INSTRUCTION IN ENGLISH

BULLETIN, 1932, No. 17

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MONOGRAPH No. 20

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
RAY LYMAN WILBUR : SECRETARY

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COMMISSIONER

INSTRUCTION IN ENGLISH

BY

DORA V. SMITH

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NOTE

Dora V. Smith, the author of this monograph, is associate professor in education at the University of Minnesota and specialist in English of the NATIONAL SURVEY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION. *William John Cooper, United States Commissioner of Education, is director of the Survey; Leonard V. Koos, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago, is associate director; and Carl A. Jessen, specialist in secondary education of the Office of Education, is coordinator.*

CONTENTS

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
OFFICE OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., January, 1933.

SIR: Within a period of 30 years the high-school enrollment has increased from a little over 10 per cent of the population of high-school age to more than 50 per cent of that population. This enrollment is so unusual for a secondary school that it has attracted the attention of Europe, where only 8 to 10 per cent attend secondary schools. Many European educators have said that we are educating too many people. I believe, however, that the people of the United States are now getting a new conception of education. They are coming to look upon education as a preparation for citizenship and for daily life rather than for the money return which comes from it. They are looking upon the high school as a place for their boys and girls to profit at a period when they are not yet acceptable to industry.

In order that we may know where we stand in secondary education, the membership of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools four years ago took the lead in urging a study. It seemed to them that it was wise for such a study to be made by the Government of the United States rather than by a private foundation; for if such an agency studied secondary education, it might be accused either rightly or wrongly of a bias toward a special interest. When the members of a committee of this association appeared before the Bureau of the Budget in 1928, they received a very courteous hearing. It was impossible, so the Chief of the Budget Bureau thought, to obtain all the money which the commission felt desirable; with the money which was obtained, $225,000, to be expended over a 3-year period, it was found impossible to do all the things that the committee had in mind. It was possible, however, to study those things which pertained strictly to secondary education, that is, its organization; its curriculum, including some of the more fundamental subjects, and particularly those subjects on which a comparison could be made between the present and

earlier periods; its extracurriculum, which is almost entirely new in the past 30 years; the pupil population; and administrative and supervisory problems, personnel, and activities.

The handling of this survey was intrusted to Dr. Leonard V. Koos, of the University of Chicago. With great skill he has, working on a full-time basis during his free quarters from the University of Chicago and part time during other quarters, brought it to a conclusion.

This manuscript on English was written by Dr. Dora V. Smith of the University of Minnesota. It shows the changes that have come over this subject during the past 40 years particularly, describes the condition in which it now is, and makes suggestions for further study.

It finds a good deal of uncertainty in the matter of the formal study of grammar. Emphasis varies. Some courses of study enumerate 45 principles which should receive attention; others name as many as 149. There appears to be no agreement as to what grammar is functional.

A modern attitude is shown toward literature. In the West more freedom is allowed in choice of readings than in the East. Courses in free reading are being offered in many schools and are enjoyed especially by gifted pupils. Only 57 of 156 courses examined agree upon any one classic which should be studied by all the children. Where teachers are still insisting upon some classic, they are offering as an excuse that the colleges require it; however, studies of college-entrance requirements fail to show any individual college insisting upon any one classic; nor does the College-Entrance Examination Board place such a requirement.

This interesting and illuminating manuscript I recommend be published as a monograph of the National Survey of Secondary Education.

Respectfully submitted.

WM. JOHN COOPER,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

INSTRUCTION IN ENGLISH

CHAPTER I : SCOPE AND METHOD OF THE INVESTIGATION

Purpose and procedure.—The task of surveying outstanding practice in the teaching of English in secondary schools to-day is at once challenging and formidable. The purpose of the investigation, to present an accurate picture of general trends and suggestive innovations which will be of help to teachers and curriculum makers throughout the country, demands first of all the careful collecting of data not always easy to secure nor to evaluate as reliable indexes of present practice. In the second place it requires the organization and synthesis of these facts in such a way that their presentation may be clear and effective and their interpretation unbiased and significant of the direction of progress in the near future.

To this end three methods of investigation were employed: First, an analysis of representative courses of study in secondary-school English, produced in various parts of the country from 1925 to the present time; second, extensive classroom visitation during the school year 1930–31 in 15 widely separated States for the purpose of seeing the courses in operation, discussing with teachers and supervisors the major problems of the teaching of English, and observing, first hand, significant practice in school systems whose courses of study revealed important innovations in either subject matter or method; and, third, interpretation of the findings in terms of the purposes of secondary education as a whole and of the known results of scientific investigation of the teaching of English in secondary schools.

Analysis of courses of study.—Through the cordial cooperation of supervisors and administrators, 156 courses of study, which, with two exceptions, had appeared since 1925, were secured from 127 cities in 33 States. Three were published by departments of education for use in their respective

States. The cities concerned range in population from 1,756 to 6,930,000. The distributions appear in Tables 1 and 2.

TABLE 1.—*States represented with English courses in the survey*

State	Number of courses	State	Number of courses
Arizona	2	New Jersey	10
Arkansas	1	New York	7
California	19	Ohio	7
Colorado	4	Oklahoma	2
Connecticut	1	Oregon	3
Illinois	10	Pennsylvania	10
Indiana	4	Rhode Island	3
Iowa	4	South Dakota	1
Kansas	2	Tennessee	1
Louisiana	1	Texas	6
Maine	1	Utah	1
Maryland	1	Virginia	4
Massachusetts	6	Washington	9
Michigan	14	West Virginia	4
Minnesota	2	Wisconsin	8
Missouri	4		
Montana	3	Total	156
Nebraska	1		

TABLE 2.—*Distribution by size of cities contributing English courses* [1]

Population	Number	Population	Number
6,900,000	1	50,000 to 100,000	33
1,200,000	1	20,000 to 50,000	18
500,000 to 1,000,000	7	10,000 to 20,000	12
400,000 to 500,000	3	5,000 to 10,000	11
300,000 to 400,000	3	Fewer than 5,000	8
200,000 to 300,000	8		
100,000 to 200,000	22	Total	127

[1] Figures for cities of more than 30,000 population were available from the 1930 census. The others are from the census of 1920.

Of the 156 courses, 62 were for junior high schools, 23 for senior high schools (grades 10–12), 47 for 4-year high schools, and 24 for 6-year junior-senior high schools. The total includes 86 courses for the junior high school, 47 for the senior high school, and 47 for the 4-year high-school organization. Forty-seven cities are represented by both junior and senior high school syllabi.

Examination of the tables will show a satisfactory distribution of courses from various sections of the country.[1]

[1] The cities represented are as follows: Aberdeen, S. Dak.; Ann Arbor, Mich.; Allentown, Pa.; Arlington, Mass.; Athens, Ohio; Aurora, Ill.; Austin, Tex.; Baltimore, Md.; Batavia, Ill.; Bay City, Mich.; Bayonne, N. J.; Bend, Oreg.; Berkeley, Calif.; Bisbee, Ariz.; Bogota, N. J.; Boston, Mass.; Charleston, W. Va.; Cicero, Ill.; Clarksburg, W. Va.; Cleveland, Ohio;

That they are a reliable index of current tendencies is indicated by the fact that 17 of them appeared during the years 1925 and 1926, 38 in 1927 and 1928, 84 in 1929 and 1930, and 8 during the spring of 1931 while this study was in progress. Two appeared earlier than 1925; for 7, no dates were available. Since the request to the schools was for courses which appeared not earlier than 1925, it is reasonable to assume that they represent that period.

As a matter of interest, it may be noted that 58 per cent of the courses were in mimeographed or multigraphed form, 32 per cent were printed, and 10 per cent were typewritten. The range in length appears in Table 3.

The senior high school courses were notably longer than the junior high school courses, the median for the former being 65 mimeographed pages and 170 printed, and for the latter, 45 mimeographed pages and 110 printed. A larger proportion of 4-year high-school courses was reduced in length than was that of any other type. The mimeographed courses including junior and senior high school outlines within the same syllabus were also comparatively limited in offering.

Of the 156 courses examined, 48 were mere outlines of content to be covered, 74 gave considerable space to teacher helps and suggestions, and 34 were unique in the extent and value of related materials provided.

Cleveland Heights, Ohio; Colorado Springs, Colo.; Cranston, R. I.; Dallas, Tex.; Dayton, Ohio; Decatur, Ill.; Denver, Colo.; Detroit, Mich.; Downers Grove, Ill.; Dubuque, Iowa; East Chicago, Ill.; East St. Louis, Ill.; Elizabeth, N. J.; El Paso, Tex.; Eugene, Oreg.; Everett, Wash.; Flint, Mich.; Fordson, Mich.; Fresno, Calif.; Gary, Ind.; Grand Rapids, Mich.; Great Falls, Mont.; Green Bay, Wis.; Harrisburg, Pa.; Hartford, Conn.; Hazleton, Pa.; Hibbing, Minn.; Highland Park, Mich.; Houston, Tex.; Hutchinson, Kans.; Ithaca, N. Y.; Janesville, Wis.; Kalispell, Mont.; Kansas City, Kans.; Kansas City, Mo.; Kenosha, Wis.; La Crosse, Wis.; Lakewood, Ohio; Lansing, Mich.; La-Salle-Peru, Ind.; Lima, Ohio; Linden, N. J.; Little Rock; Ark.; Lompoc, Calif.; Long Beach, Calif.; Los Angeles, Calif.; Lynn, Mass.; McKeesport, Pa.; Medford, Mass.; Medford, Oreg.; Merrill, Wis.; Minneapolis, Minn. Montana State; Montclair, N. J.; Mount Clemens, Mich.; Newark, N. J.; New Brunswick, N. J.; Newcastle, Pa.; New Orleans; La.; New Rochelle, N. Y.; New York City; Oakland, Calif.; Oklahoma State; Omaha, Nebr.; Oshkosh, Wis.; Pasadena, Calif.; Paterson, N. J.; Peoria, Ill.; Perry, Iowa; Pittsburgh, Pa.; Portland, Me.; Portland, Oreg.; Providence, R. I.; Pueblo, Colo.; Racine, Wis.; Reading, Pa.; Redwood City, Calif.; Richmond, Va.; River Rouge, Mich.; Roanoke, Va.; Rochester, N. Y.; Rockford, Ill.; Sacramento, Calif.; Saginaw, Mich.; St. Louis, Mo.; Salt Lake City, Utah; San Diego, Calif.; San Francisco, Calif.; San Mateo, Calif.; Santa Monica, Calif.; Schenectady, N. Y.; Seattle, Wash.; Sioux City, Iowa; Sistersville, W. Va.; Somerville, Mass.; South Bend, Ind.; Spokane, Wash.; Springfield, Mass.; Springfield, Mo.; Stockton, Calif.; Syracuse, N. Y.; Tacoma, Wash.; Trenton, N. J.; Tulsa, Okla.; Tucson, Ariz.; Union City, Tenn.; Washington State; Waukesha, Wis.; Winnetka, Ill.; Yakima, Wash.

TABLE 3.—*Relative length of courses in pages*

Number of pages	Mimeographed or multigraphed	Printed	Typewritten	Total
1	2	3	4	5
360-79				
340-59		2		2
320-39				0
300-19		1		1
280-99	1			1
260-79	1	1		2
240-59		1		1
220-39		2		2
200-19	1			1
180-199				0
160-179	1	2		3
140-159	3	4		7
120-139	5	2		7
100-119	0	2	1	3
80-99	5	3		8
60-79	3	3		6
40-59	8	5		13
20-39	18	3	2	23
0-19	25	9	6	40
	20	10	6	36
Total	91	50	15	156
Median	40.56	72.00	25.00	41.74

Classroom visitation and conference.—On the basis of the findings revealed in the analysis of courses, 30 cities were chosen for visitation in 15 different States. In each case the selection was based upon unique features in content or method judged valuable in the tracing of superior practices throughout the country. During two separate periods of visitation from four to five weeks in length, classes were observed in 70 junior and senior high schools from Los Angeles to Cranston, R. I., and from Seattle to Richmond, Va. Consultation with teachers, supervisors, superintendents of schools, departments of curriculum research, and committees in process of evolving new courses of study proved invaluable in the interpretation of data culled from the courses themselves and in the understanding of practical problems of the teaching of English in secondary schools to-day. Appreciation can not be too heartily expressed for the cordial reception and helpful cooperation received from teachers and supervisors throughout the country.

CHAPTER II : ADMINISTRATIVE SET-UP FOR CURRICULUM MAKING IN ENGLISH

Supervisory and committee procedures.—Courses of study for the most part do not refer to the administrative set-up under which they were produced. That teacher committees predominate is obvious from lists of names appended, but the official status of the members is seldom indicated. Conferences in different parts of the country reveal varied programs in operation.

Large cities commonly work under the direction of a department of curriculum research. If the system has a supervisor of English, he directs the program with the cooperation of existing bureaus of research. In the absence of special supervisors, an assistant superintendent frequently assumes the responsibility, dividing his time among various departments of the schools, and often centering his attention upon a different high-school subject each year. Committees of teachers usually contain one representative from each school, who acts as a go-between in gathering evidence and opinion from the other teachers in her department. Some cities use the Denver plan of releasing committee workers from regular duties for work upon the course of study. Others prefer to release one teacher for a semester to do the acutal writing in conjunction with committees at work in the various schools. Occasionally the supervisor writes the course, outlines of which have been prepared by consultative committees of teachers. In some places agreements have been entered into with university extension divisions whereby teachers register for a course with a curriculum expert and produce the syllabus for university credit. Still others give recognition to service so rendered by means of a point system leading to salary raises and professional advancement.

In the majority of smaller cities, however, courses are produced by a small group of teachers working in conjunction with the members of their own departments, with little connection with the program of secondary education as a

whole. Usually the chairman of the committee is the head of the department of English in the senior high school. In several instances the same person presides over the junior high school committee. A more satisfactory procedure, because of the difference in emphasis in the objectives of the two secondary-school units, may be to have a teacher from each institution head up its own committee with a representative of the institution above or the institution below, as the case may be. Such a program, together with joint meetings of the committees at all levels of instruction, makes for necessary articulation in the program of the school as a whole.

There is wide difference in the amount of cooperation secured from teachers throughout the cities in the preparation of the course of study. In school systems such as Baltimore, Cleveland, Denver, Seattle, and Los Angeles the widest possible contacts are made through conference, questionnaire, and the promotion of research. In Baltimore the present program of curriculum revision was inaugurated at a meeting of English teachers called by the superintendent and addressed by him and by the supervisors of junior and senior high school English. General principles of curriculum construction were set forth and definite lines of investigation proposed. As a result, by the end of one year, every English teacher in Baltimore had contributed a tested teaching unit or the results of some type of investigation to the committee in charge of the revision.

Relation of research to curriculum making in English.—Programs of research in connection with curriculum making in English are probably less frequent than the interests of permanent progress would demand. Many cities refer to the fact that, unable to carry on research undertakings themselves, they have based their courses of study frankly upon those of some other city whose activities have been heralded in print. Often the city in question is in an entirely different section of the country, and has social, economic, and cultural problems different from their own. Other cities refer to the well-known scissors-and-paste method of curriculum construction, in which teachers have labored faithfully to compile the requirements of numbers of courses considered outstanding by some recognized bureau of

research. A few have used in the building of courses the results of scientific investigations available in print, acknowledging frankly their own inability to carry on research.

On the other hand, the term "research" in curriculum construction is often loosely used to indicate general consideration and discussion of problems related to the new course of study and the deficiencies of the previous one. "Trying out" courses in the classroom to see how teachers "think they work" is another procedure commonly referred to as a research activity.

A few large cities are engaged in studies which contribute valuable supplementary data concerning the problems of curriculum making. Free reading has been the basis of investigation in Denver, Los Angeles, and Seattle. The Los Angeles junior high school course is based upon a careful analysis of pupil achievement in the mechanics of English leading to more adequate grade placement of materials. Reading materials for weak classes have likewise been the subject of study in Cleveland, San Francisco, and Oakland. The last city has tested results of elective versus required courses in English as related to the success of its students in the University of California. Experiments with remedial reading and the mechanics of English have likewise been conducted in various parts of the country, work in Baltimore, Detroit, New Rochelle, and Rochester being typical.

In general, however, examination of courses and procedures in curriculum making in English suggests that the primary need of the moment is for actual experimental investigation of procedures, placing one program against another for comparison, and recording results as objectively as possible for evaluation in terms of *all* the objectives of education.

Program of appraisal of courses of study.—So far as the writer has been able to judge, programs for the appraisal of courses of study are almost nonexistent. There seems to be a fear among administrators and supervisors that a testing program based necessarily upon the mere technicalities of the course will lead to an overstressing of things mechanical to the detriment of the broader values of the program. Recognition of the course of study as tentative and perpetually subject to change is almost universal. Every-

where reference is made to the preparation of the course as a core from which teachers must vary as the needs of individual pupils demand. Everywhere it is presented as a means of standardization of average practice not intended to hamper the individuality of the teacher. Observation leads to the belief that, on the whole, teachers adhere to the program set more rigidly than administrative authorities desire or expect.

CHAPTER III : RELATION TO THE GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATION

Fourteen of the one hundred and fifty-six courses analyzed contain reference to the general objectives of secondary education. It is possible that in some cases such aims were presented to teachers and curriculum makers under separate cover. Numbers of courses, certainly, are so organized as to contribute in one way or another to the larger purposes of secondary education. Here and there programs in contemporary and world literature, in the modern essay, in the study of biography and pioneering adventure aim to awaken in boys and girls an alertness to the social, moral, and economic problems of their own era and to the challenge of its cultural and scientific frontiers. An occasional gifted teacher, by her method of presenting literature, makes traditional titles contribute to a similar end. The same may be said of selected classes in oral and written composition and in public speaking. The free-reading movement taking form in the West, together with the definite trend in the direction of extensive reading, suggests that high-school classes in literature may in the near future contribute more generously than they have in the past to the enrichment of personal living among boys and girls. Courses in creative writing, when they are able to detach themselves from sonnet forms and madrigals, contribute similarly to the recreational and esthetic enjoyment of the gifted few. Perhaps the most notable agency in this direction at the moment is the little theater within the school. Occupational efficiency, aside from the training in fundamental English skills, is cared for primarily through oral talks and essays informative in nature and through the individual reading of biography.

It is easy to point to a few notable examples. Careful analysis of the rank and file of syllabi, however, suggests that the extent to which the average course of study in English realizes its opportunity to contribute to the general aims of education is fairly represented by the ratio of 14 to 142.

CHAPTER IV : TIME ALLOTMENTS IN SECONDARY-SCHOOL ENGLISH

Proportion of time devoted to English.—Thirty-four of 62 junior high school courses mention the total time devoted to English. In 29, or 85.3 per cent, it is five periods a week in each grade. Those which deviate from this number usually provide more than five periods per week in at least some of the grades. The length of period is not mentioned frequently enough to be recorded here.

The findings of this investigation reveal slightly lower time allotments than those of the general curriculum report of the survey, in which the average for 60 junior high schools is 5.8 periods per week, 6.4 in the seventh grade, 6.1 in the eighth grade, and 5 in the ninth grade. The latter likewise are lower than the corresponding figures for the same schools for 1915–1920, when the averages were 7.4 periods per week in the seventh grade, 7.5 in the eighth, and 5.2 in the ninth. These changes parallel the relative disappearance of separate phases of English, such as spelling, penmanship, grammar, language, literature, and reading, and suggest an economy of time through the unification of English activities and a sharing of responsibility for correct and effective expression by all other departments of the school. Elimination of nonessentials, improved methods of teaching, and a wider cooperation among all departments in which expressional and reading skills are practiced must necessarily parallel the reduction of time unless a corresponding decrease in accomplishment is to follow.

For senior high schools the time allotment is rarely mentioned, five periods a week apparently being the accepted norm.

Division of time between composition and literature.—Sixty per cent of the junior high school courses and 53 per cent of the senior and 4-year high-school courses indicate the proposed division of time between composition and literature within the various grades. Whether the division is adhered

to by teachers, it is impossible to tell. The figures represent at least a theoretical standard considered adequate by curriculum makers.

Figure 1 shows the median and quartile distributions of time devoted to literature and composition in grades 7 through 12 for 37 junior and 56 senior and 4-year high schools.

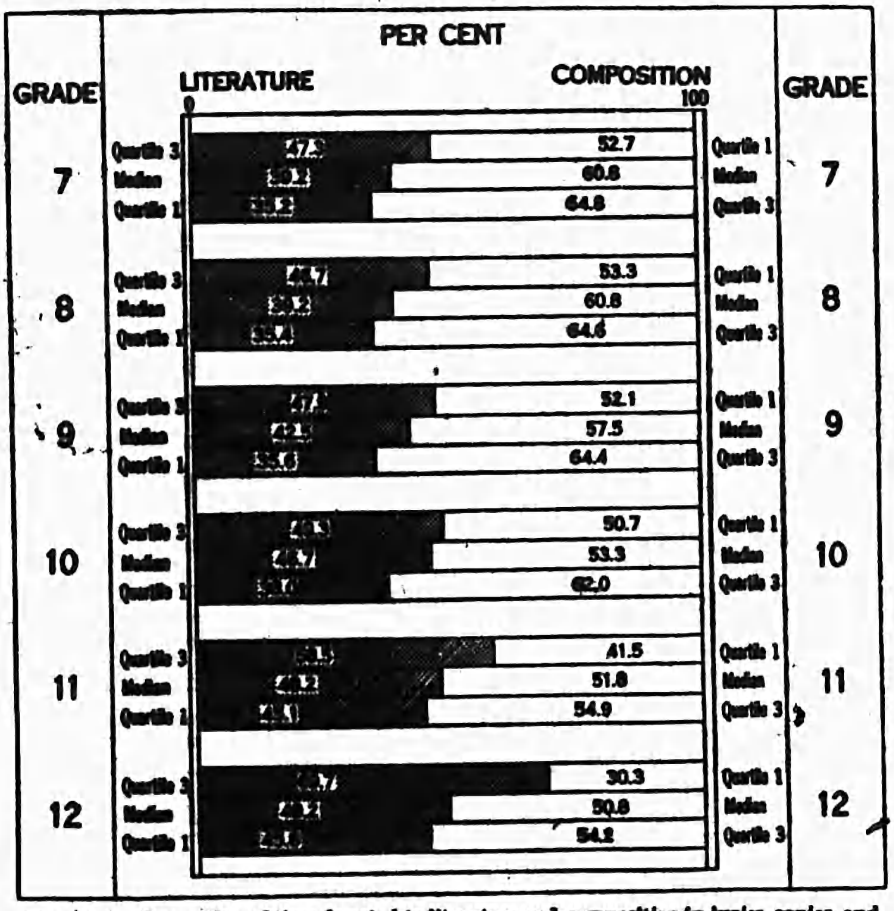

FIGURE 1.—Proportion of time devoted to literature and composition in junior, senior, and 4-year high schools

The middle bar in each case represents the median amount of time for the grade indicated. The median junior high school reporting devotes three-fifths of the time to composition and two-fifths to literature, more than three-fourths of the schools spending at least half of their time on oral and written expression, including grammar. The division is relatively constant throughout the three years, the ninth grade showing a slight increase in the time devoted to literature and a corresponding decrease in that given to composition.

For senior and 4-year high schools the data in Figure 1 reveal on the average a gradual decrease in time devoted to composition from the ninth grade through the twelfth. Examination of extremes is important in this case. Figures in the lowest fourth show only 1 school spending less than half time on composition in the ninth grade and 20 in the twelfth. One-tenth of the schools, moreover, devote less than 10 per cent of their English time to composition in the twelfth year. The percentage of time devoted to composition in that year is notably increased by the practice of offering a course in senior composition for students preparing for college entrance and for those desiring a final review before leaving school for the business world. Observation of actual practice throughout the schools suggests that the relative emphasis upon literature in grades 11 and 12 is greater than the proposed time allotments would indicate.

Distribution of composition and literature throughout the year.—The distribution of literature and composition work in junior, senior, and 4-year high schools is shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Distribution of literature and composition*

Distribution	Junior high school		4-year and senior high school		Total	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Literature one term and composition the next	5	5.81	16	17.02	21	11.66
2. Literature and composition units alternating within the same term	31	36.05	30	31.91	61	33.90
3. Choice of 1 or 2	14	16.28	2	2.13	16	8.89
4. Literature and composition within the same term; distribution not indicated	27	31.40	36	38.30	63	35.00
5. Literature and composition distributed by days within the week	2	2.33	7	7.45	9	5.00
6. Literature and composition daily within the same class period	1	1.16	0	0	1	.55
7. Distribution of composition and literature left to teacher's discretion	1	1.16	2	2.13	3	1.70
8. Distribution not indicated	5	5.81	1	1.06	6	3.33
Total	86	100.00	94	100.00	180	100.00

The majority of schools teach both literature and composition within the same term, 33.90 per cent using a scheme

of alternating units, in which a literature unit of approximately a month's duration is followed by a corresponding unit in composition, and vice versa. Undoubtedly the senior high schools not indicating the nature of the distribution within the term do the same. An occasional junior high school teaches literature and composition in parallel courses three and five or two and three days a week. It is impossible from the wording of the syllabi to tell which follow this plan. The widespread use of the unit method of instruction appears to have broken down both the artificial divorce of literature from expression and the equally artificial dependence of composition upon literature for its subject matter. There is some evidence of the persistence of the latter practice, although the prevalence of life activities in composition work is very encouraging. In order to avoid the difficulty of averaging marks in two fields so different in their demands upon the pupil, the Los Angeles course for junior high schools alternates 4 and 6 week units, either literary or expressional activities predominating in a given semester. The small proportion of schools following the once popular plan of distributing literature and composition alternately within the days of the same week is likewise worthy of note.

Proportion of composition time devoted to various phases of expression.—For a small group of schools (15 junior high schools and 12 senior or 4-year high schools) it is possible to find the proportion of composition time devoted to grammar and to oral and written composition. The figures indicate that on the average, in theory at least, junior high schools which indicate allotments for the separate phases of composition devote about one-third of the time to each. The proportion allotted to grammar rises higher than that of either of the other elements and does not drop below 20 per cent in any school. Both oral and written composition descend to 10 per cent, and one school gives less than one-tenth of its time to oral expression. Since later figures indicate that a large share of the work in written composition is drill upon correct usage and the mechanics of form, in practice the totals for grammar are larger than the table would indicate. Figures for the ninth grade in 4-year high

schools show what appears in several parts of this study—that trends in the ninth grade of junior high schools parallel closely those of the ninth grade in 4-year senior high schools. The testimony of teachers and the wording of courses of study support the conclusion that both are governed in large part by the demands (real or imagined) of the senior high school which their pupils will attend.

Figures showing time allotments for separate phases of composition in the senior and 4-year high school are even more scanty than those for the lower school. What evidence is available indicates less emphasis on oral composition throughout grades 10 through 12 than in the junior high school years, and more upon written composition in all grades except the tenth, where grammar is more stressed than either oral or written expression. Two schools offer review courses in grammar alone in the eleventh and twelfth years.

Relative proportion of space devoted to various elements of composition.—As supplementary evidence of the relative emphasis upon grammar, letter writing, and oral and written composition in secondary schools to-day, analysis was made of the space devoted to each in 30 representative junior and senior high school courses.

In the junior high school the percentage of space by inches devoted to composition parallels closely the proportion indicated in the time allotments presented. In the senior high school it is decidedly less. The same may be said of grammar. If one may judge from the proportion of grammar teaching to be observed in the senior high school to-day, the amplification of the quarter-inch injunction, "Review the fundamentals of grammar studied in previous years," increases the emphasis on this subject past all recognition. The most significant evidence of proportion of emphasis as it is revealed by space allotment in the courses concerns relative stress upon oral and written composition and letter writing. The emphasis on written activities in the junior high schools is more than double that on oral expression. In the senior high schools it is more than three times as great.

Common sense and the evidence of the Clapp report both urge the preeminence of oral over written activities in every-

day life.[1] The opinion of experts is emphatically that oral expression is "of first importance" in our schools.[2] In spite of the obvious interrelationship of oral and written language, in spite also of the more meticulous demands of manuscript form, of punctuation, and of spelling, which necessitate careful attention to written expression in both junior and senior high school years, it would seem obvious that curriculum makers should reevaluate these activities in terms of the requirements of everyday life.

No one questions the fact that letter writing is the major writing activity of the adult world. In Dr. Roy I. Johnson's analysis of functional centers in everyday expression it tops the list in social and business life, in the use of leisure, and with one exception, in civic duties and responsibilities.[3] While it is obvious that the percentage of space devoted to letter writing in a course of study may be a very poor index of its place in the activities of the classroom, the relative lack of attention to letter writing in both junior and senior high school courses must be significant. It seems inconceivable that in 3 of the 15 junior high school courses and 4 of the 15 senior high school courses thus examined, letter writing receives no mention whatever. In others, while whole paragraphs are devoted to composition procedures of one kind or another, letter writing is passed over with the mere topical mention of "business and social letter forms."[4]

Further analysis was also made of the relative amount of suggestion given to teachers for work in the form versus the content and spirit of oral and written composition. In both junior and senior high schools stress upon form and correctness in written composition is almost double that upon content and spirit. In oral composition the stress is slightly more upon content than upon form in the junior high school

[1] Clapp, John M. The Place of English in American Life. Chicago, National Council of Teachers of English, 1926. Similar evidence is now available from Walter Barnes's study of the out-of-school language activities of junior high school pupils. Unpublished doctor's thesis. New York University, 1930.

[2] National Education Association: The Junior High School Curriculum, p. 106. Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. Washington, D. C., 1927.

[3] Johnson, Roy I. English Expression. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co, 1926.

[4] The latter practice explains the inconsistency between the figures of this section and the high place of letter writing in the list of composition activities compiled from the courses examined.

and somewhat greater on form than on content in the senior high school.

Obviously the relative proportion of space devoted to a topic in the course of study may be a very poor indication of its relative emphasis in teaching. The evidence presented in this section merely corroborates the impression gained from classroom visitation and from the compilation of aims, that the form of expression, whether oral or written, receives notably more emphasis in secondary schools to-day than does the desirability of having ideas to express.[5]

[5] A recent master's thesis from Johns Hopkins University has produced evidence of the high correlation between marks on compositions and the number of errors in mechanics, and the lack of relationship between the same marks and the thought value of the compositions. Healy, Katherine L. A Study of the Factors Involved in the Rating of Pupils' Compositions. Unpublished master's thesis, Johns Hopkins University, 1929.

CHAPTER V : THE TEACHING OF COMPOSITION

Aims of composition.—Analysis of the aims of instruction in English is exceedingly difficult because of the prevailing lack of differentiation between general and specific objectives and between the ends of instruction and the means by which these ends are to be achieved. General aims of English composition vary from "inculcating in the pupil a realization of the complexity of human nature and social life" to teaching him "to copy and take dictation." The same objectives occur again and again in one course as *general* and in another as *specific*. Minor activities appear also as coordinate with the essential contributions of English to the pupils' adjustment to the world about him instead of as the means by which these larger purposes are to be attained. It seems reasonable to suggest that a clarification of aims in the teaching of English in the near future demands clear thinking in regard to distinctions between general and specific objectives and the pupil activities through which both are to be achieved.

The general aims of composition teaching from 53 junior high school and 67 senior and 4-year high-school courses combined are presented in Figure 2. Thirty-six of the syllabi contained no statement of aims.

The first aim, to promote skill in organizing the materials of thought, experience, and reading, includes such abilities as outlining, summary writing, and the grouping and organizing of ideas to make them effective for the purpose in hand. The second, to give pupils a mastery of the fundamentals of grammar and mechanical accuracy, combines such statements as "to give pupils command of the tools of language," "to give complete mastery of a few technicalities," "to eliminate common errors," "to inculcate correctness of manuscript form." Aims 3 and 4 are self-evident: To promote among pupils ability to express their thoughts clearly and fluently and to increase the pupil's vocabulary and power of discrimination in the use of words. No. 5, to motivate the pupil to a sense of the value of adequate expression, includes such factors as

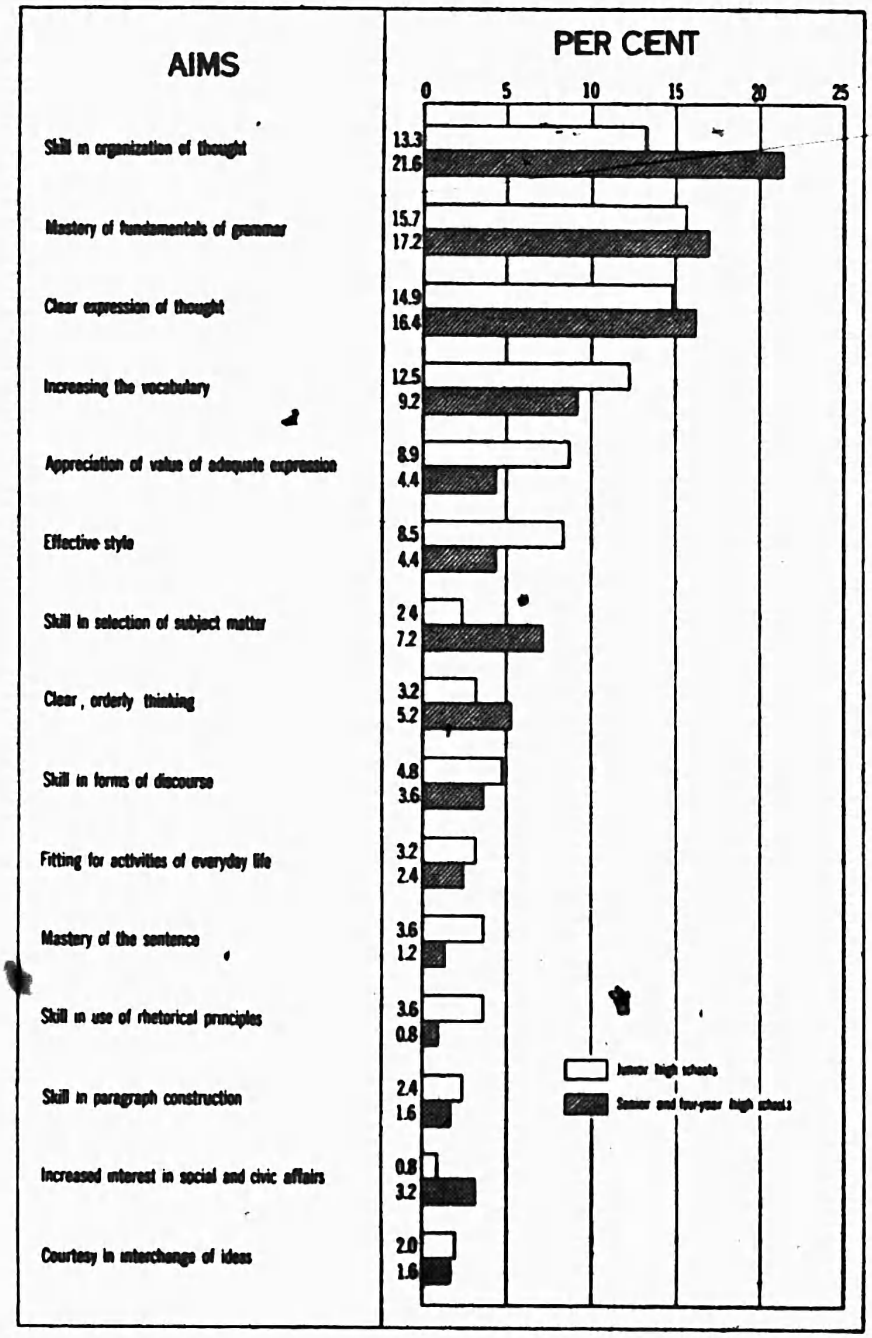

FIGURE 2.—Aims of teaching composition in the junior, senior, and 4-year high schools, with per cent of mention of each

creating among pupils a desire to speak well, giving them a sense of individual responsibility for the use of good English, and helping them to see clearly the goal toward which they are striving.

The sixth aim, to promote in the pupil's writing elements of interest and effective style, includes all mention of elements of style which go beyond mere correctness and clarity in their attention to effects produced—"To develop strength and grace of expression," "to give appreciation of means of arousing interest," "to foster the use of effects of light and shade in the expression of one's views."

Aim 7, to develop power in selection of subject matter from observation, experience, and reading, is concerned with such abilities as the use of reference materials without plagiarism, the development of keenness of observation, the selecting of materials with reader and occasion in mind; in short, everything associated with the phrase, "winning possession of subject matter."

Aim 8, to stimulate keen judgment and the habit of clear, orderly thinking, differs from aim 3 in that it is concerned primarily with judgment, evaluation, and reflection, while the latter deals with clarity of expression, omission of *and-a*, and other hindrances to fluency.

Aim 9, to develop an understanding of and an ability in writing various forms of discourse or types of writing, includes all statements which refer specifically to forms of discourse as such; for instance, "elementary argumentation," or "the technique of description or of short-story writing." The same is true of aims 12 and 13, in which formal mention is made of "inculcating the principles of unity and coherence in writing" and teaching "the laws" of paragraph unity and development.

The other aims would seem to need no explanation: Aim 10, to fit pupils for the oral and written activities of everyday life; aim 11, to teach pupils to write effective sentences and to recognize sentences of different types (that is, exclamatory, complex, etc.); aim 14, to widen the pupil's interest in social and civic affairs and to awaken him to a sense of responsibility concerning them; and aim 15, to promote habits of courteous interchange of ideas.

The large emphasis upon mastery of the fundamentals of expression evident in these statements of objectives is in harmony with the recommendations of educational leaders to-day. The correspondingly low place accorded to elements of style, to forms of discourse, and to technical study of rhetorical principles reveals a similar tendency to look upon English "not as an artistic outlet or form of æsthetic or spiritual self-realization," [1] so far as the majority of students are concerned, but as a "tool of thought and of expression for use in public and private life." [2] For instance, the aim of developing a vivid imagination occurs only three times in 120 courses of study. This evidence suggests that the desire "to fit pupils for the oral and written activities of everyday life" is more prevalent than its frequency in the table would indicate. The relatively large stress upon cultivation of the desire to improve one's use of language is characteristic of the growing importance of motivation in education to-day.[3]

Judged in terms of "having something to say, a valid reason for saying it, and the necessary technical equipment to say it," [4] the list of objectives shows clearly a decided emphasis upon the mechanics of expression. The desirability of having ideas to express occurs seventh in the list, and the bearing of these ideas upon the social and civic relationships in everyday life is as low as fourteenth. Observation of classroom activities in composition leads to the impression that the figures are representative of practice as well as of theory in the country to-day.

The relative emphasis upon various aims in junior versus senior high schools is curiously interesting. One would expect the larger stress on accuracy in the lower school and on organization in the higher. However, to find the junior high school emphasizing technical rhetorical principles, forms of discourse, and elements of style to a greater degree than

[1] National Education Association: The Junior High School Curriculum, p. 99. Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. Washington, D. C., 1927.

[2] Reorganization of English in Secondary Schools, p. 30. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., Bulletin, 1917, No. 2. Government Printing Office.

[3] Pendleton's study also found mention of "an attitude of prompt effective abolishment of error." Pendleton, Charles S. The Social Objectives of School English. Nashville, Tenn., George Peabody College for Teachers, 1924.

[4] National Education Association: The Junior High School Curriculum, pp. 101–102. Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. Washington, D. C., 1927.

the senior high school suggests a need for careful consideration of function on the part of curriculum makers in the lower school.

Specific aims of written composition.—The specific aims of written composition appear in Figure 3. Stated in full, they are as follows: Ability to (1) write with correctness and proper attention to mechanical form; (2) write a simple, well-constructed paragraph; (3) write well-unified, coherent sentences; (4) construct correct and effective letters; (5) do specified types of theme writing; (6) punctuate and capitalize correctly; (7) express thoughts freely and effectively with some approach to style; (8) do creative writing; (9) outline; (10) apply rhetorical principles of unity, coherence, and emphasis; (11) organize materials and develop a theme at some length; (12) gather and evaluate materials from observation, experience, and reading; (13) choose words effectively; (14) write specified forms of discourse; (15) think clearly and honestly, forming independent judgments; (16) correlate grammar and composition to their mutual advantage; (17) appreciate the value of success in composition writing; (18) observe and interpret the life about one.

Again the emphasis upon practical aspects of writing is evident. The ability to produce simple, well-constructed paragraphs stands next to the top, whereas the more cultivated skills in creative writing and developing a theme at some length drop to the middle of the list. The objectives are grouped primarily to reveal recent emphases and points of view in regard to the possible activities of the class in composition. Ability to do specific kinds of theme writing includes skill in informal exposition or personal narratives. In each case the term *theme writing* appeared in the statement of the objective. Creative writing implies such aims as "to encourage creative writing in fields of individual talent"; "to utilize the play spirit in imaginative and creative work"; and "to give appreciation of and ability to write specific literary types, such as poetry, short stories, and plays based upon real or imagined situations." Again, "ability to write a descriptive paragraph, unified and coherent, sparkling with appealing sense imagery, and creating a definite impression on the mind of the reader," is classed as

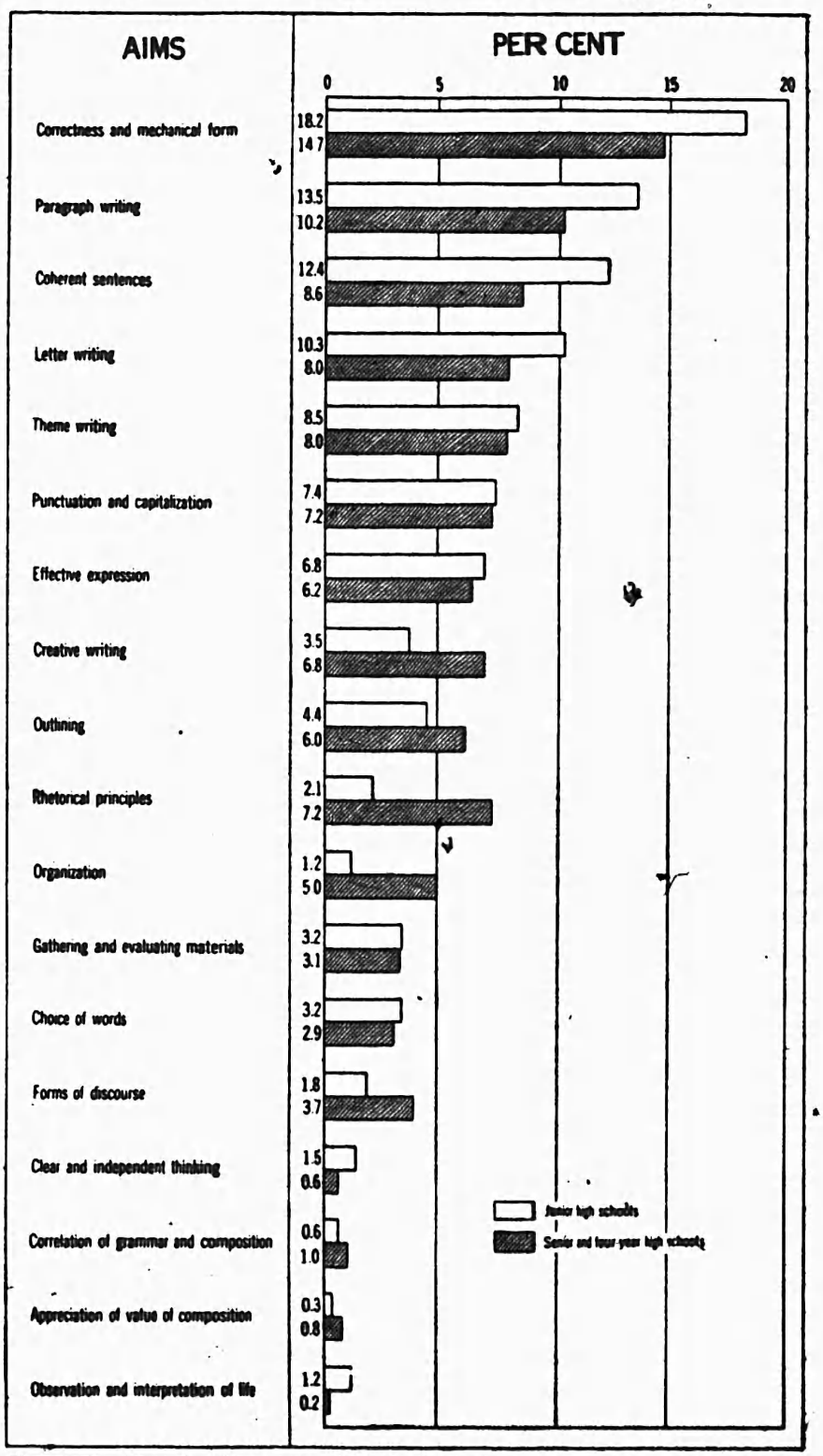

FIGURE 3.—Aims of written composition in the junior, senior, and 4-year high schools, with per cent of mention of each

creative writing rather than as ability to produce a simple, well-constructed paragraph. Ability to write specific forms of discourse includes only those aims which consciously emphasize the four forms of discourse as they appeared in textbooks 10 or 15 years ago. The same distinction separates "ability to apply rhetorical principles of unity, coherence, and emphasis" from "ability to gather and organize materials." From the standpoint of recent trends in teaching, the difference in wording is significant. It is curious that the former still outnumbers the latter and that creative writing should receive more attention than outlining.

This list of objectives, also, gives further evidence of the preoccupation with the mechanics of expression characteristic of English teaching to-day. Ability to think clearly and to form independent judgment is fifteenth on the list and separated by a wide gap from the objectives above it. Only five courses refer in any way to the promoting of observation and interpretation of the life about one as related to the course in composition. Perhaps the desire to state objectives specifically enough to be helpful in the directing of teaching as led curriculum makers to set aside for the moment the larger purposes composition teaching should serve. The list of objectives suggests that builders of the course of study in English have need of returning with their pupils to the essential source of expression—emotional and intellectual stimulation through experience—to discover those normal activities of social and business life in which correctness and form of expression find their only reason for being.

One would not be so bold as to make this assertion on the basis of analysis of courses alone. It is the result also of nine weeks of search throughout the country for classes in composition where ideas were actually being expressed. For days at a time one may accompany a principal from composition class to composition class in his building only to discover that each in its turn is "having grammar" or "doing punctuation exercises to-day." It may be that the old custom of theme writing on Friday reduces by four-fifths one's chances of seeing composition work in progress. One teacher was kind enough to change her plans and "stage" a

lesson in the development of ideas so that the visitor could see how it is done. Whatever the cause, one is compelled to admit that the opportunity for expression of ideas in composition classes to-day is decidedly limited. It is rather in the work in literature that one finds stimulating discussion at its best.

Functional center organization.—The prevailing tendency to regard English primarily as a tool subject may be responsible for the present emphasis on its drill aspects. That the two do not necessarily go hand in hand is illustrated by a typical course of study based on the functional centers of expression in everyday life.[5] Highland Park, Mich., bases its junior high school course on seven types of activity: (1) Conversation and discussion; (2) instructions, directions, and explanations; (3) announcements, reports, speeches; (4) story-telling; (5) writing explanations, stories, and poems; (6) letter writing; and (7) word study and spelling.

Courses of study in general reveal an interesting trend in the direction of this type of organization. In Highland Park each of the functional centers appears in every year of the junior high school course. An effort is made to set up specific activities for each year, so that a progressive, spiral program results. The requirements in story-telling, for instance, are as follows:

7B. Study of characteristics of good stories; telling of personal experiences; narration of excerpts from outside reading.

7A. Anecdotes: For entertainment, as an indication of character, for personal or historical discussion; telling jokes.

8B. Study of qualities of good narration; telling stories; from literature, fables, fairy tales, and folk tales, for entertainment and illustration; other imaginative stories.

8A. Stories for special occasions. Anecdotes: To win attention; to illustrate a point of view, from history or biography, about members of class or school or community.

9B. Study of informal story-telling: Telling longer stories of personal adventure, original imaginative stories, selections from literature, humorous tales, local or historical legends.

9A. Anecdotes: For special occasions, for club, assembly, or after-dinner talks, for personal conversations; jokes, criticism and appropriate use.[6]

[5] Johnson, R. I. English Expression. Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill., 1927.

[6] Tentative Outline for English, Grades 7-8-9. Highland Park, Mich., 1930.

Denver teachers, working on the same plan of functional centers, prefer to distribute the activities for the sake of variety, repeating each at intervals only from grade 7 through grade 12. They wish also to give each teacher freedom to approach the activity from the point of view of class needs at the moment rather than to set the requirements of each year. That both plans will have followers in the future is already suggested in courses of study submitted for the survey.

Composition activities in use.—About 20 per cent of the junior high school courses and 5 per cent of the senior high school syllabi are organized on some sort of activity basis. Sixteen senior courses and a similar number of those for the junior high school are built around set forms of discourse. The rest, including more than half of each type, are planned on a topical or unit basis, with punctuation, letter writing, grammar, paragraph structure, etc., in disconnected sequence throughout the term.

About 40 courses for junior and senior high schools present lists of composition topics, all rather definitely related to the experiences of boys and girls. A similar number gives lists of suggested activities for classroom use. In order of frequency of mention, those which occur ten times or more are as follows:

Junior high schools	*Senior high schools*
Business letters.	Business letters.
Social or personal letters.	Social letters.
Simple narratives of personal experience.	Outlining.
Writing imaginary stories.	Original essays or stories.
Outlining.	Précis writing.
Writing reports.	Simple narratives of personal experience.
Note taking.	Explanations.
Written explanation.	Reports.
Writing announcements.	News stories.
Taking dictation.	1,000-word themes.
Writing minutes.	Imaginary stories.
Character sketches.	Writing descriptions.
Vocabulary drills.	Note taking.
Original essays or stories.	Preparation of senior essays.

Both lists reveal a common tendency to call an old educational activity by a new pedagogical title. On the whole, however, distinctly functional activities have prominent mention in the group. The high place of letter writing is contradictory to evidence previously presented. The writing of the 1,000-word theme in the junior year is a relatively common practice. The varied topics used, the specific training in the gathering and organizing of materials, and the large use of library and magazine sources suggest that the custom is generally effective. The same apparently can not be said for senior essays where less teacher direction, frantic efforts to produce manuscript on schedule, and the prevalence of dishonesty appear to make the whole procedure of doubtful educative value.

The prevalence of booklet making in literature classes and the wide use of additional activities for the brighter pupils unite in stimulating written composition of a very interesting kind. Mere reproductions of stories appear to be infrequent, the topics suggested stimulating interest and originality among the more gifted pupils. It is equally notable, however, that the reverse is true of much of the busy work in writing which accompanies certain forms of the contract method.

Analysis of the teacher helps for composition work shows emphasis on certain principles recommended by educational leaders to-day: (1) That composition work grow out of actual situations arising in school and community, (2) that it be closely related to the extracurriculum activities of the school, (3) that it be based on genuine pupil interests, and (4) that it utilize the subject matter of all departments of the school.

The report of the committee on extracurriculum activities will show many instances of this type of correlation. In the Starr King Junior High School in Los Angeles, for example, the pupils have recently brought from the press a book describing their own activities. It is entitled, "Creative Activity in a Happy School Atmosphere." The school paper in many instances motivates the work of the composition class. Literary magazines presenting creative writing of the year are becoming increasingly common in both junior and

senior high schools. Unto the Hills of the Byers Junior High School in Denver is typical of these magazines, expressing, as it does, the love of the youth of Colorado for the surrounding mountains. Printed in the school print shop, decorated in the art studio, and set to music in the music room, these little verses represent one of the most delightful types of correlation in English work to-day.

In Jefferson Junior High School in Cleveland the radio is made the center of interesting expressional activities. At the close of a unit of literature, committee and individual reports are presented, radio lectures prepared, and radio plays based upon the selections read. The best of each is then selected for presentation by radio to the school as a whole.

In Havermale Junior High School in Spokane the principal has a unique program under way in which each boy in the school is making an exhaustive study of some interesting hobby. In this connection the pupil uses the library, makes a bibliography, draws designs, and, with the aid of his English teacher, prepares an extended report which goes to the principal. A list of the hobbies secured from boys in the library one evening after school shows the breadth of interests composition work may serve—Persian rugs, airplanes, fungus, gold, wood blocking, cartooning, Spanish amusements, the telephone, civil engineering, and public accounting.

Composition in the senior high school tends to be more specialized. There is a remarkable interest in many senior and 4-year high schools throughout the country in national competitions in poetry, short-story, and essay writing. The tendency seems to be to produce fewer pieces of writing but to make each represent the best effort of the pupil. One school, for instance, demands four pieces of writing, each of a different type during the junior year. More writing than that is done, but trial performances are worked over by the pupils and often discarded; only the final manuscript being turned in to the teacher.

Elective courses in the senior and 4-year high schools.—Except for a few college review classes in composition, most of the written work is carried on as an adjunct to literature courses or in classes in journalism and creative writing organized for the more gifted students. Table 5 shows

journalism to be the most frequently offered of the special writing courses, but its frequency seems low among 94 senior and 4-year high schools. A common practice is to have the pupils of a rapid section of the regular English course produce the school paper in addition to doing the required work of the semester. Fourteen courses of a college-preparatory nature are indicated as offered in the eleventh and twelfth grades. Elective courses spring up so rapidly that it is difficult to tell how far the courses of study indicate actual practice. Of the 17 elective courses in creative writing, 5 were discovered in visitation and do not appear in the courses of study. Analysis of syllabi shows that these courses include, primarily, study of writing techniques and practice in such forms as poetry, the short story, and drama, with poetry and the short story predominating. In certain courses much reading is done in contemporary materials, particularly in the better magazines. Statements of aims in these courses include opening up the possibilities of writing as a career; training in plot structure, characterization, and selection of the fitting word; the enjoyment which comes from self-expression; and fostering the freest possible expression without fear of rebuke.

TABLE 5.—*Special courses in composition offered in senior and 4-year high schools*

Course	Schools offering as—			Grade placement		Semesters offered	
	Required	Elective	Unit in course	Range	Mode	Number	Mode
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Written and other:							
Advanced composition	.....	3	.....	11–12	12	1	1
Advanced grammar	.....	2	.....	11–12	12	1	1
Business English	[1] 6	8	.....	11–12	11	1–2	1
College-preparatory composition	[2] 3	6	.....	11–12	12	1–2	1
Creative writing	.....	17	7	11–12	11–12	1–2	1
Essay writing	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Journalism	1	33	14	10–12	11–12	1–2	1–2
News writing	.....	2	.....	.....	10–11	1	1
Newspaper advertising	.....	2	.....	11–12	11–12	1	1
Short-story writing	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	1	1
Word study	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	1	1
Oral:							
Debating	.....	15	.....	11–12	11–12	1–2	1
Public speaking	11	29	11	10–12	12	1–4	1–2
Elementary speech	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	1	.....
Expression	.....	4	.....	11–12	.....	2–6	2

[1] Required only of business students.
[2] Required only of college-preparatory students.

Several of the courses present single units of creative writing within the general course in composition. Large numbers of them refer to the stimulation of creative effort in connection with the regular work. Conference with teachers and supervisors leads one to believe that it is in this way rather than in separate courses that creative writing will be fostered in the average school.

In the junior high school such electives exist only in exceptional institutions, where a high selection among the pupils demands special outlets in creative writing. For the most part the school paper is produced either as an extracurriculum activity or by a gifted English class as supplementary to regular course work. Journalism, public speaking, creative writing, and debating all appear in approximately a dozen syllabi as units in the required English course. Of these, public speaking is by far the most common. As in the senior high school, creative work is being stimulated in large numbers of junior high schools as an adjunct to the regular English program and through extracurriculum clubs.

The aims of oral composition.—It is evident from the aims of oral composition stated in the courses that those schools which practice it succeed in achieving a more truly functional program than is the case in written composition. Stated in full, the aims presented in Figure 4 are as follows: (1) To help pupils meet with intelligence and ease life situations demanding speech; (2) to develop fundamentals of effective delivery; (3) to promote habits of correct usage in speech; (4) to develop power in the organization of ideas; (5) to teach effective audience speaking; (6) to teach effective presentation of thought; (7) to develop poise in speaking before a group; (8) to teach proper enunciation and pronunciation; (9) to promote ability in the wise selection of topics and materials for speaking; (10) to develop proper voice control and tone quality; (11) to develop ability in the oral interpretation of literature; (12) to habituate the use of clear, effective sentences; (13) to inculcate the principles of vigorous, colorful expression; (14) to teach the principles of parliamentary form; (15) to develop character and personality through public and private intercourse; (16) to give practice in cooperative presentation of plays; (17) to

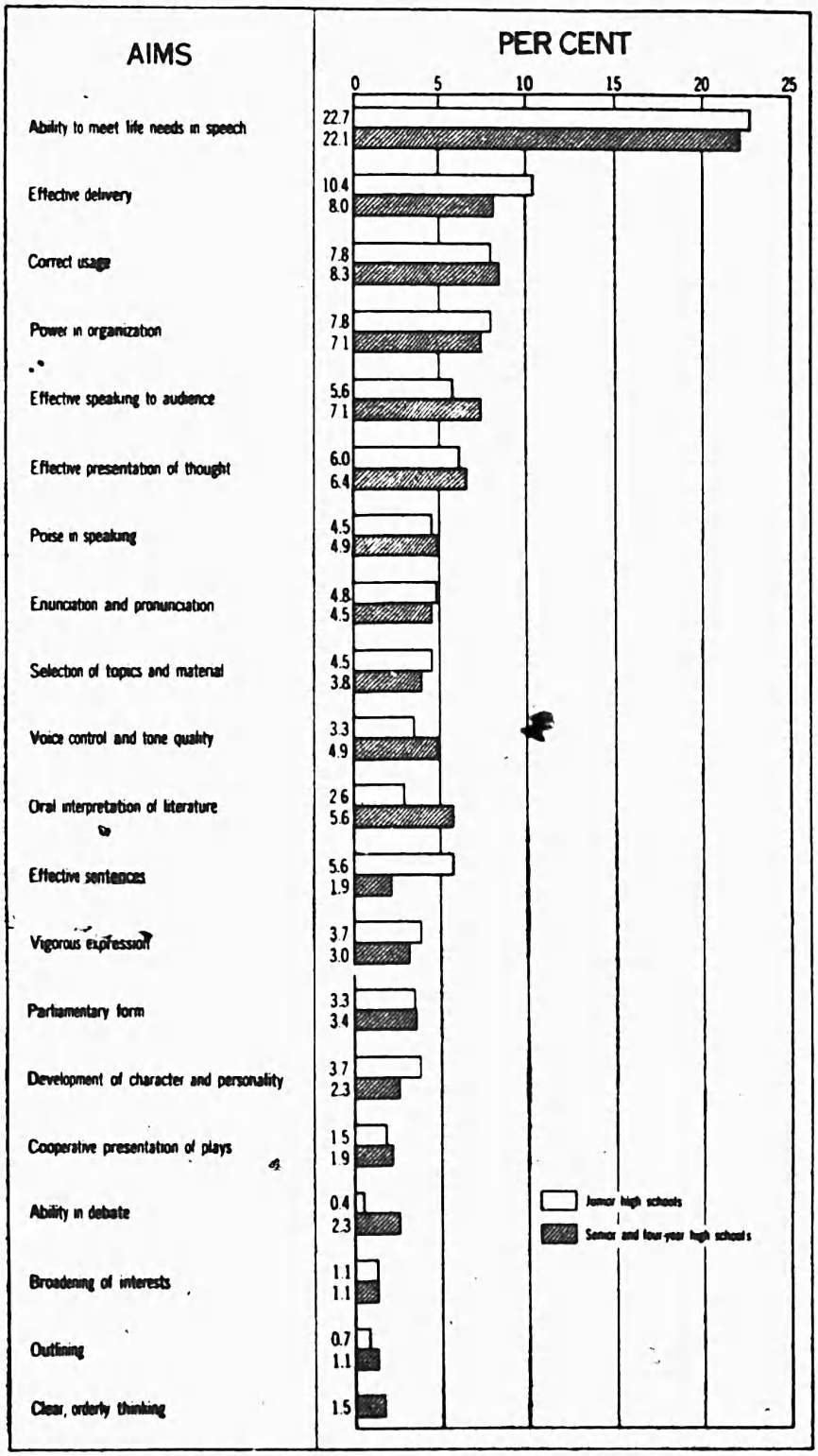

FIGURE 4.—Aims of oral composition in the junior, senior, and 4-year high schools, with per cent of mention of each

give practice in preparation for and participation in debate; (18) to broaden pupils' interests; (19) to develop skill in outlining; (20) to stimulate clear, orderly thinking.

Foremost among the objectives is the desire to help pupils to meet with intelligence and ease life situations demanding effective use of speech. Included in this aim is a long list of specific activities from everyday life, paramount among which are (1) the habit of courteous, correct, and agreeable conversation; (2) ability to give explanations and directions in clear, direct, and courteous manner; (3) ability to tell effectively an anecdote or narrative of personal experience; (4) ability to answer clearly, briefly, and exactly a question on which one has the necessary information; and (5) ability to participate in creative group discussion. These English uses of everyday life outweigh in emphasis the type of audience speaking prevalent a few years ago, and far exceed in popularity the activities of formal debate. Interesting developments are the emphasis on the oral interpretation of literature and on cooperation in the production of plays in contrast to mere experience in acting. Here also the broadening of pupil interests and the stimulation of clear, orderly thinking appear low in emphasis compared with their importance in life.

Activities in oral composition.—Compilation of the oral activities suggested for junior and senior high schools shows the following to have a frequency of 10 or more:

Junior High Schools	*Senior High Schools*
Conversations.	Conversation.
Speeches.	Speeches.
Story-telling.	Conducting meetings.
Anecdotes.	Relating personal experiences.
Practice in conducting meetings.	Discussion of current topics.
Relating personal experiences.	Reports from magazines.
Using the telephone.	Reports of reading.
Dramatizing.	Announcements.
Giving instructions.	Story-telling.
Sales talks.	Debating.
Reports from magazines.	Telling anecdotes.
Book reports.	Oral reading.
Interviews.	
Announcements.	

That both junior and senior high schools are finding in the extracurriculum activities of the school varied opportunities for oral expression is evident. Class meetings, assemblies, public announcements, speech giving, and the conduct of clubs reveal everywhere remarkable poise and ability in expression among those participating. In this situation lies the explanation for the slight stress in certain schools upon the more artificial oral activities of the English classroom. The major difficulty in the extracurriculum program is the small proportion of pupils for whom participation in activities of the sort is possible.

The textbook in composition.—The relation between the textbook and the course of study is vital in the teaching situation. Twelve of the junior high school courses and 32 of the senior and 4-year high school courses are built around specific textbooks. Others give helpful references to supplementary and required texts under each topic of the course. In fully one-third there is no mention whatever of source materials. Fifty-eight textbooks are indicated for use in the senior high school. The six with the largest frequencies are referred to 19, 14, 12, 10, 7, and 6 times. Twenty-eight of the 58 appear once only. Of the six appearing most frequently, two are handbooks of reference with rules, illustrations, sentences, and a few drills under each. Common practice is to use these texts for sectional references in theme correction. Their outstanding characteristic is multiplicity of points raised and the niceties of expression covered.

Of the other four texts most commonly used, two have logical chapter organization based upon structural units and literary forms—the word, the sentence, the paragraph, and whole composition, followed by consecutive chapters on the forms of discourse and letter writing. A third is developed from a semiliterary theme-writing point of view, and the fourth is built about the practical aspects of English in everyday life. It is written in clear, simple, straightforward style, with emphasis on comparatively few major points in grammar and the mechanics of expression and much practical suggestion for collection of material and organization of ideas.

With the exception of the last volume, the grammar taught is largely the grammar of classification, although two of the books select for special stress materials related to speech and writing. The first three condemn as incorrect 23 of the 45 points recorded as cultivated English by S. A. Leonard's jury of eminent linguists.[7] Although it is obvious that English teachers will not be inclined to follow to their logical conclusion all the implications of this study, the evidence is clear that textbooks and courses of study have far to go in eliminating nonessentials.

Chapters on punctuation in the most-used textbooks, with one exception, cover from 40 to 70 pages with rules from the *period* through the use of *brackets*. A study of the punctuation requirements of 160 publishers of books, magazines, and newspapers in this country and England, made under the direction of the late S. A. Leonard, of Wisconsin, has just been released by the National Council of Teachers of English.[8] It reveals unanimous demands for only 11 uses of punctuation beyond the end of sentence pointing. Of these, two are commas between city and State and between date and year. The others are commas with appositive modifiers, before *but* and *for* in compound sentences, between all except the last two members of a series, after expletives like *yes* and *oh*, around parenthetical sentence modifiers such as *of course* and *however*, and around unquestioned nonrestrictive modifiers. The semicolon, appearing twice, is before *however* in a compound sentence and between long and internally punctuated clauses of a compound sentence. Punctuation of conversation is also required. "The tendency is clear and strong," says the report, "for less pointing even than our most liberal courses of study have dared to list." Detailed analysis of the punctuation requirements of 44 courses of study shows 19 rules for punctuation appearing from 15 to 39 times each. Of these, at least four, among them a comma after a dependent clause coming first in the sentence, appear to be in the realm of distinctly optional pointing.

[7] Leonard, S. A., and Moffett, H. G. Current Definitions of Levels in English Usage. English Journal 16:345-359, May, 1927.

[8] The Leonard Memorial Monograph: Current English Usage. National Council of Teachers of English, 211 West 69th St., Chicago, Ill. 1932.

The activity program outlined in many courses of study finds little counterpart in the textbooks most frequently used. Conversation appears in one as an element in punctuation only; in a second, as an aid in story-writing; in a third, as a form to be distinguished from soliloquy, monologue, and interview; and in a fourth, with excellent suggestions for the teacher who wishes to deal with conversation as it is met in everyday life. In spite of the prominent place of conversation in activities listed in the courses of study, it has been abandoned (if ever attempted) by a large majority of teachers because they do not know how to teach it. The Dayton, Ohio, course gives material help to those struggling with this problem.

Note taking, a written activity having frequent mention in courses, is omitted entirely by three of the four textbooks in frequent use. The fourth gives it very considerable attention.

Obviously curriculum makers are under the necessity of presenting to teachers many practical helps for innovations in the course of study which textbooks in use do not supply. It is clear, also, that textbook selection is frequently made on grounds other than teacher and pupil needs and the requirements of the course of study in question.

In the junior high school two texts outnumber the others in frequency of use. One of these is a straightforward, vigorous presentation of theme writing and the mechanics of English with topics drawn from the life activities of pupils. Although it is in no way organized around life activities, it does touch upon many of the problems referred to in courses. The second is more formal and literary in its emphases with much use of interest devices and language games.

Conference with teachers and supervisors throughout the country reveals a deep interest in several textbooks of recent date which obviously meet the requirements of more progressive courses better than many of those now in use. Within the last year, since the appearance of numbers of the courses analyzed, several school systems have made new adoptions.

CHAPTER VI : THE TEACHING OF GRAMMAR

Traditional aims of teaching of grammar.—Five reasons for the study of grammar in high school have been set forth commonly in the past: (1) For purposes of mental discipline, (2) as an aid to literary interpretation, (3) as preparation for the study of foreign languages, (4) for knowledge of a desirable terminology, and (5) as an aid to correctness in speech and writing.

Of the first Briggs [1] found no evidence in his early investigation. The second was disproved by Hoyt,[2] whose experiment was repeated with similar results by Rapeer.[3] Rivlin, in a recent survey, found no instance of incidental use of grammar in 200 classes in literature.[4] Boraas, working with State examinations in Minnesota, found a closer relationship between results in grammar and arithmetic, grammar and geography, and grammar and history than between those in grammar and composition.[5] Asker [6] came to a similar conclusion regarding lack of relationship between proficiency in grammar and ability in composition. It is easy to pick flaws in most of these studies. One thing seems clear, however—the burden of proof rests with those who believe that a knowledge of technical grammar functions in speech and writing. Up to the present time, so far as the writer can gather from evidence available in print, only opinion supports this contention.

The desire for functional grammar.—This brief summary of the situation in grammar is presented apropos of the unanimous statement of all courses of study that their offerings

[1] Briggs, Thomas H. Formal English Grammar as Discipline. Teachers College Record, 14:251–343, September, 1913.

[2] Hoyt, Franklin S. The Place of Grammar in the Elementary Curriculum. Teachers College Record, 7:467–500, November, 1906.

[3] Rapeer, Louis W. The Problem of Formal Grammar in Elementary Education. Journal of Educational Psychology, 4 : 125–137, March, 1913.

[4] Rivlin, H. N. Functional Grammar. Teachers College Contribution to Education, No. 435. Columbia University, New York. 1930.

[5] Boraas, Julius. Formal English Grammar and the Practical Mastery of English. Doctor's thesis. University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. 1917.

[6] Asker, William. Does Knowledge of Formal Grammar Function? School and Society, 17 : 109–111, January 27, 1923.

include "that amount of grammar which is functional" in speech and writing. A detailed analysis of the grammar content in 22 junior and 22 senior high school courses shows that this amount varies from 45 topics to 149. Clearly, nobody knows what grammar is functional. Rivlin's recent study records the vote of five English experts as to the functional value of each of a long list of grammatical points. As Rivlin frankly admits, such a verdict is far from satisfactory as a measure of function. He insisted, however, that if an expert rated a grammatical point as functional, he must state specifically the language situation in which he expected it to function—a goal which it would be difficult for some curriculum makers in English to achieve.

Relative emphasis upon topics.—As a matter of curiosity, Rivlin's outline was used in the tabulation of the grammar content of 44 representative courses. The items mentioned by three-fourths of the schools or more follow in order of frequency:

1. The concept of a sentence.
2. Classification of sentences as simple, compound, and complex.
3. Recognition of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.
4. Subject and predicate relationships.
5. The participle.
6. Transitive and intransitive verbs.
7. Irregular verbs.
8. Recognition of pronouns.
9. The infinitive.
10. The number of verbs.
11. Active and passive voice.
12. Gerunds.
13. The possessive case of nouns.
14. The number of nouns.
15. The use of pronouns as subject.
16. The concept of a clause.
17. The recognition of a subordinate clause.
18. Subordinating conjunctions.

With the exception of infinitives, gerunds, and participles, which are rated very low, and active and passive voice, all of these topics are ranked above average in functional value in Rivlin's study. Much may depend, of course, upon the emphasis given to the topic in teaching. It is interesting to note that while the *gerund* is taught in 20 courses, its use with the possessive case is mentioned only seven times. The same situation obtains with the *dangling participle*, facts which suggest that the present study of *verbals* is largely classificatory rather than functional.

Additional topics appearing in one-half to three-fourths of the courses are as follows:

1. Complete and simple subjects and predicates.
2. Principal parts of verbs.
3. Auxiliary verbs.
4. Regular verbs.
5. Tense.
6. Use of nouns and pronouns as predicate nominatives, objects of verbs or prepositions, and indirect objects.
7. The possessive and objective case of pronouns.
8. The person of pronouns.
9. Nouns of address.
10. Comparison of adjectives and adverbs.
11. Distinctions between adjectives and adverbs after a copula.
12. Coordinating conjunctions.
13. Classification of clauses and phrases as adjective, adverb, etc.
14. Restrictive versus nonrestrictive clauses.
15. Recognition of verb and prepositional phrases.
16. Interrogative pronouns.
17. Classification of sentences into declarative, interrogative, imperative, etc.

Of these, certain topics are also ranked low by Rivlin's experts, notably classification of clauses and phrases as adjective, adverb, etc.; recognition of verb and prepositional phrases; and classification of sentences as declarative, imperative, interrogative, and exclamatory. It is obvious again that the emphasis in teaching will have much to do with determining the functional value of items. It is interesting to note, for instance, that classification of tenses receives 50 per cent more stress than the avoidance of a shift of tenses in writing.

There is definite evidence, on the other hand, of the passing of certain traditional phases of grammar content. *Mood* is mentioned by less than half of the courses. So also are distinctions between *shall* and *will*. Once stressed classifications of adjectives into pronominal, interrogative, limiting, possessive, and relative appear in less than one-fourth of the courses. Demonstrative adjectives still persist as a category. Classes of adverbs, such as adverbs of cause, manner, and degree, are disappearing, with the exception of the conjunctive adverb. The vocative case is entirely absent, and the dative is mentioned only three times in 22 courses. Pronouns grouped as intensive, identifying, reflexive, reciprocal, and indefinite persist in one-fourth or more of the courses. There is a notable absence of the adjunct accusative, the

absolute with the participle, the retained object with the passive, and the subject of the infinitive. English grammar, while still logically organized and taught with technical emphasis, is at least breaking with certain Latinized forms and classifications and fitting its content to its own language. The word *parsing* occurs in only one course and the word *analysis* in exactly one-half the courses. Diagramming is recommended in 9 of 22 syllabi, another evidence of a logical approach to the subject.

A more important problem for the curriculum maker than the absolute value of certain obscure points in grammar is the *relative* value of elements of English which there is no time to teach, because noun clauses and their construction in the sentence take so long to master. Teachers of English everywhere complain that the demands of their subject are too great for the time allotted to it. There can be no doubt that they are right. In view of the equal necessities of other departments of secondary education, the only remedy for the situation appears to be *a reduction in the demands of the subject*. Oral composition and letter writing have suffered. It would seem that a sensible program for economy of time in English should begin with concerted effort to determine the absolute minimum of grammar necessary for correct speech and writing. This is an old story, but the evidence of courses produced since 1925 shows it still to be a pressing problem.

That curriculum makers in English are eager to secure a functional emphasis in the teaching of grammar is evidenced in three ways in the courses of study analyzed: (1) In the statement of aims, (2) in the effort to segregate items according to frequency of error, and (3) in the large emphasis upon drill.

Aims of the teaching of grammar.—Forty-two junior high schools and 30 senior and 4-year high schools list specific aims for the teaching of grammar. Table 6 shows clearly the stress upon function throughout.

Of the aims discussed in the opening paragraph, mental discipline has vanished. Knowledge of terminology appears once in 72 courses, and preparation for foreign-language study once also. The persistence of the claim that grammar

will aid in literary interpretation is likewise slight, although certain courses bear evidence of continued use of literary materials for grammatical analysis.

TABLE 6.—*Aims of the teaching of grammar in 42 junior and 30 senior and 4-year high-school courses*

Aim	Frequency of mention					
	Total		Junior high school		4-year and senior high school	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. To extend the pupil's knowledge of and ability to use the sentence as a unit of expression	42	58.3	30	71.4	12	40.0
2. Through drill and practice to make correct usage habitual in speech and writing	31	43.1	20	47.6	11	36.7
3. To fix definitely such principles of grammar as function in correct and adequate expression	27	37.5	10	23.8	17	56.7
4. To help the pupil recognize and use correctly the parts of speech	26	36.1	21	50.0	5	16.7
5. To stimulate the pupil to value good English and take pride in improving his speech and writing	11	15.3	4	9.5	7	23.3
6. To lay the foundation for work in punctuation	9	12.5	3	7.1	6	20.0
7. To furnish the pupil a standard for correcting his own English	7	9.7	4	9.5	3	10.0
8. To teach the pupils to recognize the relationships of sentence parts and to use forms in accord with them	6	8.3	5	11.9	1	3.3
9. To improve the pupil's spelling through knowledge of plurals	5	6.9	4	9.5	1	3.3
10. To aid the pupil in giving a reasonable explanation of words in literary passages	3	4.2	2	4.8	1	3.3

Stress upon frequency of error and drill.—The list of topics already quoted from Rivlin's study gives only a partial picture of the material of the courses in grammar. In a large number of syllabi specific errors for drill are listed in terms of the findings of frequency of error investigations. Charters's study [7] is largely used, and often supplemented by work of Stormzand, O'Shea, and others.[8] The Dayton, Ohio, course, for instance, compiles for teachers the results of several outstanding investigations.

[7] Charters, W. W. Minimum Essentials in Elementary Language and Grammar, Sixteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Bloomington, Ill. Public School Publishing Co. 1917.

[8] Stormzand, Martin J., and O'Shea, M. V. How Much English Grammar? Baltimore, Warwick & York. 1924.

That such emphasis upon the elimination of errors is bearing fruit is evidenced by the results of the study now in progress by L. J. O'Rourke, in which a definite, though gradual, improvement in test scores on matters of correct usage is shown from grades 3 through 12,[9] the norms for grades 6 through 13 on the 100-item test, Form B, being 20, 28, 36, 43, 50, 57, 62, and 71, respectively. That results still leave much to be desired is evident also from the fact that mastery of so specific an error as *hadn't ought* is only 38 per cent in grade 12 and unachieved even by English majors in the senior college; that he did it *well* instead of *good* shows 71 per cent mastery in the third grade and 75 per cent in the twelfth. Facts such as these bespeak the earnest effort of curriculum makers to push forward the movement already under way to eliminate nonessentials in grammar and to promote a thorough study of those elements which appear to have functional bearing upon accuracy in speech and writing.

The problem of what is correct usage.—Closely related to the problem and less known to curriculum makers are recent investigations by eminent linguists concerning the persistence of language standards in our schools which have been repudiated by acceptable practice in speech and writing. Leonard and Moffett, for instance, submitting a list of 102 expressions to 26 linguists for ranking and evaluation, found 75 per cent of the linguists accepting as cultivated English 45 of the 102 expressions commonly condemned by grammarians.[10] It is interesting to note that in the textbook most commonly used in the senior high schools submitting courses to the survey, more than half of the 45 items are condemned.

Of the 156 courses analyzed, two-thirds reveal striking emphasis on *drill* on fundamentals of grammar. Reference

[9] The objectives of this study are (1) to develop a suggested national curriculum of English usage, (2) to measure progress from grade to grade of the pupils' mastery of each phase of usage, and (3) to improve teaching methods to the extent of insuring a greater mastery of essentials. A report of the Nation-wide Study of English Usage is available from the Psychological Corporation, 3506 Patterson Street NW., Washington, D. C.

[10] Leonard, S. A., *and* Moffett, H. G. Current Definitions of Levels in English Usage. English Journal, 16: 345–359, May, 1927. *See also* Current English Usage. Leonard Memorial Monograph of the National Council of Teachers of English, 211 W. 60th St., Chicago, Ill., 1932.

to the desirability of it is constant. Thirty-four cities publish drill materials within the course. Other school systems, such as Denver and Pasadena, have produced their own drill materials, and Cicero, Ill., Seattle, and other cities are utilizing drill pads produced by teachers for use in their own classes. The rapid appearance of published drill books, tests, and pads within the last two years is further evidence that teachers of English are promoting the movement for mastery prevalent throughout the schools.

General provision for review seems adequate in the courses if one may judge from frequent injunctions to review the materials of the previous grade. Specific mention of points for review is less frequent. Analysis of the recurrence of topics listed by three-fourths of the schools shows, for instance, that the concept of a sentence receives no specific mention after its first appearance in 12 of the 22 courses. In one it recurs once; in six, twice; in two, three times; and in one, five times. Except in a few isolated cases, there seems to be little systematic provision for the repetition of specific points to be mastered.

Thirty-nine courses make provision for careful diagnostic testing and remedial instruction, sometimes for the class as a whole and sometimes by individualized drill upon minimum requirements. Illustrative procedures are described in the section on provision for individual differences.

The question of minimum essentials.—Conference with curriculum makers and a study of courses submitted indicate that the whole program of minimum essentials is in very chaotic condition. The term is loosely used to indicate anything from an absolute minimum of skills to be mastered 100 per cent for passing to a list of materials, literary classics included, to which every pupil must be exposed at some time during the year. Because of the large use of the term in the latter sense no attempt was made to tabulate minimum requirements in the courses. In general, the trend seems to be away from a required minimum for everybody. Individual variations of ability among schools within a given system and among pupil groups within a single school appear to make set standards for all impracticable. Some systems have definitely abandoned the effort to bring everybody up

to a given level of performance. Others have retained the minimums but have reduced the proportion of mastery to be expected from groups of different abilities. The most probable reason for the difficulty seems to lie in the fact that *minimums* for the most part are not *minimums* but a compilation of items which tradition suggests it would be pleasant to have everyone master! Experience seems to have proved that the attempt is futile.

Where requirements are set they include, in about an equal number of cases, grammar, oral composition, and written composition. Usually they are very subjectively stated—for oral composition, for instance, "ability to give an oral talk of three minutes in length with a reasonable degree of accuracy in speech and effectiveness in presentation."

Before progress can be expected in the field of minimum requirements in English, there is need for more definite agreement than there is at present upon the meaning of the term, for more "specific definition of outcomes to be expected," and for closer agreement on the extent of mastery implied.

CHAPTER VII : THE TEACHING OF READING AND LITERATURE

Aims of the teaching of literature.—The purposes of literature and general reading uppermost in the minds of educators to-day are available from several sources in pedagogical literature. The following statement may serve as an illustration:

(1) Reading widens the range of one's thought and observation.
(2) It widens the range of one's participation in the affairs of men.
(3) It elevates one's thought.
(4) It enables one to see with the eyes of those who have seen most clearly and to feel with the hearts of those who have felt most deeply.
(5) Reading awakens the interests of men.
(6) It is itself a mode of living.

In discussion of these aims the author establishes the following platform for the teaching of literature:

Our age, more than any preceding one, demands width of vision over all the world, past and present, and beyond; it demands mental alertness, and awakened interests in man and his affairs; and it calls for sympathetic civilized attitudes toward social groups, peoples, nations, and institutions. The most effective method of achieving these results is to come into sympathetic direct contacts with men and things the world over; but there are insurmountable limitations. Where direct contacts are not possible, indirect methods are to be employed. Of these, reading is the most important.

Through reading it is possible to view indirectly the distant, the inaccessible, and the past. As it reconstructs human experiences, it enables one to participate vicariously in all kinds of activities in all lands and ages.

A piece of literature is a language window through which one looks out on the human drama; the less conscious the observer is of the window itself the better it is for purposes of observation.

For men and women in general, literature is not to be studied for technique and form; it is to be used for the experiences. The writers intended nothing else.

The major experience in using literature for education is reading it—abundantly—with enjoyment—under normal reading conditions.

The literary technician, whether amateur or professional, must know the instrument itself with thoroughness. He must know literary technique, be skillful in its application, watchful of technical matters in

his own work and in that of others, interested in structural matters, sensitive to flaws, appreciative of merits, and the like. All of these things he needs for his vocational purposes. His needs, however, are not those of the general reader.[1]

Those who are disposed to accept these sentiments will be gratified to find foremost among the aims of the teaching of literature compiled from 86 junior and 94 senior and 4-year high-school courses of study (Fig. 5[2]) that of extending the range of the pupil's understanding and interests through vicarious experience in reading. Roughly, coequal with this purpose in the senior high school and second in importance in the junior school is the aim of developing the desire and standards of evaluation necessary to continue reading under one's own direction. In theory, at least, the secondary schools of this country are committed to a program of enrichment of living through the establishment of a lifelong habit of association with good books. Diametrically opposed to such a platform, however, is the almost equal frequency of mention in the senior high school of the desire to give a knowledge of the structure and technique of various literary forms. These forms range in importance from the essay or short story down to distinctions between the metrical romance and the metrical tale. Classroom experience and observation suggest that when this aim assumes the proportions it does in the list of objectives in question, success in the realization of the first two is seriously jeopardized. If it be true that excessive attention to literary form and technique is a part of the vocational training of the few, in the general

[1] Bobbitt, Franklin. How to Make a Curriculum, pp. 76–83. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924.

[2] The complete statement of aims abbreviated in Figure 5 is as follows: (1) To extend the range of the pupil's understanding and interests through vicarious experience in reading; (2) to develop the desire and standards of evaluation to continue reading under one's own direction; (3) to give a knowledge of the structure and technique of various literary types; (4) to develop character and ideals of conduct; (5) to stimulate enjoyment in reading; (6) to cultivate the esthetic nature through appreciation of beauty of concept and of style; (7) to promote good citizenship and respect for American ideals; (8) to give knowledge and appreciation of familiar masterpieces of the artistic heritage of the race; (9) to promote knowledge of American literature; (10) to give an appreciation of the chronological development of literature as revealing the spiritual history of the race; (11) to establish standards for the reading of newspapers and magazines; (12) to give ability to respond to the intellectual and emotional stimulus of reading of a varied and difficult type; (13) to develop power of creative, independent thinking; (14) to arouse interest in the reading of various kinds of literature; (15) to acquaint the pupil with the best current literature; (16) to develop an appreciation of the relationship of literature to life; (17) to prepare for college; (18) to cultivate appreciation of and ability in oral interpretation of literature.

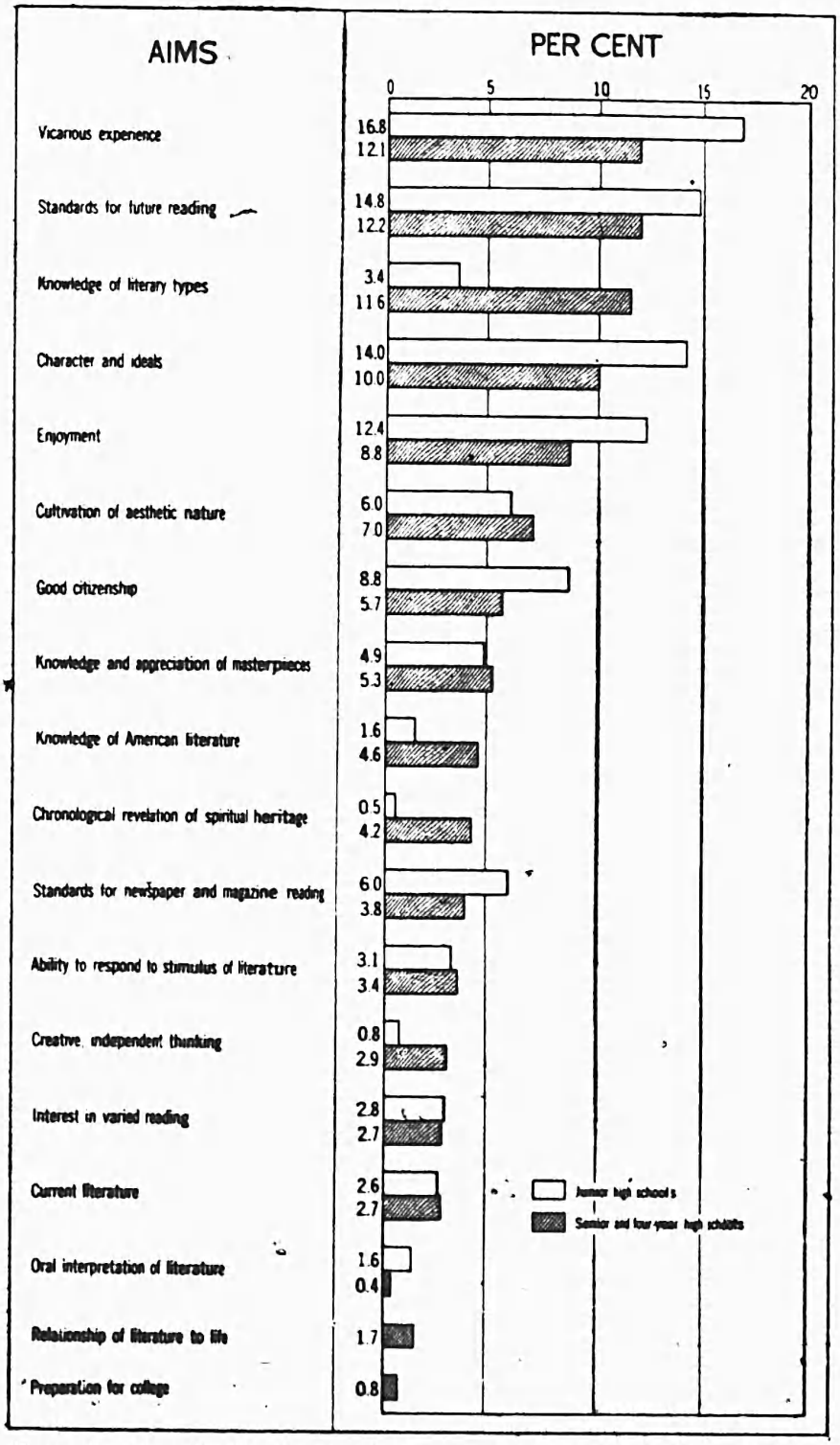

FIGURE 5.—Aims of teaching literature in the junior, senior, and 4-year high schools, with per cent of mention of each

literature program of the high school to-day it receives undue emphasis.

The large stress upon character development and enjoyment of reading in both junior and senior high schools is in line with modern tendencies in education. The place of newspaper and magazine reading, though not high, shows a distinct trend in the direction of fitting the reader for the activities of everyday life. It is interesting also to note the relatively low place accorded to acquaintance with the literary heritage of the race. Although there is a tendency in certain localities to break away from traditional titles, practice accords a higher place to this objective than would appear from the table. Knowledge of the chronological development of literature is strikingly high in rank when one considers that it is commonly the aim of the twelfth year only. In terms of the world outlook demanded by the present era, attention to current literature ranks relatively low. A tendency, however, inherent in the aim to stimulate the reading of various kinds of literature is an increasing use of materials of scientific and social interest and the notable popularity of biography.

The frequency with which the presence of inappropriate or unsuccessful classics in the course of study is justified on the basis of college-entrance requirements could hardly be guessed from the place of college preparation in the list of objectives compiled. In public avowal of aims, at least, secondary-school English has apparently ceased to acknowledge its propædeutic function.

Extensive programs in reading.—Indications are clear that English courses are moving definitely in the direction of more extensive programs in reading. Progress in this regard is notably greater in the junior high schools, but evident in the senior and 4-year high schools as well in the substitution of compilations of essays, poetry, and the like for former single classics, in the frequent requirement of supplementary reading, and in the increasing use of unit and contract plans of organization.

Methods of literature organization.—The methods of literary organization common in both schools are revealed in Table 7 and Figure 6. Numbers for grade 12 and in part for grade 11

are not significant, because special courses in literature and those in the history of English and American literature are omitted from the tabulation for special analysis later. Organization by literary types increases gradually from 8 per cent in the seventh grade to 47 per cent in the eleventh. There is interesting evidence throughout this table that the

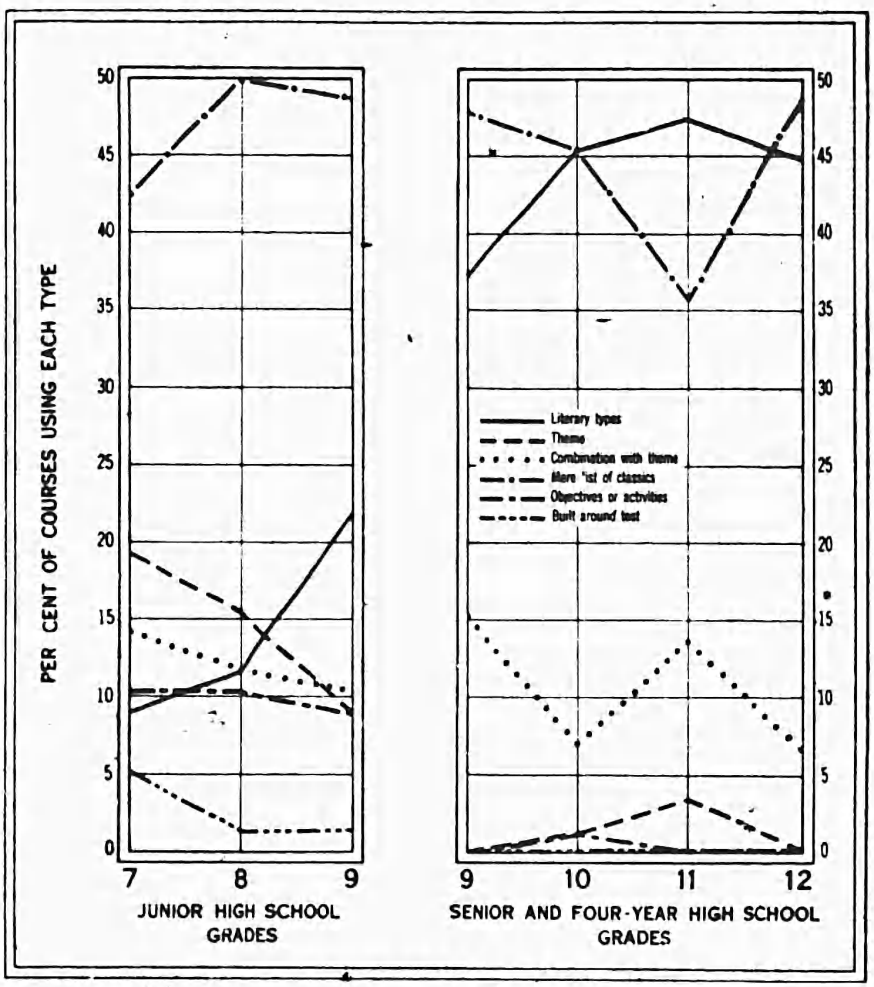

FIGURE 6.—Types of organization of literature in the junior, senior, and 4-year high schools

ninth grade in the junior high school tends to be wrenched out of its natural position and fitted into the program of the senior high school. The ninth grade in the 4-year high schools is even more notably unaffected by junior high school policies. Between 40 and 50 per cent of the courses offer no type of organization whatever, presenting mere lists of classics for

study. That organization by type prevails in many of these is suggested by the nature of the selections as well as by the teacher helps. Teachers in the junior and occasionally in the senior high school maintain that use of organization by type is a matter of convenience in handling book sets and not indicative of a desire to emphasize literary technique. For instance, where library books are being loaned in quantities to the classroom library, they point out, it simplifies the procedure greatly to ask for short stories, novels, or 1-act plays. There is also less likelihood of conflict in requests of teachers alternating their use of materials. Certainly there is evidence in classroom practice that some teachers are able to follow a course of study organized by types without undue stress on form and technique. That it is equally impossible for others to do so is also apparent. A study of the requirements in courses of each kind shows that more extensive reading is done under organization by type than where mere lists of titles are given. Predominating types in order of popularity are poetry, the drama, and the novel. Something less than half the mention of these is accorded to biography and the essay, and one-third to magazines and newspapers, miscellaneous prose, and myths and legends in the junior high school. It is obvious that there is little correspondence between the order of mention of literary types in courses of study and frequency of use in actual life situations. Stress upon poetry is roughly equal throughout the school course. The essay predominates in grade 11, the novel in grades 9 and 10, drama in grades 10 and 11, and biography in grade 9. No other types show prominent use in any single year.

TABLE 7.—*Type of literature organization in junior, senior, and 4-year high schools*

Type	Junior high schools						Senior and 4-year high schools							
	7		8		9		9		10		11		12	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Literary types	7	9.0	9	11.5	17	21.8	17	37.0	39	45.3	28	47.4	13	44.8
Theme	15	19.2	12	15.4	7	9.0	0	0	1	1.2	2	3.4	0	0
Theme within type	2	2.6	2	2.6	1	1.3	1	2.2	3	3.5	2	3.4	0	0
Combined theme and type	9	11.5	7	9.0	6	7.7	6	13.0	3	3.5	5	8.5	1	3.4
List and theme and type	0	0	0	0	1	1.3	0	0	0	0	1	1.7	1	3.4
Mere list of classics	33	42.3	39	50.0	38	48.7	22	47.8	39	45.3	21	35.6	14	48.4
Objectives or activities	8	10.3	8	10.2	7	8.9	0	0	1	1.2	0	0	0	0
Built around text	4	5.1	1	1.3	1	1.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	78	100.0	78	100.0	78	100.0	46	100.0	88	100.0	59	100.0	29	100.0
Unit organization used	13	16.7	11	14.1	12	15.4	3	6.5	9	10.5	7	11.9	3	10.3

Fully one-fourth of the junior high schools represented use some form of theme organization—as many as one-third in the seventh grade, one-fourth in the eighth grade, and one-fifth in the ninth grade. Data from the courses reveal a more varied reading program and a more natural treatment of selections under this plan than in either of the other two. The 12 themes in most common use in courses so organized give significant evidence of adaptation to pupil interests and the broader aims of reading. In order of frequency of mention, they are as follows:

1. Nature and outdoor life (44 times).
2. Adventure and pioneering (35).
3–4. Fun and humor (20).
3–4. Work (20).
5. Patriotism and love of country (19).
6. Travel (18).
7. Animal life (16).
8. Heroes and heroines of past and present (15).
9–12. Citizenship and American ideals (10).
9–12. History and tradition (10).
9–12. Home and social life (10).
9–12. School life (10).

A few courses—roughly, one-tenth—group their literary readings by general objectives or around specific activities,

an interesting innovation suggestive of broad educational possibilities.

The courses built specifically around a text book occur for the most part in sections where a State text is set for use in all schools.

Roughly, 50 per cent of the junior high school courses require the use of a literary compilation, one-third of these furnishing additional compilations beyond the basic text. In the senior high school the use of single classics predominates, supplemented by anthologies of literary types. Here also the ninth grade is divided in practice, the classes in the 4-year high schools tending toward use of set classics throughout.

Supplementary readings beyond a required few prevail in the majority of courses from grades 7 through 12, many schools requiring a single classic to be read by everyone, three or four more supplied in sets of 10 for group reading, and individual selections from a home reading list. A common practice is also to set four or five titles from which one or two are to be chosen, or half a dozen from which one or two are to be read by all and the rest utilized as pupil abilities permit. A small percentage of schools, particularly in the junior high school years, has abolished entirely, or nearly so, the policy of having any title required of all pupils in the school. A long list of books is furnished, often grouped according to a common theme, from which pupils read under the individual guidance of the teacher. That this custom will become increasingly prevalent is indicated by the growth of the free reading movement discussed in a later section of this report.

The 30 classics in most frequent use in junior, senior, and 4-year high schools appear in Table 8. *Silas Marner* ranks first, *Julius Cæsar* second, and *Idylls of the King*, *Ivanhoe*, and the *Tale of Two Cities* are close for third place. Five of the titles are dramas, all Shakespearean; 4 are novels by Eliot, Scott, Dickens, and Stevenson; 10 are long narrative or epic poems; 5 are short stories; 3 are collections of essays, short stories, and verse, some old, some new; 1 is an essay, 1 an oration, and 1 is a combination of story and essay. Eighteen of the 30 titles are from English literature, 7 from American, 2 from other foreign sources, and 3 from a combination of all. Contemporary literature is conspicuous by its absence, except

as it is represented in collections of essays, short stories, and verse.

TABLE 8.—*The 30 classics most frequently used in English courses with grade placement and number of weeks studied*

Classic	Grade							Number of weeks studied								
	7	8	9	10	11	12	Total	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Silas Marner			7	44	6		57		7	5	7						
Julius Cæsar		4	22	20	6		52		1	4	10	1	4				
Idylls of the King			2	27	14	2	45	1	4	2	5	1					
Ivanhoe	1	1	31	10	1		44		1	2	5						
Tale of Two Cities		1	7	26	9		43	1	1	5	6	1	1				
Lady of the Lake		2	32	4	1		39		2	6	4	1	1				
Rime of the Ancient Mariner		1	14	15	2	1	33	4	3				1				
Treasure Island	5	8	18				31	1	2	3	2						
Merchant of Venice			13	14	3		30		1	3	3	1					
Vision of Sir Launfal		6	15	5	2		28	5	2								
As You Like It	2		3	13	6	3	27	2	2	2	4	1			2		
Short Story Collection	1	2	7	10	5	1	26		4	2	2						
Macbeth				1	11	12	24			2	4	1			1		
Odyssey			19	3	1		23	1	2	1	2		1				1
Sohrab and Rustum	1	1	11	10	1		24	4	3								
Sketch Book	1	1	7	9	1		19	1	3	1	1	1					
Evangeline	5	13				1	19	1	1		1						
Sir Roger de Coverley Papers			1	7	7	2	17	1	2	2	1						
Snow-Bound	2	12	2	1			17	1	3	1							
Christmas Carol	5	8	3				16	1	1	1							
Courtship of Miles Standish	14	1					15	2	2	1							
Rip Van Winkle	6	9					15	2									
Legend of Sleepy Hollow	9	4					13		1								
Man Without a Country	1	8	1	3			13	1	1								
Midsummer Night's Dream	2	6	3	2			13		2		1						
Modern Verse Collection			4	2	4	2	12		3		2						
Essay Collection					8	3	11		1		2	1					
Burke's Speech on Conciliation					3	6	9				1	1					
Old Testament Stories		1	8				9	1	2				1				
House of Seven Gables		1		4	2	1	8		1		1						

Stout, in his study of the development of high school curricula in the North Central States, found the following titles ranking highest in courses of study from 1890 to 1900: *The Merchant of Venice*, *Julius Cæsar*, the *Bunker Hill Oration*, *The Sketch Book*, *Evangeline*, *The Vision of Sir Launfal*, *Snow-Bound*, *Macbeth*, the *Lady of the Lake*, *Hamlet*, *The Deserted Village*, Gray's *Elegy*, *Thanatopsis*, and *As You Like It*.[3]

The absence of four of these titles from the present list is doubtless due to the omission of senior courses in English and American literature. A fifth, the *Bunker Hill Oration*, has vanished. Otherwise the lapse of 25 to 40 years has made little change in the requirements except to add a few

[3] Stout, John E. The Development of High-School Curricula in the North Central States from 1860 to 1918. University of Chicago Press. 1921.

more titles in kind plus the nineteenth-century novel. The latter, however, is distinctly adventurous in theme, and more in keeping with the interests of adolescent youth than many titles on the list. Were it possible to analyze the collections of essays, short stories, and verse, results would doubtless reveal definite tendencies in the direction of current and American titles.

Crow's study shows interest ratings of 1,999 high-school juniors and seniors for 21 of the 30 classics.[4] Not one appears in the group of "very interesting or entertaining" selections; 18 were rated as "considerably interesting or entertaining"; and 4 "just a little interesting or entertaining"; those at the foot are Burke's *Speech on Conciliation* and the *De Coverley Papers*. It is evident, of course, that much depends upon the method of presenting these classics in the schoolroom. Whether progressive developments in method since 1924, the date of publication of Crow's study, would affect pupil ratings in regard to these classics we have no evidence to prove.

Grade placement of selections.—Two factors of outstanding interest in the same table are the variation in grade placement of selections and the amount of time proposed for their study. Short-story materials appear in each year of the course. *As You Like It* is taught in every grade in junior and senior high schools except one. The same is true of recent poetry, the *Rime of the Ancient Mariner* and *Ivanhoe*. The *Lady of the Lake* appears in grades 8 through 11. So also do the *Vision of Sir Launfal*, the *Tale of Two Cities*, and *Julius Cæsar*. The mode for *Julius Cæsar* is grade 9, the year for which Irion's study proves it too difficult except for pupils of an intelligence quotient of 110 or higher.[5] Obviously there is paramount need of determining through scientific investigation the relative difficulty of classics and the years in which they have their greatest appeal.

There are indications throughout the country that piecemeal dissection of literature is less common than it once was.

[4] Crow, C. S. Evaluation of English Literature in the High School. Teachers College Contribution to Education, No. 141. New York, 1924.

[5] Irion, T. W. H. Comprehension Difficulties of Ninth-Grade Students in the Study of Literature. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 189. New York, 1925.

Certain leaders throughout the educational world agree with the platform already proposed, that "the major experience in using literature for education is *reading* it—*abundantly—with enjoyment—under normal reading conditions.*"

Time devoted to individual classics.—A sufficient number of courses indicate time allotments for literary classics to reveal the persistence of minute analytic study in numbers of secondary schools. Nine weeks on *As You Like It*, 10 weeks on the *Odyssey*, 8 weeks on *Macbeth*, and 3 weeks on *Snow-Bound* still persist, according to the statements of the courses themselves. The mode for *Julius Cæsar* is four weeks; so also is it for the *Tale of Two Cities*, *As You Like It*, and *Macbeth*. For *Silas Marner* and *Idylls of the King* it is two and four in an equal number of cases. Comparison of this table with Miss Stroh's for grades 7, 8, and 9 reveals little change in time allotments since the period of 1920 to 1925.[6] The fact that her figures include only junior high schools may make comparison with a table for grades 7 to 12 unfair to the lower school. In the totals of the present study, senior high schools clearly predominate so far as indicated time allotments are concerned. Certain courses—Long Beach, for instance—have set definite and narrow time limits for the purpose of forcing reduced attention to individual selections. They give sample unit plans within the course to show how a novel like *Silas Marner* must be taught if completed within a week's study.

Two factors obviously influence the interpretation to be placed upon figures of this sort. Some courses, allotting five or six weeks to a piece of literature, indicate by reference to other phases of English, such as grammar or composition, that the classic alone is not the only material to be covered within the period set. This fact, however, but adds to the evidence of an unnatural, unpsychological drawing out of a procedure which depends for its success upon a rapid, spirited, and unified impression of the artistic product in question. From the æsthetic point of view quite as much as from that of the normal approach to reading, such a program defeats the major purposes for which literature exists

[6] Stroh, Mary M. Literature for Grades 7, 8, and 9. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 232. New York, 1926.

in secondary schools. The other factor which influences one's interpretation of time allotments is the unit type of organization. More and more frequently a "unit" on a given classic, which covers four or five weeks of the course, includes abundant reading related in type or theme to the one illustrative selection named in the syllabus. To what extent this practice influences the time allotments in Table 8 it is impossible to tell.

There can be no doubt that the problem of proper selection of content for classroom reading is receiving more serious consideration by curriculum makers to-day than ever before. Changes in the secondary-school population and their consequent effects upon purposes of instruction and standards of achievement are raising curriculum problems exceedingly difficult to solve. Obviously the type of literature common in 1890, when the major function of secondary schools was preparation for university training, is unsuited both to the interests and to the capacities of large numbers of the student body to-day. Yet to those who can read and enjoy it, it must not be denied. Furthermore, abundant additional materials, awakening interests and stimulating sympathies in a twentieth-century world, are daily making their appearance. Biography, pioneering adventure, and miscellaneous prose from every field of modern thought and endeavor demand rightful place beside 10 long narrative poems in the reading program of adolescent youth.

Two policies appear in the courses of study examined. One is to reduce the time allotted to the so-called literary classics; to read them naturally and enjoyably as one does a book from his library table, no longer reserving them for minute and detailed analysis; to compare them with one another, with recent writings on the same theme, with life experiences as they are lived to-day. Where such a policy is followed, grade placement of materials demands adjustment, for simpler content is necessary for many pupils under changed conditions of reading. In the time thus saved, students read two or three or six times as much as they have been in the habit of doing. Extensive reading programs of this sort are backed by scientific evidence that general knowledge and

appreciation of selections so read are at least as great as under analytical methods of teaching.[7]

Individualized reading.—The other policy is to individualize reading, permitting each pupil to read within a given theme or type, or possibly without associative connection with his fellows, the kind of material suited to his interests and to his needs. For one, it may be *Moby Dick* with its literary flavor and minute psychological analysis; for another, *Out of Gloucester*, a vivid, factual account of winter experiences of the deep-sea fishermen of the coast; for a third, *Two Years Before the Mast* or *Captains Courageous*, with their simple, vigorous narrative of life at sea.

A typical classroom visited in Libby Junior High School in Spokane illustrates the procedure when such a method is employed. No recitation was in progress. In a laboratory of books, pictures, magazines, and reference materials the pupils busied themselves in reading and organizing selections based upon themes of interest. A boy was studying aviation. On his desk was Holland's *Historic Airships;* in an open booklet was his own description of why he liked *Lone Scout of the Sky* and, copied on the flyleaf, favorite lines from *Dædalus Green* and the *Ballad of Lucky Lindbergh*. Next to him a girl, absorbed in *Twice-Told Tales*, traced down stories of life in New England. Still another enjoyed exciting tales of knights and ladies of the Middle Ages. As she bent over Eric Kelly's *Trumpeter of Krakow*, beneath her book appeared a letter to a friend urging her to read *Ivanhoe*. Posters about the room advertised other favorite titles which the pupils explained they were reading during this month's "unit" of "free reading." The only requirement was that each pupil should read within the month at least 4 complete books and 12 poems, and write 4 letters or other compositions suggested by what he read. Two days of every week were given to discussion, dramatization, and general sharing of books read, and the others were devoted to laboratory work in classroom and library. The atmosphere of the room, the

[7] Coryell, Nancy G. An Evaluation of Extensive and Intensive Teaching of Literature. Teachers College Contribution to Education, No. 275. New York, 1927.
Field, Helen A. Extensive Individual Reading versus Class Reading. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 394. New York, 1930.

eager busyness of the pupils, and the unexpected angle of tables and chairs were curiously satisfying in an educational world which in general shares Kate Douglas Wiggins's anxiety over the 21 inmates of her froggery. "I labored with them three weeks," she explained, "before getting them into a straight row so that I could begin to teach them singing."

The free-reading movement.—The free-reading movement becoming prevalent in the West is an attempt to replace or to supplement general class reading with individual guidance in the choice of books. It begins with allowing pupils to read in the schoolroom the books which they are reading at home. As the work progresses, the teacher notes individual interests and assists pupils in the choice of a second title similar in appeal but superior in literary merit. It is not at all a program by which pupils are allowed to "read what they please." Rather is it one in which, beginning where pupils are, the teacher leads them in their reading to where she wants them to be.

The plan is based upon the theory that the most important functions of the course in literature are to enrich experience through reading, to broaden interests and understanding, and to establish the *habit* of reading materials stimulating in content and generally acceptable in style. That the program of intensive study of classics has not accomplished these ends is recognized by teachers of English throughout the country.

Several difficulties face those experimenting with programs of directed reading. The first is that teachers of English themselves are not sufficiently acquainted with books for adolescents to guide pupil reading in fields other than the classics. The courageous among them have had to build up a background for individual guidance through personal reading since graduation from college or university. Training institutions are just awakening to this fundamental deficiency in the preparation of teachers.

A second difficulty lies in the necessity of a new technique of instruction to replace the old-time question-and-answer method. It will provide for individual conference and much reading and use of books in the library itself or in a classroom laboratory situation. At the same time, it can not ignore the

sharing of reading experience through social activities and general class discussion, for these are the means by which interests are aroused and standards formed.

Denver, Seattle, and other cities are at work on programs of multiple reading in which 10 copies of each of 4 books are supplied for 40 pupils instead of 40 copies of a single title. Here again a new technique of socialization is necessary, where reading is done in groups instead of by the class as a whole. In addition, these cities are establishing classroom libraries throughout the schools. The classroom library is a set of books, 40, 50, or 100 in number, all different titles, loaned by the school or public library for reading in school or at home. Often it is presided over by a pupil who checks books in and out at the beginning or end of the period.

In some schools directed reading replaces entirely the study of individual classics by the group as a whole. Others prefer to retain general class reading of one or two titles per semester for purposes of illustrative procedure and community of background supplemented by free reading throughout the term. Still others alternate units of general class study of a classic with units of individualized reading.

The standards of selection achieved depend upon the skill and knowledge of the teacher and the individual capacity of the pupil. In Starr King Junior High School in Los Angeles a brilliant group of seventh-grade pupils read *The Earth for Sam*, *The Crisis*, *Early Candlelight*, *The Trumpeter of Krakow*, *The Blacksmith of Vilno*, *The Mill on the Floss*, *The Four Million*, *Parnassus on Wheels*, *Courageous Companions*, *Moby Dick*, and *Laughing Boy*. In class discussion one pupil explained why she thought *The Trumpeter* won the Newbery prize and *The Blacksmith* did not. Another told how *The Mill on the Floss* had almost convinced her that sisters and brothers used to love each other more than they do at present. A third discussed the establishment of county libraries in connection with *Parnassus on Wheels*, and a boy explained the unique contribution of Rockwell Kent in his illustrations for *Moby Dick*. After this the teacher called attention to the addition of several titles to the "browsing table" in the front of the room, and the class hour ended with an unexpected debate between a girl who thought the Har-

yard Classics would be good "to ask for for Christmas" and a boy who knew from experience that they were "dry as dust."

One may contrast the experiences of this group with those of a class in another city which secured from the school library *The Outlaw of Tarn*, *Tarzen of the Apes*, *The Blue Room*, *The Thundering Herd*, *Girl of the Blue Ridge*, *Bully and Bawly* (frogs), *Pinocchio*, *Anne of Green Gables*, *Notes on Dentistry*, *Where's Emily?* *The Lady or the Tiger*, and the *Western Story Magazine*, spending the entire hour in the library reading without discussion or comparison of titles. The test of the success of the method depends upon what these students were reading two or three or four months from that day. The two extremes are set down to reveal both the difficulties and the possibilities of directed reading In its success lies the answer to many of the problems facing English teachers to-day.

Those antagonistic to the method oppose it on the ground that the business of the course of study in English is to acquaint boys and girls with selected masterpieces from the literary heritage of the race. They hold that there is a minimum of content in reading to which every high-school graduate should be exposed. In one section of the country it is the *Odyssey* that is required of every ninth-grade pupil in the schools. In another it is the *Lady of the Lake*. In still another, one may find large groups of English teachers who are unfamiliar with both, but know the *Courtship of Miles Standish* by heart. Evidence from this study proves the fallacy of a minimum content notion for classes in literature. In 156 courses of study the title read most frequently is *Silas Marner*. It is required in a total of 57 schools. Only 8 of the classics listed are common to as many as one-fifth of the courses submitted. There are 309 titles in all, and only 27 of them are read in 10 schools or more. In view of these facts, who shall say *which* classic is necessary to the soul's salvation? The wider program of extensive reading in various sections of the country suggests that pupils in the future will have more time for reading good literature rather than less, and that instead of getting "fifty ideas from one classic," they may be expected to have "one idea from each of fifty classics."

The English laboratory.—An innovation in school architecture indicative of the greater informality of procedure in certain English classes throughout the country is the English laboratory for study and informal discussion. In the Forest Park High School in Baltimore is a large room with movable seats and easy chairs at one end, tables and reference materials in the middle, and a small stage for dramatization at the other end. Bookcases, pictures, maps, and charts suggest that this is a study as well as a place for discussion. A bulletin board shows clippings of literary and dramatic interest, while an exhibit case presents interesting work of the pupils or illustrative materials prepared for a selected unit of work. Discussion of the *Song of Hugh Glass* was in progress when the writer entered, the pupils sitting in a circle informally presenting their opinions of the poem. After 20 minutes the discussion was broken up, and the pupils worked at the tables for the remainder of the period on a vocabulary project in hand.

Novel procedures in literature.—Illustrations of liveliness of discussion in certain classes abound both in modern literature and in work with the classics. A group of seniors in Cleveland, led by one of their own number, discussed treasures in art and architecture in their own city which might call forth reactions such as Keats's *Ode on a Grecian Urn.* In Rochester a class of juniors, becoming skeptical concerning Emerson's advice regarding selfreliance, discussed the possible effect upon themselves and society at large if every individual in the world followed Emerson's suggestions to their logical conclusion. A ninth-grade group in Cicero, Ill., reviewed the characteristics of the epic by selecting *Lindbergh* as the possible subject for a modern *Odyssey.* Another, in Cranston, R. I., compared methods by which one becomes acquainted with people in fiction and in life. Examples could be multiplied from all sections of the country to show that in the hands of many a teacher literature is made vital in the life of the pupil.

Use of unit and contrast methods.—The prevalence of the unit method of instruction throughout the country has been exceedingly beneficial in helping both teacher and pupil to see a literary selection as a whole and to consider it in relation

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to others of similar theme or type. It has led to broader discussion, to less emphasis upon meticulous detail, and to the seeking of wider relationships both in literature and with other forms of expression. It is responsible also for the coming in of more laboratory procedures, where actual reading and use of books in the classroom supplement mere discussion of materials read outside.

Allied to the unit is the contract method, which differentiates requirements for pupils of various levels of ability, setting a minimum for mastery by everyone, and related activities for enrichment of the course for pupils capable of superior achievement. The problem is discussed more fully in the section on individual differences. Where the procedures involved include varied activities, such as oral discussion, search for related materials, dramatic presentation before the class as a whole, and original research and expression, the method appears productive of a high type of work in the literature classroom. The writer, however, visited one class in the history of English literature where for eight weeks pupils had done nothing but copy from a single textbook the answers to questions on mimeographed sheets. Perhaps no method more than the contract needs careful evaluation in terms of all of the aims of the teaching of literature in secondary schools.

In the junior high school, in particular, unit and contract methods of teaching have resulted in large correlation with arts and handicrafts. Pictures of characters and scenes from literature, stages erected and dolls dressed, posters advertising books, and booklets compiling favorite selections abound everywhere. So long as these activities remain incidental to the primary motive of *wide reading of books* they appear to be a valuable asset both in the stimulation of interest and in the adaptation of procedure to the individual abilities of boys and girls.

Use of visual aids.—The use of visual aids in the teaching of literature is general. One is impressed again and again with the attractive appearance of literature classrooms throughout the country. The use of music, pictures, and slides is evidenced in frequent mention of sources of purchase in the courses of study. Even more prevalent is the tendency to

have materials of the sort prepared by the pupils. In more than one junior high school the pupils have made their own moving picture of *A Midsummer Night's Dream* or the *Lady of the Lake*. Divided into groups, the class produces both scenario and pictures, one scene at a time. Continuity man and proofreader then prepare the play for presentation to the school as a whole. Sometimes the pictures are on paper wound from one spool to another in a crude box stage which could be erected in any schoolroom in the country. In other places photographic departments cooperate with the English classes in making slides of the pupil productions, and stereoptican lectures are prepared for assembly presentation. A unique interest in puppetry is prevalent also in the junior high school classes.

Oral presentation of literature.—The prominence of oral presentation of literature is notable in many parts of the country. One of the most striking examples of brilliant teaching seen by the writer in her period of visitation was the oral telling of the *Odyssey* to a low-mentality group by a gifted teacher story-teller. It suggested again the possibility of utilizing story-telling of the great classics in assembly and classroom to a much larger extent than is now prevalent where school systems are fortunate enough to have a skillful story-teller in their midst.

The little theater within the school.—The short space at our disposal can not do justice to the place of dramatic activities in the English program to-day. From classroom dramatization to all-school pageants the oral interpretation of literature is assuming large proportions. Little theaters within the school—such a room, for instance, as that in the basement of Jefferson Junior High School in Cleveland—afford simple stage furnishings for use during the class period. An all-school pageant of the *Lady of the Lake* produced in a near-by ravine motivated reading for weeks in advance of the performance. School photographers were busy also reproducing slides of the pageant for future use in English classes. Another school in the far West substituted a similar performance of *Robin Hood* this year for the old type of graduation exercise.

Activities of like character appropriate to the senior high school years are illustrated by the dramatic-art courses in the

University High School of Oakland, where all departments of the school contribute to the performance in hand. Actual participation by every pupil and not a star performance by the few is the primary objective of the course.

Oral interpretation.—Finally, oral interpretation of literature as an element in voice training and the release of personality is a large factor in the public-speaking course to-day. Illustrative is the practice in the Lewis and Clark High School in Spokane of the choral chanting of Vachel Lindsay's *The Congo*, the lament of *The Trojan Women*, and other selections quite different in tone, recited in unison with appropriate expressional inflection and with bodily movements indicative of abandonment to the mood of the poem.

Content reading.—About one-third of the junior high school courses make mention of reading skills. An occasional senior high school course does so, especially with reference to use of books and magazines in connection with a project in hand. In about one-half of the junior courses reading is taught entirely as a remedial procedure or as a matter for individual attention. In others there is evidence of the belief that all the pupils in grades 7, 8, and 9 need some assistance in the major problems of the use of books and reference materials. The basing of remedial instruction upon tests given at the beginning of the school term is a general practice in the third of the schools which make mention of the problem. In certain schools the work is carried on not only in English but in all content subjects as well, a practice which seems likely to become increasingly common in the future. Many of them, like Sioux City, for instance, publish separate bulletins for aid in the work in reading. The latter city offers a course in *reading* distinct from the English courses of the school. Remedial classes are common in the larger cities, where whole sections of those deficient in the subject are given special attention. Materials used are largely content from factual textbooks in all subjects, supplementary reading books, including easy titles especially, and current newspapers and magazines. Many cities have mimeographed items of immediate interest for use in silent reading. In general, the aim stated is to increase speed and comprehension of materials read. A second is power to enter imaginatively into the

thought of the author, interpreting his meaning in the light of one's own experience, and a third, to develop skill in suiting one's reading method to the purpose in hand. Activities engaged in include summarizing, locating the answers to questions, organizing materials around a given topic, recognizing the central theme of a passage, and note taking according to a given outline. Ability to use maps and to read graphs and charts is cultivated in several courses. Two topics receiving special stress are the use of books and reference materials and skill in evaluating and utilizing newspapers and magazines. Factors emphasized in the latter are the establishment of standards of selection of magazines and newspapers for habitual reading, evaluation of news on the basis of authority of source, recognition and correction of inaccuracies, and facility in the gleaning of ideas from appropriate sections of the paper.

On the whole, helps for the development of content reading are practical and in accord with current theories of the teaching of the subject. That only one-third of the junior high school courses submitted deal with the problems, however, shows need of further education of curriculum makers concerning individual deficiencies in reading ability at the junior high school level.

Teaching emphases revealed in lesson plans.—A number of courses present sample lesson plans for individual class periods or for longer units of work. Analysis was made of five illustrative lessons from each of 12 junior and 12 senior high school courses to discover the nature of the methods suggested. Aims for individual lessons in both kinds of courses place emphasis, first, upon establishing ideals of conduct; second, upon appreciation of form or style; third, upon the acquisition of factual knowledge; and, fourth, upon pleasure or enjoyment. Topics receiving mention in 9 of the 60 lessons or more indicate relative stress in teaching. (Fig. 7.)

It will be noted that, except for technicalities of style in the senior high school, there is little difference between requirements of the two schools. Mention of major points in reading far outnumbers detailed analysis of selections. Use of background materials is high for both schools. So likewise is stress on characterization and use of visual aids.

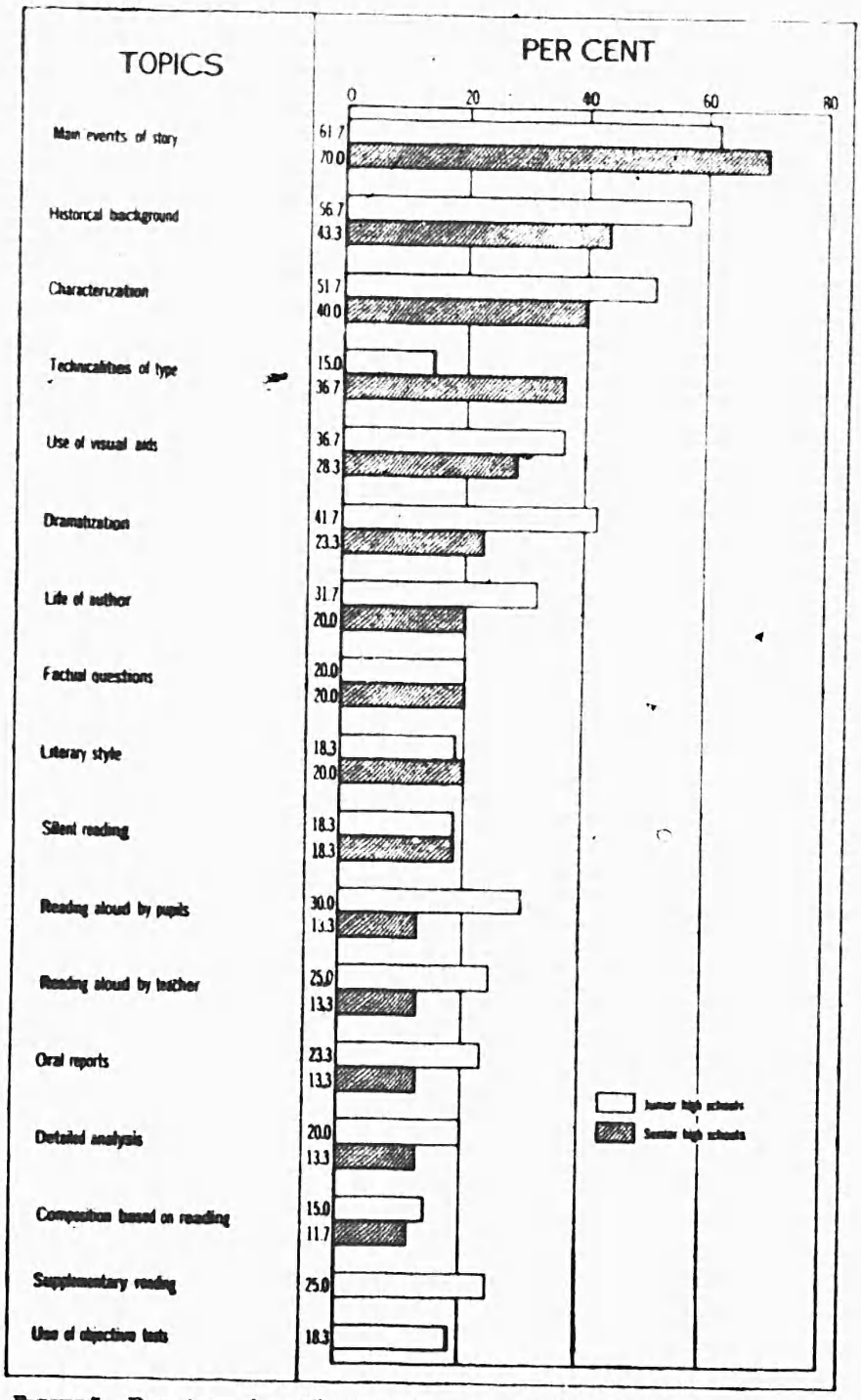

FIGURE 7.—Percentages of mention of teaching topics in 120 lesson plans from 24 courses of study

The junior high school apparently puts more emphasis on dramatization, life of the author, and reading aloud by pupils and teachers than does the senior high school. The list, as a whole, gives an interesting picture of method to-day. It is a curious fact that questions stimulating individual opinion or relating the material to pupil experience occurred too seldom to appear in the table of frequencies.

Memory work.—The consensus of opinion among curriculum makers in English is that memory work to be valuable must be carefully motivated and must emanate from the desire to make one's own some passage whose beauty and significance have been personally recognized and appreciated. As a matter of curiosity, the requirements in memorization from the courses of study were tabulated. Twenty-eight senior high schools require memory work; in one it is voluntary. In 22, the number of lines to be learned is set, and in 7 the selection itself is chosen by the curriculum maker. In the junior high school, memory work is required in 19 courses and is voluntary in 10. In 8 the selections for memorization are set, and in 21 they are chosen by the pupil. Suggestions on how to memorize appear in 12 of the courses. Observation of classes near the end of the year, when teachers suddenly realized it was time to "check up on memory work," would indicate that the procedure on an involuntary basis has few of the values commonly credited to it.

English and American literature.—Of the 94 senior or 4-year high-school syllabi, 58 offer courses in *American literature*. Twenty-four of these are in the eleventh year, 15 in the tenth, and 5 in the twelfth. Fourteen of them are two semester courses and the rest one semester. The most common type of organization is the chronological, with type of literature second in frequency and grouping around famous writers or masterpieces third. Two courses offer a novel arrangement by theme. Charleston, W. Va., for instance, groups American literature under three headings: (1) The elements of American life—her land, her people, and her historical heritage; (2) the spirit of America as revealed in her theory of government, her ideals of education, her religion and philosophy of life, and her principles of literary criticism; and (3) the relation of America to the world—her

influence, her attitude toward other nations as regards their political and commerical relations, their history, customs, and art, and their literature.

Analysis of courses supports the contention of educational leaders that a broader program of reading, a more general consideration of literary values, and greater emphasis upon contemporary materials occur in courses organized by type or by theme than in courses organized in chronological order of the development of literature. For instance, analysis of actual mention of periods for consideration shows the Colonial period at the head of the list, the Revolutionary period second, and the Civil War era third.

Fourteen of the courses in American literature require the use of a history of the subject as well as literary readings. Although a few warn teachers that the readings themselves are more important than historical backgrounds, there is large stress upon the latter in courses organized by the chronological method. As textbooks are now available for all three types of organization, a former handicap in materials for more progressive courses no longer exists. On the whole, however, there is in the courses in American literature a very encouraging amount of recent literary material.

Sixty-four of the 94 syllabi offer courses in English literature. Of these, half are organized according to type and half in chronological order. Where historical treatment occurs, three-fourths of the courses require a textbook in literature as well as literary readings. The periods stressed in order of mention are the ages of Elizabeth and Victoria, the eighteenth century, the age of Chaucer, the Anglo-Saxon period, the Renaissance, the Puritan age, and the twentieth century. Again, although comments concerning the primary stress upon readings are frequent, the emphasis upon historical backgrounds is patent. The same observation made regarding greater breadth of literary offerings and more stress upon contemporary sources in the type versus the chronological method in American literature applies also to courses in English literature. A less frequent method of organization by type includes both English and American literature in the illustrative selections of a single course. Differences of opinion concerning the value of a historical

course in English literature at the high-school level are notable in various sections of the country. In the East such materials are generally looked upon as belonging to the college rather than at the high-school level. In the Middle West the course in one form or another is almost universal. Those struggling to find literary content suited to the less gifted pupils in the school seem convinced of the undesirability of the course in the history of English literature for the average and low mentality groups in secondary schools to-day.

Electives in literature.—The growing interest in modern literary materials is evidenced by the fact that of the 51 elective courses in literature in the senior high school, 10 are in contemporary literature and 13 are in drama, either new or old. Twelve more are courses in dramatic art or play production, another evidence of prevalent interest in the oral interpretation of literature. These three types of courses, taught for the most part in the twelfth year, comprise 70 per cent of the offerings in electives. Oral interpretation of literature and a course in poetry occur twice, and a general course in the appreciation of literature appears three times. Other electives, all in the twelfth year, occur once each as follows: Oral Shakespeare, world masterpieces, nineteenth-century literature, the short story, the development of the novel, fiction, Shakespearean drama, directed reading, and the Bible.

Outside reading.—It is interesting to note that the unit method of instruction is bringing *outside* reading inside the course in literature. Programs in directed and free reading are likewise breaking down artificial distinctions between what is read in school and what is read at home. "Unit" libraries prevail in many places—collections of books grouped by theme or by type which have sufficient elements in common to stimulate lively discussion and exchange of experience quite different from the old-time reading "report" brought in at the close of a 6-week period without spiritual connection with the rest of the literature course. Although there is still sad evidence in places that Byrd's *Skywards*, for instance, is relegated to library shelves without the pale of "the home reading list" and that pupils read *this* for credit

and *that* without, the whole program of reading is generally broadening. Thirty-three junior and 52 senior high schools stress outside reading as a separate requirement of the course. A still larger number furnish book lists as suggestive in guiding pupil reading. On the whole, the lists are varied in interest and theme and well adapted to adolescent interests. Biographies of living heroes, stories of travel and adventure, nature and scientific materials, as well as informative prose on vocational subjects, appear on the lists along with the older and better established fiction, poetry, and drama. Of the 27 junior and 43 senior high schools which require book reports, less than a third provide a set form, with author, title, characters, etc., enumerated according to a fixed pattern. A number of courses urge variety in methods of sharing experience in reading, and fully a dozen warn against traditional forms and cut-and-dried patterns in book reports.

Relation of the library to instruction in English.—The relation of the library to English instruction is becoming more and more intimate. Very few English teachers remain who consider they are doing the librarian a favor in allowing their pupils two days of the term for learning the use of the library. Unit programs and laboratory methods can not proceed without close correlation between the library and the classroom. The custom of spending a number of class periods a month in library reading is becoming increasingly frequent in junior high school English courses. In Fresno a teacher of directed reading supervises the hours in the library twice a week on days alternating with physical education or art. In other systems the teacher accompanies her own classes. In the junior high schools of Seattle every English class spends one period a week in the library. In New Rochelle, N. Y., the librarian cooperates with teachers in social studies for work-type reading and with the teachers of English for pleasure reading. In Charleston, W. Va., where the librarian could not attempt to visit every English class in the school, all teachers of first-year English at a given period assemble with their students in the library for instructions, which are later utilized by the teacher in the class work of the following days. A similar plan is followed for other years. In Baltimore all

teachers of reading subjects are present during library lessons, so that the information given may be utilized immediately in classrooms throughout the school. In oral composition in many schools, pupils utilize diagrams of the school library for explanatory talks. In the upper years the use of reference books and magazine indexes forms the bulk of library instruction. In Minneapolis, where organization of literature by theme is in use, pupils browse in the library with their teachers at the beginning of every unit to discover what books of interest are available. In Long Beach, the day before the Easter recess, junior high school English teachers dismissed their classes to the library, that they might select books to take home for the holidays. The excitement of the pupils over the privilege of taking two books instead of one suggested poignantly that it is not the fault of boys and girls if their reading habits fail to be established early.

CHAPTER VIII · COOPERATION AND CORRELATION

Cooperation among departments.—There is no subject on which English courses agree with such unanimity as they do upon the necessity for cooperation of other departments in the establishment of correct habits of speech and writing in all classes of the school. Janesville, Wis., Pittsburgh, Pa., and the State courses of Montana and Oklahoma give sections of the syllabus to methods of stimulating such cooperation. The most common is agreement upon a single manuscript form for all written work throughout the school. In the J. Sterling Morton High School, at Cicero, Ill., this form is printed as a composition pad, with a space at the foot of every page for the name of the pupil and the initials of his English teacher. This makes it possible for the teacher of any other subject to report deficiencies in written work to the English department. Long Beach prints in the course of study a form for reporting poor English to the department. In Allentown, Pa., the English teachers assist the pupils in writing papers for other subjects. In Springfield, Mo., work from other courses is substituted for English themes. In a few cities, papers from other courses are occasionally handed to the English teacher for correction. In Somerville, Mass., each teacher gives a mark in English as well as a mark in his own subject. Janesville, Wis., outlines a program by which all teachers in the school will unite in a study of common errors in speech and writing. Pittsburgh proposes a scheme of cooperation among department chairmen. The statement of viewpoint in cooperation is characteristic of programs everywhere: "Cooperation is not a matter to be imposed upon other departments by the English department; neither is it to be regarded as a scheme by which other teachers are led to do the work of English teachers. It is to be regarded as a matter in which all departments should be interested for their mutual benefit." [1] At a meeting of department chair-

[1] High-School Course of Study in English—Senior Division. Board of Public Education, Pittsburgh, Pa. 1927.

men a set group of requirements in manuscript form, outlining, punctuation, spelling, and grammar is agreed upon at the beginning of each year for stress throughout the school.

Correlation of English with other subjects.—Plans for cooperation among departments for the promoting of better habits of speech and writing seem more frequent by far than are those for intercorrelation between subjects. Although numbers of courses print suggestions of desirable interrelationships, investigation proves them to be largely on paper. In several cities the writer found definite antagonism to the plan, resulting from unsatisfactory experiences in combining subjects. Teachers trained as subject-matter specialists seem unable to effect satisfactory amalgamation. The standards of each department loom larger than the unified experience of the pupil. In English and social studies the plan seems to have resulted in some places in the reduction of work in both to mere formalities. In many the connection formed has been too artificial to furnish motive force for the undertaking.[2]

In Lincoln and Horace Mann Schools at Teachers College, Columbia University, experiments in *integration* are under way at the moment. The term is used to denote an organic unity in which subjects of study as such are abolished, and pupils experience vicariously life in a period of the world's development through contact with its history, its social customs, its science and inventions, its music and art, its languages and literature. In Horace Mann School the "fused unit" is under the direction of cooperating teachers in English and social studies, with teachers from departments of science, art, music, mathematics, and languages called in as the development of the unit demands. Periods for languages and mathematics are set aside in the school program. Otherwise the major portion of the day is devoted to the integrated activity. In the Lincoln School the unitary program is allotted two periods per day, the time formerly devoted to English and social studies, plus the two periods a week for art. Instructors in English, social studies, and art are present

[2] Since this report was written a valuable survey of successful practices has appeared in The Enrichment of the English Curriculum, by Rollo L. Lyman. Supplementary Educational Monograph, Department of Education, University of Chicago. January, 1932.

throughout the course that each may discover as the unit proceeds all possible contributions which his subject may make to the undertaking.[3]

Informal correlations between English and other subjects abound in courses of study. Term papers in science and history are written in the English classes and credited in both courses. Everywhere there is a definite suggestion that topics for composition be drawn from all subjects of study, science, social studies, music, art. A common practice also is to have contributions to the home reading list made by every department in the school. In certain cities the English teacher knows the theme of the month in social studies and assists in the selection of related readings in fiction.

Experience suggests that correlations in work-type procedures in composition and literature with other subjects have been more successful than those related to the recreational and personal elements of the subject. In Baltimore, for instance, demonstration lessons in outlining and note taking given by the English supervisor are attended by all teachers of the school that they may know the type of procedure taught in English classes. For a period following such lessons all departments unite in giving specific practice in these skills as they apply to each individual subject.

Programs in general language are also comparatively infrequent in view of their general advocacy by junior high school specialists. In the 156 syllabi analyzed, only 5 such courses appear. They are in Janesville, Wis.; Houston, Tex.; West Hartford, Conn.; East Chicago, Ind.; and Washington State. Two of the courses are distinctly exploratory in nature, giving separate 6-week units to Latin and French, in order to allow pupils to test their skill and interest in linguistics. The others aim to give a more general view of the function and development of language, the contributions of other languages to our own, the elements of word study and derivatives, and the basic forms of grammar common to English and the foreign languages. A unit in mythology as it has contributed to English vocabulary is not uncommon

[3] *See* Western Youth Meets Eastern Culture by Frances G. Sweeney Emily F. Barry and Alice Schoelkopf, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1932.

in the courses. The aim is to produce a program which shall not only prepare for instruction in language but shall be valuable in itself for those who never pursue the subject further.

Interesting correlations between English and the arts are appearing in many places. The use of literature themes for art and of art for the illumination of literature is notable at present. Music, too, contributes frequently to the literature program. Reference has already been made to creative writing booklets composed in the English classroom, set to music by the music groups, illustrated in the art studio, and printed in the print shop. School festivals and pageants abound in which dramatic art and English classes unite in producing plays staged by the joint efforts of the departments of fine arts, mechanic arts, science, and home economics. Music and dancing are likewise contributed by their respective departments. In Cleveland the Jefferson Junior High School offers a course in costume designing with the cooperation of the teachers of household and dramatic arts. Interpretative dancing groups work hand in hand with music and poetry as well. In Oakland and Long Beach, courses definitely correlating art, music, and poetry are under way. The growing movement for intercorrelation of the arts seems significant for the teaching of English in the future.

CHAPTER IX: COLLEGE-ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS IN ENGLISH

Six of the 156 courses of study name preparation for college as one of the objectives of the teaching of literature in the senior high school. Aside from this fact, there is little mention of the relationship of the high-school course to requirements for entrance into the higher institutions. Everywhere, however, teachers and supervisors plead college-entrance preparation as the excuse for the appearance in courses of study of classics ill-suited both to the interests and to the abilities of the typical high-school pupil. The same plea is made concerning the adjunct accusative, metonymy and synecdoche, and paragraphs of obverse, detail, and illustration. No impression remains more vivid after conference with hundreds of teachers throughout the country than the fear under which they labor because of the requirements (real or imagined) of the institution higher up.

What obtains in the senior high school with reference to the university is equally true of the junior high school in relation to the senior institution. Even seventh-grade pupils in one State struggle with the difference between metonymy and synecdoche because "they will be expected to know them" when they reach the senior school.

On the other hand, conference with instructors in the higher institutions reveals a sincere desire for *a few things well done*. One is convinced that many of the requirements imposed on high-school boys and girls in the name of college entrance are as undesirable from the college point of view as they are from that of the high school. In one city a seventh-grade class of average and low mentality was subjected to five weeks of meticulous analysis of the *Lady of the Lake* because 4 of the 35 pupils were "going to the university." At the same time a count taken from a group of graduating seniors majoring in English in the university in question showed 1 in 4 who had read the selection and none who had ever been questioned concerning it in connection with his

college course. It is reasonable to suppose that many other high-school teachers are laboring under a similar delusion. The very fact that no single classic is taught in more than one-third of the schools of the country tends to support this belief. What is looked upon as essential in one section of the country may be ignored entirely in another.

It is impossible to generalize fairly concerning college-entrance requirements in the country at large. It can be said truly, however, that, in the statement of program for the North Central Association governing the colleges and universities of 20 Middle Western States and for the College-Entrance Examination Board, *no single classic is set as a requirement for everybody* and *no grammatical construction or principle is proposed for examination.*[1] Wide knowledge of literature, both old and new, power and accuracy of expression, variety and effectiveness of diction, and ability to think logically and to organize one's ideas effectively for presentation to others are the requirements of both governing bodies. It is an established fact that the old restrictive examination is retained as an *optional* form, because it is favored by the preparatory school; the colleges concerned largely prefer the comprehensive examination. It is significant also that the verdict of the college board in favor of the comprehensive examination is based on actual evidence that students who passed the old restrictive examination in English were less able to pursue their college courses effectively than are candidates who survive the comprehensives. A similar study at the University of California under the direction of Professor Ruch shows the writing of a single 500-word theme to be a better measure of success in college English than a detailed test in grammar and usage included in the examination.

It is obvious, on the other hand, that the proportion of junior and senior high school pupils who pursue later courses in college is characteristically small. Consideration of college-entrance requirements is a matter for the few rather

[1] Uniform North Central Association College-Entrance Requirements in English (Committee Report, 1931), available from Prof. C. O. Davis, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Thomas, C. S. Examining the Examination in English. Harvard Studies in Education. Cambridge, 1931.

than for the many. The problem is raised in this report because of the apparent desirability of cooperative conference between high school and college instructors concerning their common objectives in the teaching of English.

CHAPTER X : PROVISION FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Importance of the subject.—Since provision for individual differences throughout the secondary-school program is the subject of investigation in a separate project of the survey, the subject will receive only limited treatment at this point.

Teachers and supervisors are unanimous in placing first among the problems of curriculum revision in English the adequate provision for individual differences. The question is dealt with in one way or another in 46 of the 156 courses examined. It is likewise paramount in discussion wherever course-of-study revision is under way.

Segregation on the basis of ability is common in the courses analyzed, about one-third of them offering 2 or 3 track programs, and more than a third providing some form of variation from the core course for pupils of superior or of limited ability. Courses of the first group list in parallel columns or some other form three separate, if not distinct, courses for fast-moving, average, and slow-moving groups. Those of the second type print a single core course, intended for the middle range, with suggested variation for classes of superior or limited ability.

The 3-track program.—A typical 3-track course is Sacramento's,[1] based on the assumption that "no child should be asked to do something which it is manifestly impossible for him to do. Within his ability he is asked to work conscientiously and thoroughly, sometimes inspirationally, giving proof from time to time, through tests, of actual mastery." The distinction between the X course and the Y course is in degree of attainment; for the Z course the differentiation is also in type.

In the tenth grade the slow group reads *Captains Courageous* and *Lamb's Tales* and as many of the following as

[1] Other cities that have experimented with the 3-track program are Trenton, N. J.; Yakima, Wash.; Medford, Oreg.; Bend, Oreg.; Tulsa, Okla.; Pueblo and Colorado Springs, in Colorado; San Diego, San Francisco, and Berkeley, in California; and Charleston, W. Va.

possible: *The Jungle Book, The Prince and the Pauper, The Story of a Bad Boy, Tom Sawyer*, and *The Call of the Wild*. Meanwhile, the Y group reads two of four classics: *Travels with a Donkey, Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde, Silas Marner, Les Miserables*, and as much supplementary reading as possible from a group of four plays—*A Midsummer Night's Dream, As You Like It, The Merchant of Venice*, and *The Piper*. At the same time the X pupils read three of the four required classics, as many of the supplementary titles as possible, and certain additional travel books. The teachers of the Z group are warned not to underestimate the ability of the pupils, but to encourage individual projects, to stimulate interest by the use of visual aids, and to have frequent individual conferences. The superior group is to have still more activities—to note literary effects, to enjoy humor, to study the life and times of the authors, and to do creative writing in connection with the unit. The average group follows the activities of the superior, with the omission of notation of literary effects and the study of the life and times of the author.

In the mechanics of English such courses differentiate primarily between usage drills with slight analysis of sentence parts for the weaker groups and a regular course in grammar for the other levels, the top sections dealing with niceties of expression. Such courses are based, for the most part, on the assumption that differences of ability demand specific differences in content, the weak pupils requiring more written expression, longer time for a few essentials in grammar, and reading content of a simple, wholesome, nonliterary character, with factual information, harmless adventure, animal tales, and stories of real heroes predominating. For the bright pupils a traditional diet of literary classics and intricacies of grammar and rhetoric is varied by an occasional selection from contemporary literature.

The core course with variations.—A second group of courses assumes a required minimum which all groups must cover in common. For this work the slow classes have a longer amount of time and in many cases a modified method of procedure. The other two groups have supplementary and enriching content and activities graduated according to their abilities.

Kansas City, Mo., in the seventh grade, requires of everybody *Rip Van Winkle* and *The King of the Golden River*.[1] To these the average group adds *The Ransom of Red Chief* and *Wee Willie Winkie*, plus much dramatization and some study of characters. The A section covers the material of the two previous groups and reads as many additional short stories as possible. The pupils keep a notebook on authors, write 1-act plays, stories, and scenarios, and seek more materials in books and magazines.

The program shows a similar plan for composition. C groups emphasize correct form and content in letter writing, read famous letters, and compare their own letters with samples from the business world. In addition to this the B groups give talks on the postal system, study common abbreviations, and write a class round robin and imaginary letters. The A's meanwhile do these same things plus the writing of formal and informal invitations, corresponding with other schools, writing imaginary letter series, and collecting famous letters from the library.

Still other cities present a like adaptation of the contract method for use in classes not sectioned according to ability. For a mark of C, pupils do a minimum of required topics and additional activities for a B or an A.

The literature program of courses of this general type is based upon the assumption that there exists a traditional body of literature to which every pupil must be exposed in common—that the weak are to feast upon the same literary victuals as the strong, but in smaller helpings with a longer time for digestion.

A still larger number of courses record a core content for the middle group with differentiations for those above and below. Lakewood, Ohio, East Chicago, Ind., and other schools organize their reading around a common theme—*Chivalry*, as in Rochester, N. Y., or *Safety*, as in Janesville, Wis. Under such a plan the favored groups read *Ivanhoe* or Poe's *The Bells*, while slower groups build up the backgrounds of the medieval period with easier selections, such as *The White Company* and *Otto of the Silver Hand*, or approach the theme of *Safety* through Riis's simple prose accounts of *Heroes Who*

[1] Batavia, Ill., has developed a similar program.

Fight Fire. In Los Angeles a senior high school substitutes for the *Odyssey*, studied by superior pupils, Padraic Colum's simpler *Children's Homer* for the average classes and Baker's *In the Light of Myth* for weaker pupils. Long Beach in the junior high school, for instance, requires in the eighth grade certain stories of adventure, nature readings, short stories, short poems, and two long narrative poems. In grade 8B, teachers of weak groups are asked to substitute for *The Courtship of Miles Standish* miscellaneous prose, such as the *Story of Salmon* and *I am an American;* in grade 8A, Sharp's *Ways of the Woods* for short stories, and more miscellaneous prose for *Tales of a Wayside Inn*. In grade 9B, instead of the *Lady of the Lake*, slow-moving groups read simple prose narratives of *Joan of Arc* and *William Tell*.

Multiple-reading programs.—Oakland, Los Angeles, Denver, and other cities find useful a scheme of multiple reading. In any given unit the teacher chooses the books read from a list broad enough to contain selections suited to the varying needs of a large group of pupils. By individual reading methods, classroom libraries, and programs of free reading, teachers care for the varying interests and capacities of the pupils in their classes.

Electives and remedial courses.—Still other cities prefer a system of electives and remedial courses as a means of caring for individuals. The former, for the most part, are open only to superior pupils. Oakland, however, offers a uniquely valuable program of electives for weak pupils as well, broadening their interests, giving them social training, and furnishing a needed emotional outlet.

Extracurriculum organizations offer still further opportunity for such specialization. Baltimore, in a forthcoming revision, will insert these activities into the course as short-time electives.

Individualized instruction is likewise frequent in remedial classes to which pupils deficient, usually in the mechanics of English, are sent in lieu of, or in addition to, their regular class work. Highland Park, Mich., employs a specialist for such classes. Spokane divides the responsibility among regular members of the staff. The La Salle-Peru Township High School in Illinois offers special classes for repeaters,

with the literature content changed but the work on composition and mechanics remaining constant. Stockton, Calif., furnishes a single remedial class in English for students who pass the literature course but fail in composition during the tenth, eleventh, or twelfth grades.

The modified-content course.—A number of schools pursue policies of which the Denver modified-content course is typical. Pupils of low ability, segregated from the seventh grade through the tenth, have usage drills only during the junior high school years. In grade 10, when older and more able to grasp logical relationships of sentence parts, they are taught in one year all of the minimum essentials of grammar covered by the regular pupils in grades 7 through 9. At the same time they read different materials suited to their interests and capacities, with special stress upon remedial reading. Pupils in the modified-content group who continue with the work of grades 11 and 12 are required to pursue a preparatory course called 11C before registering for the work of the last two years. In this way the morale of the group is kept up by a reasonable degree of success in what they have attempted, their interests have been aroused, and many of them have achieved sufficient skill to be able to complete successfully the regular high-school course. Cleveland has a somewhat similar program for "early-leaving groups."

Medford, Oreg., has an analogous situation in favor of the brighter groups. By the middle of the tenth year the fast-moving classes have finished what the rest complete by the beginning of the eleventh. This leaves the second half of their tenth year free for electives in journalism and public speaking before all unite in the common courses of the eleventh and twelfth years.

Seminars for superior pupils.—The Fieldston School at Yonkers keeps the third hour every Wednesday free for so-called seminar hours in subjects of individual interest, such as news writing, modern poetry, comparative world literature, dramatic art, short-story writing, and the like. Superior pupils who become especially interested in one of these subjects may be excused from their regular course in English to pursue individual problems under teacher direction.

Special programs for overage pupils.—Berkeley provides a special outline of work for pupils of the physiological age of 16 and the mental age of a fourth-grade child. Three aims of the course are (1) to direct these pupils in ideals of conduct; (2) to give them an outlet for the emotions; (3) to imbue them with a sense of responsibility for what ability they have. In the pursuance of these ends it suggests definite instruction in morals and manners, practice in habits of accuracy and industry, a course in the simplest elements of reading, and the establishment of sentence sense. The program of simple dictations, adapted literature, conversations, and dramatizations presents an entirely different atmosphere from the individual-practice-pad laboratory method in which silence and an absence of social experience predominate.

Appropriate reading materials for weak pupils.—Appropriate reading materials for overage pupils of low mentality are sought by curriculum makers everywhere. The need now is for teachers who will try out with weak pupils all manner of books in a natural reading situation and *record* the results. Such work is in progress in Cleveland, Denver, San Francisco, Oakland, and other cities. A pooling of results would be most beneficial. Los Angeles' research shows a special interest among overage boys in sport stories and novels involving sex relationships—not factual materials of a vocational character as was formerly proposed for pupils of this kind. Others have found biographies of real people, stories of adventure, real or imaginary, animal tales, and simple narratives to be especially appealing. Still others have discovered current literature, magazines, travel sketches, and romantic adventure of special value.

Differentiation in methods of instruction.—Courses of study give evidence of a conviction on the part of teachers and supervisors that methods of instruction should vary decidedly with groups of different levels of ability. They point to shorter interest spans for weak pupils; the need of drill; the emphasis upon careful, explicit instructions; the absence of problems involving niceties of taste or analytical thought. Reading aloud by the teacher is commended everywhere for weak groups.

For bright pupils there is prevalent, in theory at least, a policy of enriching the course, broadening associations, widening social opportunities, and cultivating individual and special abilities. In many instances, however, the course offered follows a decidedly narrow, so-called college-preparatory program.

Problems for consideration.—On the whole, analysis of courses and conferences with English experts leads one to feel that before progress is to be made in the direction of adapting curriculums to individual needs many problems must be faced frankly and experimented with freely:

1. To what extent are the educational objectives different for pupils of different levels of ability?
2. Is there a set body of material which all should study in common? If so, how is that core to be determined?
3. Is the present English course suited to the life needs of any group now in our schools?
4. Granted that a boy has only one year left in school, what are the most important contributions a course in English may make to his future?
5. For weak and bright students, what are the important aims of English instruction in terms of attitudes? Of habits? Of skills? Of knowledge?
6. By what specific content or methods may these aims be best achieved?

CHAPTER XI : SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Basis of the report.—Conclusions of this national study of secondary-school English are based on (1) analysis of 156 courses of study for junior and senior high schools produced since 1925 by 127 cities in 35 States and (2) actual classroom visitation and conference with teachers and supervisors in 70 outstanding junior and senior high schools.

The general trends revealed not only point the direction of future progress but bring into sharp relief important issues in the determination of objectives, content, and methods of teaching English of vital concern to teachers and curriculum makers throughout the country.

Problems of administration.—In the junior high school there is a general tendency to reduce the time allotted to English to five hours a week in the ninth grade and slightly more in the seventh and eighth. The move is accompanied by a corresponding emphasis upon the responsibility of all departments of the school for those phases of English which are vital to success in their own fields and upon a closer relationship of English to all other subjects of study than exists at present. The question naturally arises as to whether the program of interrelationships is carefully enough defined and the responsibilities of all recognized with sufficient clarity to insure the maintenance of former standards of achievement.

Study of the program reveals also a disposition to look upon English as a unified activity with little of the old-time division into elements, such as spelling, language, reading, and grammar, taught in different courses by different teachers. The most common types of organization show alternating units of literature and composition taught by the same teacher within the same term with less evidence than heretofore of the artificial separation of reading from expression, on the one hand, and of the unnatural dependence of composition upon literature, on the other.

The program indicates also a gradual increase in time devoted to literature from the seventh grade through the twelfth and a corresponding decrease in emphasis upon composition. The question has been raised by curriculum makers as to the desirability of giving more attention to composition in the eleventh and twelfth grades as an asset both to those going on to college and those who will enter immediately into business pursuits.

The teaching of composition and grammar.—Analysis of courses reveals a definite tendency to look upon English as a tool subject, its primary object being to prepare boys and girls for the expressional activities of everyday life. More and more the literary aspects of writing are being reserved for superior pupils in classes or are being taught under individual direction for creative writing. Organization in terms of the functional centers of expression is typical of outstanding courses in the junior high school produced during the last few years. Activities in oral composition show significant changes in the direction of conversation, informal discussion, and simple explanation, or story-telling, as contrasted with former emphasis upon audience speaking and the formalities of debate. Written composition seems less successful in breaking with tradition. Even letter writing seems neglected in certain quarters to a degree not warranted by its importance in everyday life.

There is evident throughout the course in composition a preoccupation with matters of form and surprisingly little concern with having something to say. In statements of aim, in helps for teachers, and in requirements prescribed there is notable lack of recognition of the major ends of expression and the methods most effective in achieving them. Classroom visitation likewise reveals few opportunities for actual expression of ideas, and disproportionate emphasis upon grammar drills and exercises in punctuation. The problem of the relative importance of the stimulation and evaluation of ideas, the observation and interpretation of one's daily environment, and the effective communication of experience to others needs serious consideration at the moment. Concern for mere correctness of expression far out-

weighs consideration of the major social objectives of expression in which matters of form find their only reason for being.

Statements of aim reveal a desire to teach only that amount of grammar which is functional in speech and writing, but the number of topics so catalogued in the courses of study examined ranges from 45 to 147. No need is more pressing in the field of curriculum revision in English than the scientific investigation of the relationship of knowledge of grammar to correctness in speech and writing. The stress upon grammar technicalities in the average junior and senior high school course of study to-day seems curiously unwarranted, in view of the present absence of evidence concerning the whole problem. Study of offerings, however, points to a definite reduction in the number of grammar topics presented and a willingness to set aside certain Latinized forms as unrelated to the problems of English speech.

Use of frequency of error studies and drill upon a few essentials is characteristic of outstanding courses of study. Curriculum makers are less familiar, however, with recent investigations of correct usage, a fact revealed in the persistence in courses of study of certain niceties of expression long recognized as immaterial.

The situation concerning minimum essentials is chaotic. In one course the term denotes that amount of material to be covered by all pupils in common, including literature as well as composition. In another it indicates those skills to be mastered 80, 90, or 100 per cent for promotion into the grade above. For the most part, cities with widely varying populations have found it impossible to hold all pupils up to the same standard, especially a standard as high as that considered minimal in the average course of study in English. The question of what is *minimal content*, and whether any minimum at all can be set for pupils of IQ 76 and IQ 136 in the same class, is fundamental to curriculum revision in the future.

The teaching of literature.—Foremost among the aims of literature teaching to-day is breadth of understanding and interests through vicarious experience in reading. Next in importance is the development of the desire and standards of evaluation to continue reading under one's own direction.

In accord with this view, expressed in the courses of study analyzed, is the broadening of the course in literature to meet the varied interests and needs of the adolescent boy and girl. Stories of real heroes, of nature and animals, of exploration and pioneering adventure, together with informative selections on problems of current interest, stand side by side in many courses with the novel, the poetry, and the drama of more tradititional vogue. The English laboratory, equipped with classroom library, maps, study tables, and stages for dramatic performance, indicative of a new socialization of procedure in certain schools, furnishes a natural setting for the enjoyment of good books. Increased cooperation of librarian and teacher of English is notable also in its effect upon the program in literature, in which the unit method of procedure, with organization largely by type or by theme, promotes a more broadly extensive discussion of reading.

On the other hand, intensive study of a few set classics persists in large numbers of courses. The list of selections most frequently required for use with all pupils in common is roughly identical with that set for college entrance in 1890. Evidence of four to nine weeks spent upon a single selection is likewise not uncommon. In general, both courses of study and classroom procedure in literature reveal greater extremes of practice than any other aspect of English instruction. At one extreme is nine weeks of study on Burke's *Speech on Conciliation* with minute examination of five methods of refuting an argument illustrated within its pages. At the other is a program of individual and group reading in natural laboratory situations affording opportunity for intimate personal reaction to literature, the whole presided over by a teacher-reader who knows books and what they may mean to boys and girls. The aims of instruction in the two school systems are alike so far as the statements in their respective courses are concerned. If the one method is adapted to achieve the ends proposed, surely the other is not. Examination of classroom procedures in the light of the accepted objectives of the course in literature is a paramount necessity in the teaching of English to-day.

Problems for consideration.—Thoughtful review of the evidence revealed by a survey of curriculum making and

classroom practice such as this one raises questions of serious moment to the future teaching of English in secondary schools:

1. What should be the relationship of high-school English to the general objectives of secondary education?

2. How far does the present program in composition and in literature meet the present or the future needs of adolescent boys or girls?

3. To what objectives other than mere correctness should the composition course contribute?

4. To what extent does the present program in English grammar influence speech and writing? What is its relative importance in an overcrowded program of instruction?

5. Granted that a pupil is of low intelligence and has but a year or two to remain in school, what program of English instruction will contribute most to his future welfare and efficiency?

6. What is preparation for college; that is, what are the *actual* demands of higher institutions? To what extent should they dominate secondary-school practice?

7. Is there a common body of literary material with which all pupils should be familiar?

8. What are *minimum essentials* and on what bases should they be selected?

9. Granted that the major objectives of the teaching of literature are breadth of experience and interests and a habit of lifelong association with good books, what literature content and what methods of classroom instruction are best calculated to achieve these ends?

The National Council program of curriculum construction.—Those interested in the immediate future of curriculum making in English look with confidence on the activities of the curriculum commission of the National Council of Teachers of English. Under the guidance of W. W. Hatfield as chairman and the members of the steering committee, the council has already well under way a project for the revision of the English curriculum from the kindergarten through the university. Committees are now at work charged with the responsibility of defining objectives, suggesting specific activities, and proposing standards of achievement for the

various phases of English instruction in elementary and secondary schools and colleges. Directed by eminent leaders from all levels of the educational system, with unique possibilities for articulation and adequate facilities for research, the program should help materially in the building of a curriculum for the Nation at large which will stimulate renewed progress in the achievement of the manifold objectives of the teaching of English.