginning with the simplest and easiest Latin, should, so far as possible, have an interesting and rich content. The fables and myths in the early period of study should be so selected that they would not only provide excellent training in reading Latin, but furnish as well a fund of legendary and mythological lore which would be of great value in the understanding and appreciation of

English literature. If properly taught, the interest in the reading matter would be so great and the relation of the grammatical work to that reading matter would be so direct and clear that an adequate motive for mastering the necessary technicalities of grammar would be supplied.

Now, we may give in the first year that training in accuracy and clearness of expression with which we credit our subject. The translation of the fables, myths, and the like furnishes unequalled opportunities for such training. The teacher may use all his skill in encouraging his pupils to turn the easy, fascinating stories into good English. These same miniature Latin classics may well suggest fruitful topics for oral class discussion. Under wise and enthusiastic direction the boys and girls will be encouraged to write paragraphs on themes suggested by the reading or to read in English additional myths and stories and to talk and write about them.

Without taking issue for or against the so-called direct method of teaching Latin, the writer does not hesitate to affirm from his own experience that a five-minute class exercise in oral Latin in question and answer between teacher and pupils will put life and interest into the dullest recitation. A few minutes' conversation in Latin in easy sentences about some phase of the story which is being read will be invigorating to both pupils and teacher, and not beyond the abilities of anyone who has any right to teach the subject. There is no quicker way of impressing words and constructions upon pupils' minds. Such oral work, if done intelligently with a definite end in view, not merely stimulates interest, but gives to the pupils the feeling that they are gaining a real mastery over the language.

The pupil should be encouraged to write short original paragraphs in Latin upon some topic about which he is reading. From time to time the teacher should prepare a short anecdote, repeat it in Latin to his class, discuss it both in Latin and in English until the content and vocabulary are familiar, and then request the class to write out and bring in their Latin versions of it for the next day. Some especially appropriate anecdotes or fables should be memorized by the pupils and then used as a basis for oral and written exercises. Pen-and-ink or pencil sketches to illustrate a striking character or incident in the story would give variety and interest to the work.

English grammar should have some part in every lesson. Comparisons and contrasts should constantly be made. The wise teacher will appeal to the pupils' knowledge of English to make clear some point in Latin, and will take advantage of every opportunity the Latin offers to emphasize or clarify the structure or idiom of the English. Whether these similarities and contrasts between the structure of the two languages are consciously in the thoughts of pupil and teacher or not, every well-taught lesson in Latin is a lesson in

English grammar, a lesson also in the universal principles of grammatical relations which underlie most of the modern European languages.

The writer of this paper would be the last person to advocate the policy of attempting to make Latin easy. He is well aware that if, in our desire to popularize the subject, we should devise a course that could be mastered without vigorous effort and continued application, the value of the subject as an effective instrument of education would be greatly reduced. But, on the other hand, there is also the danger that we shall make the subject so difficult, as compared with other subjects in our secondary schools, that our prospective pupils, when they learn of the great "mortality" among those who take Latin, will hesitate to elect a subject in which the percentage of failure is so high. The writer does not hesitate to affirm his belief, which is based upon long experience, that in view of the extended range of secondary-school subjects we Latinists are demanding more than our fair share of the pupils' time and effort. The result of the heavy demands is that fewer pupils are electing Latin, because they feel that such a choice will mean the sacrifice of other subjects of study which appear to them and their parents more essential than a "dead language."

If Latin is to maintain the high place which it has occupied in our scheme of education for so many generations, the teaching of it must be more vital. In content, scope, and method our courses must be adapted to the ability and to the interests of the children. We have been too busy trying to fit the children to the subject, rather than the subject to the children. Speaking broadly, in shaping our courses in Latin in secondary schools, we have approached our problems with college-entrance requirements and the interests of Latin chiefly in mind. Some of the tenderest-hearted of our guild have padded and smoothed the Procrustean bed a little here and there, but it is the same old bed upon which we force our victims to lie. If the subjects of our ministrations writhe and groan, we take their sufferings as evidence that our methods are effective, fortifying ourselves with the assurance that Latin is a "disciplinary" subject, and that "all chastening seemeth for the present to be not joyous but grievous, yet afterward it yieldeth peaceable fruit unto them that have been exercised thereby." We have set an arbitrary standard of attainment and have selected our subject matter with an almost incredible indifference to the psychology of adolescent girlhood and boyhood.

It is the chairman's dearest hope that his committee, during the coming year, while considering the aims, course of study, and methods, may have an eye single to the highest interests of the child. In planning the work of the first two years, at least, one should put

vaguely remember, if not entirely forget, that there are colleges and college-entrance requirements. All of us Latin teachers should constantly remind ourselves that, like the Sabbath, Latin was made for man, not man for Latin.

In closing, the chairman wishes to accept full responsibility for the contents of this paper. While he is confident that a majority of his committee agree with him in general and in particular, it is only fair to state that there are some members who are not in full sympathy with some of the views herein expressed.

WALTER EUGENE FOSTER, *Chairman.*

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New York City.

The other members of the committee on ancient languages are as follows:

Charles E. Bennett, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.
Mary L. Breene, Peabody High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Walter A. Edwards, Normal School, Los Angeles, Cal.
Calvin Hanna, principal Oak Park High School, Chicago, Ill.
Nancy Hewitt, principal Albuquerque High School, Albuquerque, N. Mex.
John C. Kirtland, Phillips Exeter Academy, Exeter, N. H.
Gonzalez Lodge, Teachers' College, New York, N. Y.
David MacKenzie, principal Central High School, Detroit, Mich.
William B. Owen, principal Chicago Teachers' College, Chicago, Ill.
Henry Carr Pearson, Horace Mann School, New York N. Y.
J. F. Smith, superintendent of schools, Findlay, Ohio.
F. W. Thomas, principal of high school, Santa Monica, Cal.
Henry Daniel Wild, Williams College, Williamstown, Mass.

STATEMENT OF CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON MODERN LANGUAGES.

A preliminary draft has been submitted to the members of the committee, and in general it has met with their approval. This statement has been made by the chairman with the help of suggestions made by mail by various members of the committee. There are undoubtedly many details in which different members of the committee would suggest changes.

ABSTRACT.

Service to the pupil determines the aims of instruction. Work must at all times be of value both to those who are to leave the class and to those who will continue in it. The aims of the first year are phonetic training, knowledge of the fundamental principles of language, and interest in the foreign nation whose language is studied. Pupils with neither taste nor capacity for studying a foreign language should drop it after the first year. Oral work and accurate

pronunciation should from the beginning receive the most careful attention. The method used depends somewhat on the equipment of the teacher, but it should train ear, eye, tongue, and hand.

The first texts should be of the simplest kind and should arouse an interest in the life of the foreign people. The work may include copying text, with minor variations of person, number, tense, etc.; writing from dictation; reading aloud; translation, oral and written, both from and into the foreign language; reproduction; paraphrasing; imitative and free composition. Texts should be modern in style, not too long, distinctively national in character, adapted to the age, sex, and thought of the pupil, and they should give something worth remembering. Grammar should be the handmaid of the text, which should be the center of all instruction. In translation, thought should intervene between the two languages, being derived from the first and expressed by the second.

In proportion to the time allowed, modern-language instruction in our best schools is as good as that abroad, but we need more good teachers and an opportunity for selected pupils to begin the study of a foreign language under competent instruction in the grades. The colleges should give especial attention to preparing teachers of modern languages, and the cities should grant Sabbatical years with half pay to teachers who will go to the expense of study abroad.

I. AIMS.

Service to the pupil is the great object of the work of this committee. In accordance therewith, valid aims are defined as those which seek to meet the needs of real pupils as we actually find them, and a satisfactory method must give such pupils, in proper sequence and quantity, what they need to receive. We must so arrange the work that at every point it may be profitable for those taking it, giving to all a general appreciation of the subject, attaining for all who continue the language beyond the introductory stage satisfactory power in certain particulars, and securing a useful degree of skill for those by whom such skill may be needed. The first work should be so chosen that those who drop the subject early shall retain something of value for themselves while impeding as little as possible the progress of others who are laying the foundation for future study, and a determining factor in deciding the order of procedure should be the principle that the work that makes for skill not generally needed and difficult of attainment should be reserved for later study and for especially gifted pupils.

Certain features of modern language work may be eliminated at once from the list of reasonable aims for the pupil who expects to drop his language study early, either because he must leave school

or because his individual powers or lack of power make it advantageous for him to use his time in other ways. Such a pupil can expect neither to read nor to speak the language; a mere parrot-like knowledge that a German calls "die Tür," and a Frenchman "la porte," a thing known to the pupil as "the door," is likely to be soon forgotten and to have no value either "practical" or educational. He can not hope to gain either skill or power in most phases of the subject, and for him we must choose work in which the field is so restricted that diligent study for even a short time may secure some satisfactory achievement and in which the training received will extend to other interests and develop the child along lines not directly connected with the language itself. Yet this work must also be profitable for those who expect to go further, and must therefore be a good foundation for future advanced work.

Three aims of modern language instruction seem to meet perfectly these requirements, which at first appear so hard to reconcile. They are:

(1) To secure a reasonable degree of phonetic accuracy and lead the pupil to feel its importance.

For the child, speech has been a more or less unconscious process. With the study of a foreign language he should discover the necessity of making sounds and their formation the object of careful attention. He should gain thereby a conscious control of his speech organs; should develop his power to use them as he wills; should learn to feel the significance of sound distinctions, and to enunciate clearly whenever he speaks. The slovenly mumbling that so often passes for English speech sufficiently emphasizes the need of this.

(2) To teach precision in the use of words and to give a clear understanding of grammatical relations and of the common terms which state them, showing why such terms are necessary.

The child's own language has been so much a part of his very being that it is extremely difficult for him to look upon it as a proper object of study. The normal child feels competent, without any rules, to speak in a perfectly satisfactory way. And if well born and reared he ought to be. To learn to employ the terms of grammar seems to him a most unnecessary and foolish thing. After reading or hearing that John struck James, he gains no further information by being told that John is the subject of the sentence; and he can not conceive of any human being so stupid that he must be told that John is the subject before knowing which boy struck the other. When he knows offhand how words go together, why should he learn strange, odd-sounding terms to explain relations which to him need no explanation? That is the puzzling mystery which very often befogs the boy who "can't understand grammar." He is confused by the attempt to explain to him by mysterious vocables what

seems perfectly clear without any explanation. In the case of a foreign language the child comes easily to see the need and the use of grammar, if from the beginning it is made what it should be, the handmaid of the text.

Vagueness of the thought associated with a word is even more common than faulty enunciation. The study of the foreign language shows the importance of knowing the exact meaning of words and of using them with care.

(3) To stimulate the pupil's interest in the foreign nation, leading him to perceive that the strange sounds are but new ways of communicating thoughts quite like his own; showing him by the close resemblances in words and viewpoints that the German and the Frenchman are his kinsmen, with interests, ambitions, and hopes like his own; revealing to him that their tales can give him pleasure, their wisdom can enlighten him.

For every sort of pupil this work can be made profitable, and in most cases entertaining. Affording an excellent foundation for future study, it is valuable alike for the pupil who drops out early in the course and for him who is to make a specialty of language work. These aims, moreover, do not imply the completion of any definite amount of work before the child can profit by what he learns, nor do they require the application of any particular method. While keeping them constantly in mind, we may stress the substantive with the "natural" and the "picture and object" schools, or we may attack the verb first with the followers of Gouin and the "psychological" method. The same ends may be sought with a class that can rapidly acquire a large vocabulary and attain a considerable command of inflectional forms and with a class of immature beginners whose progress must be slow. The closest application to these aims is compatible with a very great variety in details of method.

The end of the first year should be marked by the elimination of those who are unprepared to continue modern language study in a somewhat serious and determined way. The most moderate achievement in learning a foreign language implies persistent application to tasks not wholly pleasant, alertness of mind and retentiveness of memory, the building of a unified structure, each part of which must rest on previous work well done. In a modern language such achievement must include at least the power to read an ordinary book rapidly, intelligently, and without too frequent recourse to the dictionary. Attainment short of this is practically useless, and the pupil who is not to reach this stage had better drop his French or German at the end of the first year and use his time for other things. In a well-rounded course satisfactory achievement should include also the ability to understand the foreign language when spoken distinctly and the ability to express simple thought orally or in writing. In

general, after the preliminary year, two years of further study will be needed for acceptable results.

In his fourth year of study the high-school pupil is mature enough and should have had experience enough in dealing with abstract notions to profit by a somewhat careful consideration of the fundamental principles of grammar and composition, as illustrated in both the foreign language and his own. Attention may be called to the literary quality of the texts read, and the development of an appreciation of good literature and of a taste therefor is a proper aim of general value.

The texts of the fourth year may be chosen to give particular power in the rapid reading of special material: Commercial texts and business correspondence for the pupil who expects to enter commercial life; scientific French or German for him who expects to go to a technical school. In general, however, the work will be merely a continuation and extension of that of the preceding two years, introducing more difficult texts and more rapid reading; adopting a more scholarly and critical attitude toward questions of grammar and style; making the foreign language largely, perhaps almost entirely, the language of the class; demanding more initiative and a larger independence on the part of the pupil, yet being ever mindful of Goethe's line, "Bedenkt ihr habet weiches Holz zu spalten."

In seeking to attain the special ends for which any subject is peculiarly well adapted, the real teacher will ever bear in mind those general aims that are indispensable in all teaching that is worthy to be called education. Habits of industry, concentration, acurate observation, intelligent discrimination, systematic arrangement and presentation, careful memorizing, independent thinking so far outweigh the advantages gained merely by knowing something about a particular topic that they are perhaps too generally assumed to be universal, and, like the air we breathe or the water we drink, are sometimes forgotten or neglected. The personality of the teacher and the manner in which he works, rather than the subject he teaches or the method he uses, will make for those elements which, after all, are the great objects of secondary education, the business of which is indeed to impart knowledge that is likely to be useful, but far more to develop in the child those tastes, powers, and habits that fit for happy efficient living.

II. METHOD.

Only one reasonable explanation can be given for the persistency of the conflict among different methods of teaching foreign languages. It is that each method which has won any considerable favor has in it elements of good, and has secured results which seemed desirable to those who used the method; indeed, we may perhaps

go further and say that the worst of a dozen methods, employed by a strong teacher with underlying purpose well in mind, will give a more valuable training and better results than any method when employed by an inferior teacher. It is probable, too, that one method is better than another for doing some things but less effective in securing a different end or ends, so that the aim which seems most important will determine the method to use in a particular case. Doubtless, too, the equipment of certain teachers makes it possible for them to work best with a method which a different teacher would not wisely choose. Instead, then, of trying to lay out in detail the "best method," we should consider various methods that have been found good, endeavor to see wherein their merit lies, and to decide what method seems especially well suited to various conditions and to different types of classes or teachers. In the Report of the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association of America (D. C. Heath & Co.), Section III, entitled "A critical review of methods of teaching," has well outlined the chief methods and their characteristic features; and we shall assume that the reader is familiar with that report, which has been the guide and standard of modern-language instruction in the United States. It is thought, however, that improved conditions make it now possible to take a somewhat more advanced position than was advisable in 1898.

Methods may be classified as "direct," which seek to eliminate the mother tongue, endeavoring from the beginning to associate directly the thought and the foreign expression; and "indirect," that base their work on the child's knowledge of his own language and depend largely on preliminary grammatical instruction, translation, and explanation in the vernacular. Few advocates of direct methods are now so extreme as to reject all use of the mother tongue; nor would any good teacher who uses in general an indirect method fail to employ many devices for getting direct association of thought and the foreign speech. The grammatical and the reading methods may be called indirect; the phonetic, which has grown into the "new" or "reform" (often now spoken of as "the direct" method), the Gouin or psychological, and the natural, Heness-Sauveur or Berlitz methods, may be called direct. A hard and fast line could scarcely be drawn, however. Some teachers who begin with a grammatical or a reading method use the foreign language largely in their later work, while many of the best exponents of the reform or of the Gouin methods do not hesitate to employ the mother tongue freely at first in stimulating the pupil to the thought desired.

As aims suitable for the first year we have mentioned phonetic accuracy, grammatical comprehension, and interest in the foreign nation. To secure the first a very large amount of oral drill is essential. It is necessary, moreover, that this drill aim at accuracy and

not at the slipshod approximations that make the results of some attempts to use a direct method as unsatisfactory from a phonetic as from a grammatical standpoint. As pupils grow older and their imitative faculties become less acute, more attention must be given to the vocal organs and to the theory of sound formation; the relations of sounds and the distinctions between them must be more carefully explained, and a larger amount of phonetic drill is required. Neglect of this is fatal. The unfortunates who are allowed to become fluent in ill-pronounced French or German never recover; their sound perceptions are blurred, instead of being educated; the only compensation is that they themselves are mercifully unconscious of the suffering which their vocal atrocities inflict upon others. The man trained by the grammatical method usually knows that he can not pronounce, and so does not attempt it; the badly trained victim of a superficial conversational method flays complacently the unhappy language. A teacher who can not pronounce well but is, unfortunately, compelled to teach does less harm, therefore, by omitting pronunciation as completely as possible than by teaching a pronunciation that is a bad habit likely to persist. Good teaching, however, implies a well-equipped teacher, and a good pronunciation is fundamental.

The care with which pronunciation is taught should extend to the English as well as to the French or German; the immediate result of the work will be well-spoken French or German, but the educational value in a wider sense should be an appreciation of the beauty of clearly enunciated, distinct speech in general, the habit of noticing sounds and inflections, and a desire to speak well.

For teaching pronunciation, some prefer phonetic texts, but a majority of our best teachers do not feel this to be necessary. Some would use them for French, but not for German or Spanish. Nothing like a course in phonetics should be attempted in teaching a foreign language in a high school, but, where mere imitation fails, a teacher with phonetic training can at times give briefly helpful directions for making certain sounds and for appreciating sound distinctions. There should be much distinct speaking by the teacher; repetition in unison and singly by the pupils; unwearying drill until the sounds are right and the swing of the word group well imitated. Most important are the vowels; consonants are more easily acquired. Separate sounds, syllables, words, and phrases must all be practiced. In time the foreign idiom should become the usual language of the class, and even seem a natural means of communication between teacher and pupil outside the class.

With the aim of accurate pronunciation always in mind, the particular material treated is relatively unimportant. As speedily and completely as possible, thought and sound should be directly joined, but whether the stimulus to the thought should be primarily an

object, a gesture, a picture, or a book, is a question that may well be left to the discretion of the teacher. The best practice is probably to employ, as far as time allows, every available means, separately and in combination, to impress permanently and together thought and sound, written sign and muscular movement. Ear and eye, tongue and hand, should be in constant interaction with the busy brain, each exciting and aiding the others. Undoubtedly a normal spelling makes for a wrong pronunciation no less in the foreign language than in our own, but until men adopt everywhere a phonetic alphabet and spelling we shall be obliged to associate words as sounded with their signs as normally printed or written, and it is a fair question when this association should begin. In teaching a foreign language, the sound should certainly come first; it should be practiced and repeated in connection with the thought until it is likely to be remembered, and then only is it safe to associate the word with the conventional spelling.

Whatever be the method employed, grammatical comprehension is demanded as soon as the words are grouped so as to express real thought. Fundamental concepts of action and actor, subject and object of a verb, adjectival and adverbial modifiers, the connectives of speech, various modes and times of action, etc., must be brought out with a clearness that in a child's mind is often absent, dormant, or vague in connection with the mother tongue. That inflectional forms are often necessary to express these varying concepts is not infrequently a discovery for the pupil, and the fact should give the concepts greater definiteness and importance in his mind. In the real education of the boy, clarifying and classifying these concepts and getting him to regard language objectively and to appreciate to some extent its mechanism, is far more important than the mere acquisition of a foreign tongue. So from the beginning sentence structure should be so presented that the elements of the word group stand out in their proper relations and that the inflectional forms carry with them a comprehension of those relations. Whatever be the method, the word groups presented should be simple enough to insure correct understanding of grammatical relations (syntax), progress should be sufficiently slow for the pupil to fix one form before others are introduced, and abundant swift illustrations, chiefly oral, each as short as possible, should spike together correct pronunciation and correct feeling for inflectional forms. Here, too, effective work must at the same time build a firm foundation for the new language and develop an appreciation of general speech-truths that will make the course profitable for him who drops out of the class as well as for him who continues therein. In arithmetic abstruse problems have no proper place with beginners; so, in language study, simple sentences with limited vocabulary and frequent repetitions

should furnish the material for the first year. Long, complicated sentences, like puzzle problems, are an entertaining and perhaps profitable exercise for those who have a taste for them, but it is certain that we rarely have to deal with such problems, and if a pupil is not naturally clever in solving them, forcing him to attempt them involves a most unprofitable expenditure of time and energy.

Among general truths of language the importance of word order and the great significance of the pause, with its effect on what immediately precedes or follows, need to be especially studied by the pupil and in some cases, perhaps, pondered long and carefully by the teacher.

III. MATERIAL.

There exists a very wide difference of opinion as to the choice of material to be used with beginners. Aside from classes that for the first year study the grammar only—may their number ever grow less—the texts used may be roughly classified as—

(1) Conversation manuals, based on daily life, foreign travel, etc.

(2) Selections from historical or scientific readings, regarded as having intrinsic value.

(3) Fiction, fairy tales, etc., regarded as having little intrinsic value, but suited to interest and attract the pupil.

(4) Texts of literary reputation, as Télémaque.

However varying tastes and circumstances may influence the decision among these groups, it is reasonable to assume that the nation whose history, literature, or commercial importance makes its language worth studying should have elements of interest for every intelligent person, and that arousing this interest must play an important part both in opening a field of wholesome enjoyment and in stimulating a desire to continue the subject gladly and diligently. Since beginners can not be expected to have enough comprehension of a new language to appreciate literary style, and since high-school freshmen ought not to have had experiences that fit them really to feel great literature, most texts of literary reputation should be absolutely eliminated from first-year work. In choosing from the other three groups, phonetic and grammatical ends seem to be as well served by one as by another. The choice may therefore depend on our third aim—arousing an interest in the foreign nation. For this aim, scientific reading must be of the simplest type, dealing with such topics as the geography or the inventions of the nation; historical selections must be equally simple and should deal with the popular features of the nation's history; and with most pupils this material can be used only sparingly without loss of interest. Some pupils look with scorn upon the fairy tale as beneath their dignity. This attitude is often merely a pose, and the folk tale especially has qualities of human interest

that, when set off by local color, rarely fail to attract old as well as young readers. Fiction exclusively, however, is apt to create an impression that the work is not of a serious nature.

There remains the field of *realien*, real things about the actual life of the people, and it is probably wise to draw upon this source for most of the material for the first year, as it combines the advantages of general interest with a feeling that what is read is of a real and substantial nature. An ideal text for the first year might then be described as one that, constantly employing the simplest expressions and constructions, gives attractive glimpses of the common life and scenes in the foreign land, with bits of its history, natural features, inventions, and folklore. The "guidebook" type must, however, be avoided as uninteresting to the large number of our pupils who expect never to travel abroad.

IV. DETAILS OF PROCEDURE.

Having agreed that our first aims should be phonetic training, grammatical comprehension, and interest in the foreign nation, and that our text should treat largely of the life of the people and be of the simplest type, we come next to the question of details in the treatment of this material. Experience indicates that in this respect no universal agreement can be secured, but certain general principles of procedure may be suggested and certain dangers of common practice may be pointed out.

First, the time devoted at the beginning to learning accurately the sounds of the new language is usually quite insufficient. It would be advantageous if an arrangement could be made by which for several weeks no home study would be assigned in a foreign language, allowing teachers of other subjects to utilize that time in exchange for classroom time. In this way all work done in the new language might be done in class and under the direction of the teacher. If home lessons must be assigned during those first few weeks, they should be such as to involve the least possible danger of fixing wrong speech habits. The use of phonetic script probably makes it possible to assign home work with less danger of associating wrong sounds with the normal spelling. If it is not thought wise to use the phonetic script, keep the vocabulary small, repeat the same words again and again with all the variety of simple real uses that the ingenuity of the teacher can discover; let home work include nothing that has not been exhaustively worked over in class. Much copying of text and writing out at home the most useful inflections of a very large number of words will fill up the time out of class that some teachers feel obliged to demand lest pupils get at first the unfortunate impression that the new study is a "cinch." This copying of text

varied as soon as possible by changes of person, number, tense, etc., is a good introduction to the writing from dictation which should be soon begun and diligently practiced.

Many fierce battles have been waged over the question of translation. It is probable that translation can not possibly be avoided in the earlier stages of study. A child can not see a familiar object without having the name by which he has known it flash instantly into his mind. A thought is bound to seek expression in the language with which similar thoughts have been most closely associated, and once formulated in this language, subsequent expressions of that thought will be more or less a translation. As it is always best to face facts as they are and to reckon with them, no matter how displeasing they may be, the wise procedure here is probably to attack translation early and try to teach pupils how a translation ought to be made, passing from one language to thought, and from the thought to its expression in the second language. Left to himself, a pupil will certainly translate, and he is equally certain to do it wrongly, substituting English words for those of the text, and then guessing the meaning from the English (!) result. The two languages are the two slices of bread in a linguistic sandwich, and they should always be separated by a filling of meaty thought, so that the words of each language are in direct contact with the thought and not with each other. This insistence on joining thought and sound should apply as well to all use of the mother tongue, and failure in this respect accounts for many of the stupid utterances so common in our classrooms.

Using a vocabulary should mean more than merely finding an English substitute for the foreign word. The second and most important part of the process is visualizing or otherwise securing a clear and definite concept of what is meant, then associating permanently this concept, and not the English word with the foreign word. If this association of concept and foreign word can be secured as swiftly and certainly without the intervention of English, the English, of course, is superfluous; but, if English is the quickest and most convenient means of securing this association, there seems to be no valid reason for depriving ourselves of its aid. Only, with or without English, we must not fail to attain as our result a direct and accurate association of thought and the foreign word.

Here the Gouin-Bétis or psychological method differs widely from the extreme types of "natural" methods, which, in the attempt to create an atmosphere of foreign thought, rigorously exclude all English. In teaching "pendule," for instance, Bétis did not show the pupils a clock, neither was he satisfied with merely saying "clock," but he cleverly used English to lead the class to visualize various types of clock known as "pendule," and left them with a clear and

abiding knowledge of the word. So, in a class of beginners, Walter, who has adopted many of Gouin's suggestions, uses the mother tongue freely in associating clear and correct concepts with the new word he is teaching. If then we finally get the direct association which we desire, we see that the question whether English is or is not excluded becomes an unessential detail of procedure and is largely a matter of economy of time. When the pupil's equipment fits him to understand an explanation in French as well as one in English, use the French, for with equal thought content an hour of French alone is better practice in learning French than an hour half French and half English.

Reference to the Gouin and the natural methods suggests another wide difference between them, in which the truth lies with neither extreme. For Gouin, the verb and the verb series are the soul of speech; for the natural methods, all revolves about the substantive, the tangible thing, that can be seen and shown in connection with the new word presented. In truth, verb and noun must go hand in hand, for an actor without action is as sterile as an action without an actor is unthinkable. In any concrete example word order and the construction of the sentence will show which is the more important in the mind of the speaker and which must be emphasized as the better key to his meaning.

Among other processes that are commonly employed we may mention grammatical study, reading aloud, writing from dictation, conversation, translation from and into the foreign language (version and theme), reproduction orally or in writing, paraphrasing, composition based on the text, and free composition. It is not intended to say what processes should be used or how they should be combined by any teacher, but the following suggestions are offered for making as effective as possible whatever work the teacher may decide to undertake.

Grammar can be regarded as an end by the philologist only. For all pupils in a secondary school it must be the handmaid of the text and must be regarded as existing solely in order to make clearer the language which it serves. The need of a rule and its application should be apparent to the pupil before he is required to learn the rule; words should be seen in use with a context before they are classified and memorized; the force of an inflection should be made plain from its use in a word group before the pupil is asked to inflect the paradigm; and in the unceasing repetition necessary to fix inflectional forms care should be taken that they are never parrot like repetitions, devoid of thought. Make the text the center of all instruction; base upon it grammar, conversation, and composition; and the grammatical knowledge derived from the text as a model will be applied intelligently in written and oral expression.

Reading aloud—now too much neglected in the mother tongue—should be a favorite exercise. With large classes no drill is so effective in teaching pronunciation as reading in unison after the teacher. In later work intelligent reading aloud is helpful in fixing the foreign language in the memory; it may take the place of translation where the simple character of the text and the manner of reading give sufficient evidence that the meaning is clear; and the practice is enjoyable and useful to those who form the habit of reading aloud in their own study.

Writing from dictation has always been much employed in French schools for French children learning their own language, and it is much to be commended. While less difficult than reproduction or paraphrasing, it is an admirable test of the care with which a passage has been studied, and the dictation of unseen passages is an excellent criterion of the pupil's ability to understand the spoken language. Dictation may begin early in the course, and until the very end it will be found useful both as a test and as training.

Conversation has been alternately praised and condemned. Some regard it as enlivening, stimulating, and instructive—the most enjoyable and profitable of all exercises. To others it is futile, inane, productive of no valuable results, and terribly wasteful of time. It seems clear that not all teachers and not all classes can use conversation to good advantage in high-school work. The teacher must be inspiring and perfectly at home in the language; the class must be alert, responsive, and homogeneous; the work must be systematically planned and followed out swiftly and directly to a definite end. Otherwise the time can be spent better in other ways. With large classes the necessary conditions rarely obtain, and unfortunately most high-school classes are too large for the best work. Although conversation as a formal class exercise is apt to be a failure, there is no class in which a competent teacher will not find many opportunities to converse easily in the foreign language, now giving a simple explanation, now asking a question and getting an easy answer, all so naturally that no one seems aware that the foreign language is used. The more of this the better. Conversation of this kind is the straight road to effective possession of a language; neither strained nor forced, it is good work.

Translation, too, has its warm friends and its bitter enemies. Reformers have worked as hard to drive it out of the class as they have done to drag conversation in; but theme and version are still neither dead nor moribund, and there is no prospect that an exercise which has maintained itself since the beginning of language study is going to vanish in the next generation or two. The difficulty is that the meat in the sandwich has a tendency to drop out and leave only the bare bread—voces et inter eas nihil—in other words, that translation comes

to be a mechanical substitution of the words of one language for the words of another, with little or no thought in the process, while translation ought to mean the study of a passage until its thought is clearly apprehended, and then an effort to put that exact thought into the other language with all the force and beauty that our command of the second language makes possible. This, of course, is translation of the ideal sort, but it is the kind of translation at which all translation should aim, and the only kind which will contribute effectively to a command of the foreign language and an appreciation of its qualities. With the other more common kind of translation the pupil never reads French and German, but only the shabby English into which he has more or less correctly paraphrased the original; he never writes real French or German, but only English with a foreign vocabulary. Such translation is rightly condemned as vicious and demoralizing, a veritable hindrance to the learner; but only the most vigorous and persistent efforts will keep the beginner from translating in just that way. Among helpful devices for preventing it we suggest oral translation of sentences heard but not seen, the translation, with book closed, of a sentence that the pupil has just read, or other ways for avoiding the *mot à mot* and securing a grasp of the word group as a whole with a complete meaning.

"What do you mean?" "So and so." "Then say that!" will sometimes get a real translation instead of the monstrosity that has been first offered by the pupil.

Underlying all the discussion for and against translation is the inevitable fact that not one student in a thousand can expect to gain such control of a second language that he can frame his thought in it as quickly and effectively as in his own; hence, whenever a thing is to him real and important, he will think it through first in the vernacular, after which any expression of the thought in a second language can not fail to be more or less consciously and directly a translation. The foreign correspondent must translate when he communicates the information received from abroad; he must translate when he writes in a foreign language the instructions received in English from his employer; the engineer, the lawyer, the physician, the scientist, the philosopher, the author must all translate when they proceed to use in their business the information gleaned from foreign sources. Even the teacher must translate when he tells his associates what our colleagues in France or Germany say of the direct methods. The practical thing, then, is to train the pupil to translate as he ought, and to depend for his expression in the new language, not on dictionary substitutes, but on the treasure of foreign words and expressions which he has acquired and learned to associate with their correct meaning. And the time to teach him this, which

is no easy thing to learn, is while he is learning the language, for practice in doing it must be long and careful if it is to be successful.

In the give and take of conversation the rapidity of the process often excludes translation, but there are comparatively few who will ever converse enjoyably in a foreign tongue, and the long practice which is an essential condition will usually bring with it the power.

To read and understand a foreign language without translation is much easier than to speak or write in it. Until, however, one can give in his own language a swift and accurate rendering of what he has read there is good reason to doubt whether he has understood clearly and completely or whether he has been satisfied with the vague sort of semicomprehension which, if unchallenged, sometimes passes for understanding when our pupils read the mother tongue. Inability to translate rapidly and well must imply either failure to understand clearly what has been read or else a poor command of English. If the latter, the American boy or girl needs nothing so much as just the kind of training in English which this translation affords; if the former, we need to try the pupil by the test which most swiftly and certainly reveals the weakness. Hence translation of the right sort, both from and into the foreign language, must not be omitted from high-school courses.

On the other hand the student must be trained to get thought directly from the original, and instruction in the foreign language is not intended primarily as instruction in English. So the wise teacher will give but a portion of his time to translation, and he will avoid too great use of spoken English by having a considerable part of the translation which he deems necessary written rather than oral.

The only safe use of a foreign language is that which imitates the expressions of scholarly natives. Hence all work of the learner must be based on good models and the stages of imitation seem to be: Exact reproduction; paraphrasing, with variations of persons, number, tense, etc., and substitution of other suitable words for those of the text; free reproduction or composition based on the text and closely following it; and free composition. The last is the highest and most difficult achievement, and it can not wisely be attempted until the learner has had ample experience with the forms of expression which the native uses in similar composition. Some excellent teachers refuse to attempt it before the fourth year of the course. Premature attempts at free composition are as bad for style as premature chattering is bad for good pronunciation. Both result in fixing wrong notions and bad habits which are very hard to overcome. It is better policy to make haste slowly and to be sure that the proper foundation is laid before we try to build upon it.

How far may we reasonably expect to go in the second and third years of study? Much will depend on how successful we are in over-

coming the aversion of parents and school boards to the elimination of the incompetent at the end of the first year, and this must be done on the ground that for those whom we seek to eliminate further study of the foreign language is less profitable than the same time spent studying something in which they can get better results. If modern-language classes can thus be restricted to those who show a reasonable fondness and aptitude for the study, by the end of the third year the work accomplished should be about as set forth for the intermediate course in the Report of the Committee of Twelve. It is probable that most teachers will prefer to read in class a somewhat smaller number of pages than is there suggested. There is a strong belief that a small amount thoroughly prepared and carefully studied leaves a larger permanent possession than is retained from reading hastily several pages, and some would reduce the amount required to one-half that specified by the committee of twelve. Others fear that asking a smaller amount will mean more dawdling, less work, and the same poor quality with only half the quantity. The solution seems to be a reasonable amount of honest work, at times so concentrated as to permanently impress essentials and at other times so distributed as to stimulate alertness, develop the power of swift vision and rapid judgment, and give opportunity for a fairly wide range of style and vocabulary. In either type of lesson the teacher must have a clear notion of just what he is working for and he must devote himself to getting it. The Report of the Committee of Twelve appeared about 15 years ago, and the improvement in the equipment of teachers and in the methods commonly employed at present should make it possible to insist more strongly upon the oral side of the instruction. If this is effectively done, the greater thoroughness of the treatment in class should more than compensate for a reduced number of pages read.

For the fourth year we may add to our general aims such special work in scientific or commercial subjects as may be required by particular schools. As to the amount of work, it is probable that the advanced courses outlined in the Report of the Committee of Twelve are rather more than can be expected of even the best high schools in a four years' course.

In the fourth year the foreign language will be generally used in class, and good pupils should develop considerable facility of correct expression. Nevertheless, in French, for instance, we, with our maximum of four years' (20 hours') study, can not hope for results equal to those attained by a German oberrealschule with nine years (47 hours) or of a realgymnasium, with seven years (29 hours) backed by nine years of Latin. To-day the work of our best schools is at least as good as the comparison of time allowances would lead us to expect; and if we compare the probable utility of a foreign language

to the average American boy with its usefulness to his French or German cousin, his ratio of efficiency would doubtless be greater than his ratio of need. That, however, is no answer to the demand that an American pupil who wishes good instruction in a foreign language should be able to have as complete a course and do as good work as the French or German pupil. The committee believes, however, that this increased efficiency can not come through an increased time allowance in the present high-school years; nor can more be expected than our best teachers are now doing with the time and material at their disposal. Improvement must be sought first, from an increase in the number of well-equipped and efficient teachers, and, second, from an extension of the years of modern language study downward to the age of 10, at which time the boy abroad has begun it.

V. TEACHERS AND TEXTS.

If the American public is about to insist on better work in the field of modern languages, it must recognize that the first essential is a body of well-prepared teachers and that the training of such teachers is long and expensive, including foreign residence of at least a year in addition to the usual equipment of an American teacher. Unless the schools will pay a teacher of French or German enough more than they pay a teacher of English or science or history or mathematics to cover this initial expense, the colleges must so plan the modern-language work for those who intend to teach that the youth on graduating may be as competent to teach French or German as he is to teach the other subjects. Perhaps he is so already; but while neither he nor his pupils are likely to be tested by the man in the street as to his knowledge of Latin or physics or algebra, in this cosmopolitan age he can not turn a corner, enter a hotel or a street car without facing some well-informed and pitiless critic who knows at once that his speech is not that of Paris or Berlin. The critic may, indeed, be a cook or a fiddler, but he hears with scorn our poor instructor's attempts to speak French or German and is not reluctant to express his derision. Nor will it do to hire the cook or the fiddler to teach for us, for they have already shown too often that they can not meet the other requirements of our high schools. We must have a large number of American-born teachers who know the foreign language too well to be ridiculous when they attempt to speak it. As school boards are likely to insist that a teacher is merely a teacher, worth so many dollars a year, without reference to what he teaches, or what it cost to learn it, the colleges seem bound to face the problem of meeting the demand for young people better fitted to teach French, German, or Spanish. But just how they are to do this is a problem for the colleges and not for this committee.

Section V of the Report of the Committee of Twelve deals with the study of modern languages in the grades below the high school. We are in complete accord with the conclusions of that report that the study of a foreign language in the grades should be optional, restricted to those who will probably continue it, and allowed only in small classes, with a daily lesson, and with a competent teacher. But here we meet the obstacles of precedent, which says that it has not been done that way hitherto; of routine, which pleads that such special arrangements would involve great trouble and inconvenience to the schools; and of expense, which asserts that such teachers are hard to find, prefer high-school service, and could not be kept without a salary larger than that paid to most other teachers in the same school. Possibly we might add to these, administrative inability to understand the situation and grapple with it successfully; for it is the task of an expert, and few school boards or school superintendents are modern language experts.

Here, too, we find ourselves in the vicious circle of insufficient teachers, due to insufficient college training, due to insufficient material, due to insufficient teachers, and so on round again. The only way to break into such a circle is to break into it wherever we strike it; to demand that the cities at once get some good modern language work done in the grades, and pay a reasonable price for it; that the colleges at once give especial attention to training more competent teachers of modern languages; and that ill-equipped teachers get to work in summer schools or take a Sabbatical year abroad, the cities sharing this burden by granting them half pay on reasonable conditions.

If many important points of modern language work are not considered in this statement, it is because the Report of the Committee of Twelve, made 15 years ago, was so scholarly and so comprehensive that it would be a work of supererogation to repeat, and evidence of presumption to attempt to improve most that was said in that report. It is sufficient to call attention to certain lines along which further constructive suggestions seemed likely to be useful.

It has been stated that conditions have so changed in the past 15 years that a list of desirable texts ought to be published now, but the experience of the German teachers some years ago in publishing a "kanon" of French and English school texts showed the efficient performance of so great a work to be far beyond the resources of this committee; and with the many sources of information now available, it seemed best to mention no specific texts. We venture only to suggest that in choosing a text for any particular class, one should consider—

The date of the text. For school work modern texts are almost always preferable.

Its length. Long texts grow monotonous and give too little variety of style and vocabulary.

Its national quality. It should be a distinctive product of the race it depicts.

Its adaptation to the age, sex, and thought of the pupil.

Its informational content. Without being dull it should give something worth remembering.

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STATEMENT OF CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON HOUSEHOLD ARTS.

It is the purpose of the group of courses offered under household arts to prepare girls not only to become better homemakers, but to make them more intelligent concerning those occupations which were formerly a part of every home but have recently been taken from the home, and to give them an appreciation of the factors that make up the municipal environment, and of the influence of these on the home. The immediate aim of such work is to give the girl an understanding of the responsibility and function of the homemaker through a knowledge of the elementary principles of biology, chemistry, physics, and bacteriology as applied to food preservation and preparation and to the conservation of the health of the family. Laboratory work should be given so that the girls may acquire skill in cooking, making clothes and household equipment, planning houses, and also some experience in purchasing household supplies and equipment.

Because the larger proportion of our girls in the public schools never enter the high school, work in household arts should be begun in the grades; many elementary schools are already offering work in "sewing" and "cooking."

Under "sewing," girls in the grades learn the technique of the various stitches and of making simple garments, cut either from drafted or commercial patterns. In the high school, under "clothing," an opportunity should be given to review the work of the grades, but advanced work should be given and a broader aspect of the subject presented; the sociological, economic, and historical phases of the work should be emphasized, more complicated patterns should be made, and the principles of art and design should be considered in relation to dress and household furnishings. The advanced courses may include the history of costume, the care and cleaning of personal and household linen, and a study of the various adulterants used in fabrics of different kinds. Those girls who enter the high school with the technique of sewing already learned have a distinct advantage over those who must master this during their high-school course. It is obvious, therefore, that either we must plan two courses for high schools or we must offer a preparatory course in sewing which shall be comparable to that given in the elementary schools.

A similar problem confronts us in food work. Some school systems give one, others two years of cooking in the grades. In these classes the girls learn the processes of food preparation, the composition of the various foods, and in a general way the functions of the food principles in the body. To ask the girl to repeat this in her high-school course would be futile, and yet the high-school girl must have this elementary course before advanced work can be taken. Obviously, both groups of girls, those who enter with no preparation and those who enter with either one or two years of preparation, can not be put into the same classes, nor can they cover the same ground during their high-school course. Therefore, in the food work, as well as in the sewing work, two courses must be planned or else a non-credit course preparatory to the high-school work must be given.

The work in the grades in both cooking and sewing is given largely from the standpoint of manual training—that is, the emphasis is on manipulation; the how, rather than the why, is stressed. In the high school the emphasis should be on the reasons for doing things, and the food work should be given largely from the point of view of applied science; and, in order that the girls may have some science to apply, it is desirable that a course in general science should precede the work in foods or be taken parallel with it. For this reason it seems better to put this course (foods) in the second year of the high school. This leaves an opportunity for those girls who have had no work before entering to take a preliminary course during their first year. Similarly a preparatory course in sewing might be offered during this year.

Our suggested course in household arts consists of five units of work; one in cooking and sewing planned for the grades, and the remaining units for the high school. We believe that the time is not far distant when courses in cooking and sewing will form an integral part of every elementary school system, so that we feel justified in working out the courses on this basis; but until school systems have introduced this work, the preparatory courses suggested should be offered in the high school. No high-school credit, however, should be allowed for these, for the committee is opposed to giving high-school credit for courses which consist largely of mere manipulation.

In the high school one unit of work is planned for each year. During the first two years the work should consist of one unit of textiles and clothing and one unit of foods. Each of these courses may be taken for one year or they may be continued throughout the two years. It is often desirable that the work in clothing be taken in two years, whereas the work in foods may very well be given during the second year, thus affording opportunity for science work during the first year. However, those school systems which are unable to engage a specially trained teacher for this work may find it an advantage to have both courses continue over the two years, for by this means adjoining towns could employ one teacher to take charge of this work in several schools. Neither of these courses should be dependent upon other courses in the high school, although courses in art and science taken previously or parallel should materially enrich them, and the principles learned there should be applied in the household-arts courses.

The following topics are suggested for the work of these first two years. Laboratory work should be given in both cases, but for our present purpose it will suffice to list merely the subjects to be considered.

Textiles and clothing: History of clothing; hygiene of clothing; a study of cotton and linen fabrics, including manufacture, weaving, dyeing, bleaching, printing, mercerizing; laboratory work for identification of fabrics; fundamental principles of garment making applied to underwear and waists; drafting patterns; comparison of homemade garments with factory made at same cost; comparison of cost of homemade article with shop article of same value; sweatshops; consumers' league.

Foods: Canning and preserving fruit, involving a brief study of bacteria, yeasts, and molds; a comparison of home-canned fruit with that in the market as to quality, cost, and labor involved; the composition of fruits, leading to a study of food principles; separation of the food principles from some common foods; simple chemical and physical tests for each; a study of protein, carbohydrates, and fats, with the effect of heat upon them and ways of cooking them;

a study of meats and vegetables, with ways of preparing and combining them; the cost of food in relation to its composition; different functions of food in the body; the amount of food required by the body; the comparative nutritive value of some common foods; pure-food laws and their effect upon the adulteration of food; laboratory work involving all the common processes of cooking, with the preparation and serving of simple meals.

The work of the junior year may consist of a half-unit course in textiles—dressmaking and millinery—and a half-unit in house planning, house decoration and furnishing, and sanitation. The work of the senior year may consist of a half-unit course in textiles and a half-unit course in dietetics. The textile course in the senior year should include a study of the composition of the different fibers, detection of the usual adulterants used with them, the principles involved in the various laundering processes, and costume design. Designing and making the graduation dress may well be included. The course in dietetics should consist of a more extensive study of the nutritive value of foods than that given in the first course; methods of detecting food adulterants; the dietetic needs of the body at different ages and under different conditions; the preparation of balanced meals for definite costs; consideration of the factors affecting the cost of living; and the distribution of different incomes for family budgets.

In planning the work of the advanced courses (junior and senior) we are supposing work in art and science which should be taken during the sophomore and junior years, for a knowledge of the fundamental principles of proportion, projection, color, physics, chemistry, and biology is necessary. We hope that the committees that are outlining the work in those subjects will remember that the larger number of pupils in those courses are girls and that their interests are as worthy of consideration as those of the boys. Direct correlations should be made between the household arts and the fine arts on the one hand and between the household arts and science on the other.

We do not advise that all girls should necessarily take the five units of work outlined, but we do believe that at least the first three units should be required; the last two units may be elective. We make this reservation because the girl whose interests lie in other directions—in the classics, in commercial work, or who must fulfill our present college entrance requirements—can not take all the work outlined and the prerequisite courses in art and science. Although our committee is not particularly interested in meeting the college entrance requirements, nevertheless we recognize the fact that requirements do exist which make it impossible for a girl to take more than the most elementary courses in household arts and at the same time complete the prescribed courses; and we must reckon with them,

as a larger and larger proportion of the girls who complete the high-school work are going to college. When our committee shall have completed its work and shall have shown that, from the standpoint of thought content and disciplinary value, work in household arts is as valuable as Latin, Greek, or mathematics, then perhaps entrance credit will be granted in eastern women's colleges (none of which now grant such credit), and the girls will then be able to take a larger proportion of work that shall prepare them for that sphere in life that most of them are destined to fill. Those who go no further than the high school, those who wish to specialize in household arts, and those who are planning to take up a quite different subject afterwards are advised to take the five units.

Only in a general way have we outlined the courses in household arts. During the next few years it shall be the duty of the committee to make these more detailed and to indicate how other subjects in the curriculum may be correlated with them. The preparation of a bibliography should also form a part of the work of the committee.

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Elizabeth L. Kelly, State supervisor of home economics, Baton Rouge, La.
Helen Kinne, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
Abby L. Marlatt, home economics department, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.
Elizabeth Matthews, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.
Helena Pincomb, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
Jennie Snow, Chicago Normal School, Chicago, Ill.
Mary Snow, supervisor of domestic science, public schools, Chicago, Ill.
Florence Willard, Washington Irving High School, New York, N. Y.

STATEMENT OF CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON MANUAL ARTS.

Since the appointment of the committee on manual arts, its most important work has been to reach general agreement as to the most fruitful subjects for investigation and report. From the correspondence and from a conference of a majority of the members held early

in May, it has become clear that questions relating to the place of manual arts in secondary education are inextricably interwoven with those concerning the place of the secondary school in the general plan of public education. That the function of the secondary school is in process of rapid evolution is apparent, and the relation of manual arts instruction to this new secondary school which is in the making is not altogether easy to determine.

This committee finds itself in substantial agreement with the views expressed at the general conference of members of the various committees held in Philadelphia in 1918. It believes that all high-school subjects should be given with a much clearer conception of the provisional destination of the pupil, or at least with a fuller knowledge of his educational program, with a consequent increase in definiteness of purpose. It is held that the discovery of aptitudes is a legitimate and important aim for a certain group of pupils. Especially does the committee feel that a clearly stated differentiation of purpose is not only the highest expression of democracy in education, but that it is essential to the very existence of the public-school system, assuring as it will the constant and ever-increasing interest of the public in things educational.

Instruction in any of the manual arts, therefore, in the opinion of this committee, if given for a purpose which is reasonable and clearly stated, will be as necessary a part of secondary education and will be as fully and freely recognized as such as any other subject in the curriculum, no matter how strongly buttressed by tradition that subject may be. Conversely any course in manual arts which is offered without a clearly defined and simply stated purpose is held to be intolerable.

Furthermore, if regard is to be had to the "destination" of the pupil, numerous questions at once arise as to the possibility of adjusting school work to what is to be encountered at the end of the course. In the past the chief questions of articulation have been those which concerned jointly the high school and the college, but to-day direct articulation is made also with vocational life. Thus vocational guidance and training are coming to be of prime importance to the great majority of high-school pupils, and consequently factors to be taken into account in any solution of the problems before the committee.

The committee has been practically unanimous in its determination to urge upon the general conference the consideration of a revised basis for admitting pupils to the secondary school. Teachers of manual arts were perhaps among the first to observe that over-age children in the upper grammar grades were not necessarily deficient in intelligence, but, rather, were different in certain important characteristics from those whom we have chosen to term their more for-

tunate fellows. Such teachers have frequently insisted that it was a mistake not to care for children of this type in the secondary school instead of holding them back among children of less mature interests and ambitions. The committee will, therefore, seek to bring about a different basis of admission to secondary schools. While not suggesting that this standard be adopted for all subjects taught in the high school, it insists that courses in manual arts should be open to certain children on the ground that they have the ability to do the work of these courses acceptably.

Following the plan suggested at the conference at Philadelphia, this committee submits its preliminary report under the following heads: (1) Tentative conclusions. (2) Problems for discussion. (3) Experiments to be made.

The committee agrees unanimously to the following:

TENTATIVE CONCLUSIONS.

1. The major purpose of instruction in manual arts is to contribute directly to the vocational efficiency of the pupils. 2. There should be developed shorter courses with longer school days and a longer school year and with specific vocational purposes. Short vocational courses should be made available for pupils of secondary-school age who can profit measurably by the instruction given, even when such pupils have not fulfilled all the requirements for graduation from the elementary school. 3. There must be an earlier opportunity for differentiation of purposes, courses, and methods.

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION.

1. Is college preparation one of the legitimate aims of manual-arts instruction? 2. To what extent can general manual-arts courses be utilized as a basis for differentiated vocational courses? 3. What are the more important qualifications for teachers in vocational courses?

EXPERIMENTS TO BE MADE.

1. To determine the characteristics of 14 to 16 year old boys and girls who leave school on or soon after the completion of the compulsory school period. 2. To discover methods of interesting each of the several types in self-improvement.

In addition to the above, the committee has under consideration by different members such questions as the following: (1) By what means or in what terms can courses of study in manual arts be adequately expressed? (2) What constitutes a satisfactory training for teaching vocational courses, and in what way may it be gained? (3) What advantages may lie in checking and in giving school credit for

home industrial work? (4) What special problems are there relative to manual-arts courses in the rural high school?

It is significant that, while admitting that college preparation should not greatly concern the organizer of the secondary school, the majority of the members of the committee felt that it was important to discuss the value of manual-arts courses as preparation for college. It was suggested by Mr. Kingsley, at the conference at Philadelphia, that—

> The best way to prepare for college is to forget all about college entrance requirements and develop motives. Few students fail in college if, after completing a well-planned high-school course, they go to college to secure what the college has to offer. We should ignore "preparation for college" in the narrower sense as a legitimate aim in high-school work.

While we agree with the spirit of that statement, we are moved by three major considerations to insist that preparation for college must be taken into consideration in our discussion of the fundamental question submitted to our subcommittee, namely, What is the place of manual arts in secondary education? These three considerations are as follows:

First. Whatever we may undertake in reorganizing the secondary school, we must be careful to avoid anything which will create the impression that some courses are held in less esteem than others or that they are not "open at the top."

Second. For years to come there will be in our secondary schools principals and teachers who, no matter how valiantly our committee may assert that "the best preparation for life is the best preparation for college," will, nevertheless, regard as inferior any and all courses for which college entrance credit is not allowed. It is this attitude of the college-bred secondary-school teacher which constitutes the real domination of the college over the secondary school. Teachers of manual arts have had far too much experience in the past in trying to advance this subject in the face of this kind of opposition to allow them to forget the futility of trying to induce children to take the work when they understand that no "credit" is given for it. It is, unfortunately, true that the very children who have the least need of college credit and the least opportunity of making use of it are frequently deterred from taking those courses which are thus ranked as inferior.

Third. We believe that manual arts may be so taught as to contribute to the intellectual power and social outlook to such an extent as to fully justify its acceptance as a part of preparation for college.

In short, the committee, while reaching out after all the good that is promised by freedom from slavish adherence to educational tradition, while welcoming every new influence from without the schools which will make the work more real and more vital, while striving

especially to make the secondary school more attractive and of greater benefit to that large number of unschooled youths between 14 and 18 years of age, yet believes that this can be accomplished without curtailing any opportunities which the schools now afford our million and a third high-school pupils. Diversity of direction, differentiation of purpose, attention to individual needs and aptitudes, these must be attained without losing sight of the demonstrated values of all the older and more thoroughly organized school subjects which have made the American school system the acknowledged success which it is to-day in spite of its critics.

FRANK M. LEAVITT, *Chairman.*

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, *Chicago, Ill.*

The other members of the committee on manual arts are as follows:

Wilson H. Henderson, secretary of the committee, director vocational training, Hammond, Ind.
L. R. Abbott, director manual training, Grand Rapids, Mich.
W. J. Bogan, principal Lane Technal High School, Chicago, Ill.
G. F. Buxton, Stout Institute, Menomonie, Wis.
P. W. Covert, Manual Training High School, Indianapolis, Ind.
A. D. Dean, chief of division of vocational schools, Albany, N. Y.
C. H. Howe, Stuyvesant High School, New York, N. Y.
Ben Johnson, director manual and industrial education, Seattle, Wash.
O. J. Kern, county superintendent of schools, Rockford, Ill.
C. W. Kirschner, principal Boardman Manual Training High School, New Haven, Conn.
C. A. Maupin, principal Industrial High School, Columbus, Ga.
E. E. McCready, director manual training, Newark, N. J.
R. W. Selvidge, professor manual arts University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.
F. W. Turner, Mechanic Arts High School, Boston, Mass.

STATEMENT OF CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON MUSIC.

The qualities of thought and feeling out of which good music springs are highly desirable. They reflect a desire for beauty; they reveal the spirit of man in its more profound and universal relations and impulses. In common with the other arts and literature, and perhaps in higher degree, music tends to develop finer subjective life in the individual. This is true not only while the music is sounding. The quality of thought and feeling out of which it springs remains after the music ceases.

In public schools, where instruction in music is not primarily vocational or professional, the aim, conscious or unconscious, is obviously such subjective influence. A course in music that in due season and proper degree does not promise to adjust the learner in sympathetic response to the best music of the world is lacking in its proper quality, whatever marks of efficiency it may show.

Music in the grades has probably fulfilled its part in this development somewhat more efficiently than music in the high schools. Failure to bring the graduates of the public schools into sympathetic relation with the mature musical intelligence and interests of their various communities is not due so much to shortcomings in the work of the grades (though there are, of course, some such shortcomings in many places) as it is to neglect or sad misdirection of the work in high schools.

The late Mr. W. S. B. Mathews distinguished three appeals that music makes: The first to the ear, as "purified crystallized sound"—a sensuous beauty which every musician demands always; the second an appeal to the mind, depending upon memory, attention, perception of the relation of part to part, as balanced and beautiful tonal discourse; the third the appeal to the soul, as expressing mood, state of feeling, emotion.

Children in the grades are taught to value beauty of tone and to secure it in their singing, both for the sake of their musical taste and for correct use of their own voices. Their short songs should have grace of melody and simple perfection of form, revealing grace and clarity of musical thinking; but these qualities are desirable as musical experience and are not consciously analyzed and consciously valued. The songs used also have mood or at least color, but the moods are, of course, childlike and are not the moods which the music of the masters expresses. These must remain incomprehensible until the individual approaches the larger experiences of life. Technically the pupil learns, by the end of the eighth year, almost all elementary theory, and to sing at sight fluently and in parts simple hymn tunes, and to sing with enjoyment, after some practice, a number of the easier choruses from operas and oratorios, as well as some comparatively elaborate part songs.

One point should not be overlooked—the pupil's line of approach to music has been, and in public schools must be, up to this time, purely that of the song. Dr. W. G. Chambers, in a most valuable essay entitled "Modern Psychology and Music Study," has pointed out what an unfortunate foundation this is, if not broadened, upon which to base an understanding of the great instrumental works which crown the heights of musical expression. But in truth no more than we have outlined can be normally accomplished in the eight grades. The musical forms used are, until the end of this period, too simple to present any elaborate thematic development, and the amount of technical proficiency to be gained is too great to leave time for conscious consideration of larger art values, even in phases of this investigation which might be deemed appropriate to the child below the age of adolescence.

What practical and desirable developments then remain for the high school? A complete and correct answer to this question would mean a fulfillment of the task to which your committee is addressed. Before entering upon such answer it is well to note what often does follow. In many high schools this is nothing but a continued exercise, slightly extended, of the degree of power gained by the pupil in the eight grades below the high school. A graduation exercise in music might often appropriately mark the conclusion of the eighth year in school, for here, in many cases, ends the student's progress in musical knowledge and understanding.

If we would have an adult public interested in and appreciative of the great music of the masters, we must have general instruction in advanced phases of musical study. This instruction is appropriate and practicable in high schools, and to them properly belongs the task of articulating the music in the grades with the enlightened musical understanding and interest of the community.

In the several branches of musical study recommended in the following paragraphs it is assumed by the committee that this end—namely, bringing the student into knowledge and understanding of the great music of the world—will be kept persistently in view. The classes of material recommended are chosen with relation to their efficiency in attaining this end and methods of administration that will operate toward securing it are suggested.

ENSEMBLE SINGING.

In choosing material for ensemble singing it should not be forgotten that music, while it may ally itself with sentiments of religion, patriotism, love of home, and so forth, and while it should never ally itself with less worthy associations, is yet not to be valued upon the nature of such alliance. For music is essentially tone and tonal discourse and is beautiful as music in proportion to the beauty of tone, the beauty of the tonal procedure, and the beauty and nobility of mood out of which it sprang. Music, in short, need express musical thought only. Until this is admitted, understanding of musical beauty as a thing in itself can not be undertaken. Therefore, no commonplace tune, badly harmonized, should be admitted because the text associated with it means well. At least must this be true for all new music. Certain old melodies, quite unregarded as music either originally or now, but saved from extinction in the first instance by alliance with a text of value, and at present by tradition and many hallowed associations—these should be preserved so long as their appeal remains and while their use is not wholly perfunctory. We admit these because we are human beings, not because we are musical. But since the persons who respond to general human

sentiments are more numerous than those who respond to these same sentiments plus a response to purely musical beauties, there has been, and is, danger that the power to awaken such general humanistic response should be regarded as the one necessary quality in a song, and our chorus activities are therefore vitiated by the use of a number of songs no one of which would be regarded by musicians as belonging to the realm of music at all, and no one of which is in the same idiom as that music which all concede it is the purpose of a musical education to lead the student to love and enjoy.

While ensemble singing must in the nature of the case be the most general and basic music activity in a public-school system, it must be admitted that wise administration in this work is more necessary than in any other branch of musical study recommended if breadth of musical interest and understanding on the part of the students is to be the result. It can not be gainsaid that a pupil may sing during his entire high-school term the sort of songs that are sung in many high schools, study them in the manner in which they are studied in these schools, and come forth at the end of the time as remote from understanding and enjoyment of a Beethoven symphony or sonata as he would have been had he lacked such practice. This is not to be understood as meaning that he does not derive many other sorts of benefit from the practice. It does mean, however, that his participation as an adult in the progressive musical activities of his community is not made certain by the course of instruction which he has undergone. Not only does the comparative emphasis usually given the subject and text divert attention from purely musical values, but the physical exhilaration of singing may readily be mistaken for general musical enjoyment. Further, the songs may be selected largely because of their appropriateness to certain occasions, such as class days, field days, arbor day, patriotic festivals, etc., and in such case musical merit usually has to be sacrificed or can not be a prime factor in the choice of songs.

After material which has specific musical merit is chosen, its appropriateness to the voices and capacities of the adolescent singers must be considered, and a method of presentation must be found that will lead to wider musical interest and understanding. As any and all of the four years in high school are recommended for chorus practice, and as such principles of selection of music and presentation vary for the different years, the remaining recommendations are treated under two heads.

CHORUS PRACTICE IN FIRST AND SECOND YEARS.

In interest and articulation with the earlier experience of the pupils, chorus practice appeals especially to first and second year students; but in respect to voices, these two years are for many pupils quite

unfortunate, and a wise selection of musical material within a limited range is therefore necessary, as well as a careful and frequently repeated examination of each individual voice and a judicious assignment of each pupil to his appropriate vocal part. Mere efficient conquering of one song after another, with no thought for comparative musical merit, should not constitute the practice. Correct use of the voice and intelligent phrasing and interpretation of music in general should be the rule. Further, if the students are not yet proficient in sight singing and thoroughly well informed in elementary theory, these should be taught in connection with this chorus work. If, however, high-school standards which imply such abilities have been reached, the general incidental study should take the line of musical appreciation. Structural features of the songs should be pointed out and some knowledge of musical form should be gained. Motivation, the phrase, sequences should be studied. Some knowledge of the composers should be gained and the use of selections from operas, oratorios, or cantatas should be made the occasion for some study of these forms. Every effort should be made to broaden the student's general musical horizon through the medium of his interest and participation in chorus work.

CHORUS PRACTICE IN THIRD AND FOURTH YEARS.

The voices being more mature, the collateral lines of study should be different. Continuation of the incidental musical appreciation work recommended in connection with first and second year chorus practice is still advised. An invaluable activity further is the learning and performing of some suitable standard choral work every semester by the school chorus, assisted by excellent soloists and accompanied by a large orchestra. No surer means can be found to place the student in sympathetic relation to the advanced musical interests in his community.

MUSICAL APPRECIATION.

The work recommended along lines of musical appreciation, in connection with chorus practice, was incidental, the intention being to prevent an entirely undiscriminating and unappreciative attitude toward music in its "absolute" phases. Such study could not be thorough were it desired to make it so, for the forms presented would be in the main comparatively short, would all be vocal, and would present the easier works of a limited number of composers only, and these probably in vitally altered transcriptions and arrangements. A strong course of study of great musical literature should therefore be offered. This is continually growing more practicable because of improvements in and the increasing use of mechanical instruments

for reproducing such music, as, for instance, the player piano, the talking machine, and the player organ. With the help of any or all of these and the assistance of local musicians, vocal and instrumental, in addition to what the class and the teacher can provide, working as a chorus and also in solo capacities, a course such as that outlined in the following paragraphs can be presented more or less exhaustively and with results in the education of the students that are of inestimable value.

Musical appreciation as a high-school study is particularly appropriate for third and fourth year students, as the mature quality of thought and feeling with which great music is invested is largely incomprehensible prior to these years to any but the exceptional boy or girl. A musical experience and a technical foundation that can be gained only in the first two years are also necessary; and two years of chorus practice, such as was outlined, or two years of harmony or of orchestra ensemble are therefore recommended prior to undertaking this course. This recommendation is made notwithstanding the fact that classes of first and second year students in this branch have been known to members of the committee to make excellent progress.

The course in musical appreciation includes study of musical history, form, biography of musicians and æsthetics of music, but is not specifically any one of these. The course is best planned, therefore, through the selection of a large number of compositions which are to constitute the subject matter. These should be chosen on the following bases: (1) They should represent a large number of master composers, ancient and modern, in so far as the works of these masters engage the attention of the world to-day; (2) they should represent all important media of expression, as piano, orchestra, chorus, solo voice, solo instruments, chamber music ensembles, etc.; (3) they should represent all varieties of form and all larger forms, as the song forms, sonata form, rondo, etc., and the opera, oratorio, cantata, mass, etc.; (4) as representing either a composer or a form or style, they should be characteristic of that composer's form or style at his or its best and most individual moments.

The compositions chosen are to be heard and studied repeatedly, individually, as representative, in the ways specified, and comparatively. They are furthermore to be studied in relation to musical æsthetics, with regard to the nature and validity of the musical ideas upon which they rest and the degree of success attained in reaching these ideals. The lecture method with library reference is recommended, as textbooks of the exact kind needed are hardly to be found, if at all. Where possible, reported concert attendance should be a feature of the work.

HARMONY.

Inasmuch as this subject demands primarily quick and sensitive perception and retentive memory, it is especially appropriate to the first two years in high school, though it could well be substituted for musical appreciation in the last two years. The requisite talent for its study is not so great or so rare as is commonly supposed, but as musical interest is necessary it should be made an elective study.

An academic presentation of the subject, such as that found in almost all the older textbooks, is to be heartily condemned. The following features should be invariable:

(*a*) Ear training, carried throughout and at appropriate stages involving aural recognition of any interval, any triad as major, minor, diminished or augmented, any seventh chord (as to its intervals), of any tone and of any chord as to its scale relations, of any chord progression, of any modulation as to its harmonic procedure and the keys involved, of organ points, suspensions, anticipations; in short, involving aural recognition of all the harmonic material learned and used through the eye and symbols of notation.

(*b*) Instruction in the canons of melody writing; tendencies of melodic tones, melodic contour; motivation, the phrase, the process of coherent musical thought, the period.

(*c*) Harmonization of melodies (original or given) rather than harmonization of figured basses. (Thorough bass should be taught, but should constitute only a small part of the practice.)

(*d*) Harmonic analysis as revealing accepted musical usage by composers of the chord material presented.

(*e*) Freedom and musical proficiency in the use of harmonic material. Every harmonic factor is like a new word in the student's vocabulary, and is to be used by him in constructing numerous musical sentences until he is familiar with all of its merits, powers, and special qualities.

COUNTERPOINT.

This branch must be considered as an exceptional offering, possible only under especially favorable conditions, unless included under harmony. Three suggestions are offered as to its organization in a course and these are in what is believed to be their order of merit:

First. It may be included under harmony in a two-year's course, following the methods that seek to combine these two aspects of tonal organization, such as those of Percy Goetschius.

Second. It may be included in a four-years' course in contrapuntal harmony and composition, after this same method of combination.

Third. It may follow, as a separate two-years' course, the two years of harmony above advised.

ORCHESTRA ENSEMBLE.

This branch of musical study and practice should be an invariable offering. It should be open to any student qualifying for all four high-school years.

The musicianship that results naturally from ensemble playing is more advanced than that which arises naturally from ensemble singing. More hours of practice and preparation are necessary before successful participation is possible; the expression of the musical thought or impulse is less direct than in singing and becomes a matter, therefore, of greater reflection; the mechanical nature of the medium of expression makes sight reading and a knowledge of staff notation more exact; the number and diversity of the orchestral parts—diversity in pitch, tonal quality, and rhythmic procedure—make the whole a richer complex than is presented in chorus work; and this complexity and variety have attracted composers to orchestral expression for their greatest works.

Nevertheless the course in orchestral ensemble must be guarded, if it attains its best ends. The following recommendations are therefore urged:

First. The instruments should be played in the manner of their solo capacities, the ideals of chamber music and the refined treatment of each part in a symphony orchestra being ever kept in mind.

Second. Music should be selected that, however easy, still recognizes these particular values for each and every instrument.

Third. The orchestra should be considered an orchestral class or orchestral study club primarily, and a factor for the diversion of the school only incidentally.

Fourth. Instruments should be bought by or for the school, to remain school property, and these should be loaned, under proper restrictions, to students who will learn to play them. Instruments such as the double bass, timpani, French horn, oboe, bassoon (or any less rare that are yet usually lacking in any particular school) should be bought. Only by such means can orchestral richness and sonority be secured, the real idiom of orchestra be exemplified, and advanced orchestral literature be made practicable to the students.

Fifth. Seventh and eighth grade orchestras, similarly conducted and equipped with a like generous outfit of school-owned instruments should be organized as training schools for the high-school orchestra.

CREDIT FOR MUSIC APPLIED UNDER SPECIAL TEACHERS OUTSIDE OF SCHOOL.

It is recommended that study of voice, piano, organ, violin, or any orchestral instrument, under special teachers outside of the school, when seriously undertaken and properly examined and certified, shall receive equal credit with any academic, five-hour study regularly

pursued in high school, and shall be accepted in substitution for any regular school work that would command the same amount of credit. This recommendation is based upon the following considerations:

(*a*) The proficiency gained in singing or playing during the high-school period by many boys and girls proves, in a number of cases, to be of greater value to the individual in later life than any attainment gained in school in the same number of hours.

(*b*) Notwithstanding that most adults believe it desirable that young people should learn to sing or play an instrument, a severe handicap is put upon them in this respect by the necessity of attending, at the same time, to the heavy demands of their general education; and many students, including, even, a number who expect to be musicians, abandon or neglect music during their high-school years, when the greatest progress can and should be made, rather than jeopardize the securing of a diploma by neglecting some one branch of the regular course.

(*c*) We regard as untenable the assumption, expressed or implied, that an individual would be uneducated if he pursued three or four regular studies per year for four years and added music to these, but would be educated if he pursued four or five studies each year for four years and dropped music.

(*d*) We believe that this untenable assumption is not due to any active solution of the question of the place of music in an educational plan, but rather to a passive acceptance of traditional academic standards that are now outgrown and should be abandoned.

Choruses of boys, choruses of girls (glee clubs), and brass bands may under some conditions be deemed desirable. If organized, the general provisions recommended for securing educational value in chorus and orchestral work should be held to apply.

It is not expected that each high school shall offer all the branches here recommended. The offerings that presumably would be desirable in high schools of varying sizes were recommended in a report on high-school music made by a committee (Will Earhart, chairman) of the music supervisors' national conference to that body and adopted by them in St. Louis in 1912. This report also made certain recommendations as to the scholastic organization of all music work with respect to the number of hours, points credit, etc.

In adopting the report just mentioned, the music supervisors' national conference voted to include as an amendment an added article which should further recommend the crediting of musical study under teachers outside the school. This recommendation has already been made at length in the earlier part of this report.

WILL EARHART, *Chairman.*

PITTSBURGH, PA.

The other members of the committee on music are as follows:

E. B. Birge, supervisor of music, Indianapolis, Ind.
Henrietta G. Baker, supervisor of music, Baltimore, Md.
Ralph L. Baldwin, supervisor of music, Hartford, Conn.
Hollis E. Dann, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.
Charles H. Farnsworth, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
C. A. Fullerton, State Normal School, Cedar Falls, Iowa.
Karl W. Gehrkens, Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio.
Osborne McConathy, director of music, Chelsea, Mass.
W. Otto Miessner, supervisor of music, Oak Park, Ill.
Carrie McMackin, supervisor of music, Spartanburg, S. C.
Mrs. Parsons, director of music, Los Angeles, Cal.
Charles I. Rice, supervisor of music, Worcester, Mass.
Elsie M. Shaw, supervisor of music, St. Paul, Minn.

STATEMENT OF CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON BUSINESS.

This committee held a meeting in Philadelphia on Saturday, March 1, 1913, at the William Penn High School, and another at the State normal school, Salem, Mass., August 28, 1913. The statement that follows is a résumé of the work of the committee prepared by the chairman:

AIM OF THE COMMERCIAL COURSE.

The general aim of the high school is assumed to be—

1. To provide the student with the proper physical equipment, through instruction in physiology, hygiene, and by physical training.

2. To provide instruction in citizenship, through courses in civics and through social organizations of the school.

3. To lay the foundation for a broad appreciation of life, through courses in science, literature, art, music, etc.

The special aim of the commercial course is to enable the student to fill a place in commercial life. The course should be so planned as to equip the student to earn his livelihood immediately, in case he leaves before completion of the course, and also to equip him to fill more responsible positions as they may offer in the future.

SHALL SHORT COURSES BE GIVEN?

The answers usually made to the question depend upon the experience and location of the schools in which the experiment has been made. Fewer schools than formerly are now giving short courses. Some schools have changed from the short course to the long course, but there is yet no record of a school which has changed from a long course to the short course. The movement for short courses has received an impetus from the development of the vo-

cational courses given in several New England schools. The answer to the question, Do short courses give adequate preparation for commercial life, depends largely upon one's ideals of a student's commercial equipment. Where the aim is to secure for the student in as short a time as possible a position where he can earn his bread and butter, the short course is popularly advocated. Where the aim is to start the student on a commercial career worthy of the name, the long course is given. It may be possible to combine both elements and to plan a course so that at the end of each year some definite object is attained, and that a unit course might be regarded as terminating at the end of any year. Due care must be taken, however, not to lose continuity in instruction, for there is a certain momentum acquired by giving instruction in a subject continuously throughout several years. A course planned in yearly units might offer a wider range of electives than is now offered in commercial work, mathematics, and modern languages. The principle of election has won its way in the general courses, but it has apparently a harder battle before it in the special courses.

SHOULD COMMERCIAL WORK BE GIVEN IN THE SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES OF THE GRAMMAR SCHOOL?

When one considers the abilities of seventh and eighth grade pupils, and what the business world demands of them, one realizes that commercial work given to such pupils must be very elementary in its character. The business man demands of such pupils the ability to write simple business letters, facility in the ordinary arithmetical operations, some general knowledge of business, such as how goods are bought, sold, ordered, charged, and delivered, and some knowledge of the materials of commerce. This is a demand which is not very different from the demand that the community makes upon all pupils of the seventh and eighth grades. On the other hand, if the aim of instruction in the seventh and eighth grades is to enable the pupil to determine his future vocation, he should have an opportunity to try not only commercial work, but industrial work as well. With the extension of departmental work in the seventh and eighth grades, it is possible to give the pupil an opportunity to test the different vocational fields. The suggested content of prevocational commercial work includes penmanship, commercial arithmetic, business forms, related customs, and simple accounts. An introductory commercial course should be given in the high school also for students who did not take it in the elementary school, in order to carry out fully the ideal of the seventh and eighth grades as a testing period. The general consensus of opinion seems to be in favor of an increasing amount of specialized work in the later years of the course.

PLANS FOR COMMITTEE WORK.

The committee plans to make a special study of the legitimate demands upon the schools for commercial training from the various groups of occupations. Occupations whose demands are to be studied are: (1) Agriculture, (2) manufacturing, (3) banking, (4) insurance, (5) transportation, (6) civil service, (7) professional offices, (8) wholesale establishments, and (9) retail establishments. The committee also proposes to study the various groups of subjects included in the commercial course, as follows: (1) Business technique, (2) secretarial and office training, (3) business English, (4) economics, commercial geography, and industrial history, (5) science and its applications, (6) advertising, and (7) salesmanship. Each member of the general committee will be expected to serve upon one subcommittee in the occupation group and one subcommittee in the subject group. This committee work will start early in 1914. In the meanwhile the committee will try to get in touch with persons who are willing and able to serve on these committees and to consider some of the general problems connected with the aim of commercial education, as commercial instruction in the seventh and eighth grades, the possibility of part-time instruction, etc. A special effort will be made through the National Chamber of Commerce and local chambers of commerce and boards of trade to enlist business men in the work of the committee in ascertaining the definite demands of commercial work upon the schools.

Some of the special problems of the commercial course that have been suggested to the committee are listed below. The committee would like more of these questions and is especially desirous of learning of the experiences of various schools with these or similar problems.

1. Is it possible to teach the elements of accounting in high schools?
2. Is it possible to teach business organization in high schools; and if so, to what extent should it be taught?
3. What equipment of mechanical devices used in offices should be used in schools?
4. What modifications of stenographic systems by the teacher are permissible?
5. Leaving cost of equipment out of consideration, is it desirable to teach typewriting as an office art before stenography?
6. What is an ideal arrangement of hours in stenography and typewriting? Should it be spread over a long period, with a few hours of instruction per week, or concentrated in a short period, with many hours of instruction per week?
7. What should be the content of the business-practice course?
8. How should spelling be taught?
9. Should business correspondence be divided into two courses, namely, (a) an elementary course containing the elementary work to be given in the early part of the course, and (b) an advanced course devoted to such problems as "follow-up" systems, selling goods by mail, etc.?

10. Can advertising be taught in high schools?
11. What practice work can be done in advertising?
12. How can the English and art departments cooperate in teaching advertising?
13. Can salesmanship be taught in high schools?
14. Is it worth while to teach advertising and salesmanship to boys and girls of high-school age?
15. How much time should be devoted to the study of local business conditions?
16. Should history and history of commerce be taught as separate subjects? If taught as separate subjects, should history of commerce be taught before or after economics?
17. What economic problems should be considered in the high-school course? (Those most commonly considered now are trusts, banking and currency, labor, and transportation.)
18. In order to avoid the encyclopedic instruction of the older commercial geography, to what countries and products shall we limit the instruction, and which should we teach in detail?
19. Should the materials of commerce form the subject matter of a separate course, or should the material be given in connection with the sciences of the secondary schools, namely, biology, chemistry, and physics?
20. Should a fourth-year course be given in practical chemistry? Would the expense of the laboratory equipment required for such a course make it prohibitive?
21. How shall commercial schools secure the cooperation of business men?
22. To what extent shall we ask outside experts to give talks to the school or to classes?
23. What should be the content of the mathematical courses in commercial high schools?
24. How can the commercial school carry on part-time work?
25. Should not students of marked ability in the senior class who fill positions satisfactorily during the last 10 weeks of the course be permitted to graduate without taking an examination?

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