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Modern Languages in the Grades as a Means of Provision For Superior Children

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MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE GRADES AS A MEANS OF PROVISION
FOR SUPERIOR CHILDREN.

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of
the Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Arts in
Loyola University
Chicago, Illinois

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PREFACE.

During the last three decades there has been a general reconstruction of American educational theory and practice. The curriculum, perhaps more than any other element of the educative process, has become the object of critical study. However, in most elementary schools, modern language study has been among the last to profit by these recent factors of change. Through the series of experimentation in curricula content and procedure, the emphasis has been placed on the so-called social studies rather than on the study of foreign languages, with a careless disregard of the social and cultural value of understanding a foreign people through the medium of their language and literature.

The purpose of this particular study is to sketch briefly the general evolution of current educational reorganization by mentioning some of the more conspicuous psychological and technical experiments that have combined to produce the interest manifested today in the problem of the superior child and his educational needs; and also to determine, as far as possible, the present status of modern language instruction in the elementary schools, particularly those schools that have introduced the study of modern languages for the purpose of making provision for superior or gifted children. A third purpose is to discuss the values and objectives of modern language in-

struction, especially in the elementary schools.

This thesis is an honest, although an imcomplete, attempt to report the status of modern foreign language instruction in the elementary schools of the United States as revealed by the data gathered by means of a questionnaire.

Special thanks are due Dean Austin G. Schmidt, S.J., under whose scholarly guidance it has been the privilege and good fortune of the writer to work.

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CHAPTER I:

EARLY TYPES OF PROVISION.

Although the Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale, which appeared in 1908, was devised primarily to test the backward, the feebleminded, and other children who failed to make satisfactory progress in school, yet its greater contribution came, undoubtedly, through the stimulation which it gave to the existing interest among schoolmen in the necessity of making provision for the education of mentally superior children. Until that time existing school systems had spent a very disproportionate amount of theory, time, and money in providing special educational treatment for defective children. Now attention was directly focused on the problems centered in the upper quartile of the intelligence scale.

The history of education in America shows that the problem of individual differences was not a new one. For many years the study of such differences had found practical application in the formation of various plans, all more or less similar, for instruction and promotion.

Historical Survey of Early Attempts.-- As early as 1868 Dr. William T. Harris, Superintendent of the St. Louis public schools, introduced a flexible system of promotion in the lower grades, where the pupils were promoted every five or six weeks during the school year. The plan was based on the fact

that

"pupils differ greatly in their ability to do the work of the grades. A pupil entering the first grade at eight years of age can make nearly double the progress that can be made by a pupil five years of age. The bright, nervous child will be able to advance more rapidly than the one who is dull and stolid.

Unless the school provides for these different rates of progress by frequent reclassification, the bright pupils not being held up to the work of which they are capable will acquire habits of carelessness and listlessness, while the dull pupils being compelled to move forward at a too rapid pace, will become demoralized and disheartened" (51:27).

In 1886 Shearer devised the "Elizabeth Plan," a modification of the St. Louis Plan, and put it into practice in the schools of Elizabeth, New Jersey. This plan is fully described in his book, The Grading of Schools, which he published in 1898. Although the plan was not retained in the schools of Elizabeth, Shearer's attempt, together with his lectures and many published articles dealing with the subject, resulted in much good by calling attention to the need of a better organization and different methods of instruction in the elementary grades in order to adjust them to the varying needs of the individual pupils (87:749-57).

A later attempt to individualize instruction resulted in the "Pueblo Plan" as organized by Superintendent Preston W. Search. In theory the aim of the plan was to do away with class uniformity, and to permit the pupils to progress according to their individual ability so as to have "the full, free opportunity to live up to the best that is in them," but in practice it seems to take care of the backward child rather

than those of unusual ability (86:28-32).

The Cambridge (Mass.) "Double-Track Plan" came into existence about 1891. It permitted a pupil to save two years during the last six years of an eight-year course. "An eight and a six year course ran parallel and were arranged so as to articulate with each other along the line" (24:373). Beginning in fourth grade the pupils were grouped on the basis of their ability. Special teachers were employed to coach the backward as well as those on the "fast Track." The classes were graded in such a way that they came together at certain common points which permitted the transfer of pupils in either direction without a loss of any portion of the course of study, and for the slower pupils, of not more than three months of time. During the seventeen years the plan was in operation "7% of the pupils completed the last six years of the course in four years; 28% in five years; 50% in six years; and 15% in seven or more years" (24:374). In 1910 the rearrangement of the plan attracted nationwide attention. This modified form is still in operation.

In 1895 the schools of Santa Barbara adopted the "Concentric Plan." Each grade is divided into three sections or groups, each doing the work of the grade concentrically. Transfers may be made within the grade from group to group at any time, and the A pupils are promoted to the C group of the next grade just as soon as they are ready for the work. The fundamental principles are the same for all, but the A pupils

do more extensive work than the B pupils, and the B pupils more difficult work than the C pupils. Emphasis is placed on the enrichment of the curriculum for those who are mentally capable rather than upon their more rapid advancement through the grades, although there is also opportunity for acceleration (11:296-302).

The same year (1895), James H. Van Sickle, Superintendent of Public Schools, Denver Colorado, devised a plan to do away with class unity. It was based on the principle that the ordinary class recitation is ill adjusted to the individual differences of the pupils. If the standard class speed is to be the ability of the bright pupils, then the normal and the dull are hurried too fast; while superior pupils will lose interest and form habits of idleness, if they are forced to a standard adjusted to the abilities of the slower members of the class. Consequently, the brighter pupils of each class were given the opportunity of doing extra work during free periods while the others were reciting. The special feature of the plan was not to save time so much as to provide the opportunity for more extensive and intensive work on some special topic of personal interest (106:38).

In 1897 the schools of Portland, Oregon, adopted a modified form of the "Cambridge Plan" which applied the semi-annual promotion scheme to the usual eight-grade system. The course was divided into cycles, and the pupils were permitted to advance at the rate best fitted to their powers. Those who

remained in the upper division were able to save two years (51:43-45).

Segregated Classes for Gifted Pupils.-- New York City was perhaps the first (1900) to organize special classes for pupils of unusual ability. These pupils were selected as very bright by their teachers and segregated into special groups that allowed them to cover the usual course of study, but more rapidly than the unselected classes of the same grade.

In rapid succession other large cities formed special classes known as "Preparatory Centers," the purpose of which was to provide definite educational treatment for exceptional pupils. In September, 1901, Worcester, Massachusetts, selected pupils from the different schools of the city and organized classes

"at convenient centers to receive instruction from teachers of more than ordinary ability. At first, these schools received pupils from grades seven, eight and nine, but entrance from the seventh grade has since been discontinued. In addition to the regular work of the remaining grammar grades, work was given in English, French, German and Latin; so that after two years of work in these preparatory schools, the pupils enter high school with a full year's credit in English, French, German or Latin, and without having slighted any of the grade subjects" (45:31).

The following year similar classes were organized at Baltimore, Maryland.

At the annual meeting of the N.E.A. in 1908 Van Sickle, Chairman of the Committee of the National Council of Education, in a report on "Provision for Exceptional Children in the Public Schools," called attention to the fact that, while

acceleration was not unimportant, it was not solving the problem of providing educationally for the exceptionally capable child, and he pointed out that the really important procedure was pedagogical rather than administrative. He states:

"In our conception of what the gifted child can do we are inclined to look upon the shorter time in which he can accomplish the tasks of the conventional course of study. Until we comprehend that for the gifted child a somewhat different atmosphere should be provided, that too, a different curriculum should be developed, we shall accomplish little" (105:350-51).

Kendall voiced the same opinion when he outlined his plan which was to provide for the ablest children during the last two years of the grammar school course.

"These children should be placed with a strong teacher, for some of the ablest pupils will not make use of their power unless the teaching is effective... The work for such children would not be the conventional course of study, for they are the alert and the capable... Latin or German may be begun, literature may be increased in content, history and geography may be combined, the scope of mathematics may be increased, the use of English may be broadened and strengthened. These pupils go to the high school prepared to enter the second half year, or they will reach high school one half year ahead of the pupils of normal power. There need be little fear of their ability to maintain themselves in high school. There are numerous testimony bearing on this point. In Cambridge the four-year grammar-school pupils lead their classes in high school, and have done so for years" (60:149-50).

Modifying the Technique for Gifted Pupils.-- One of the first classes conducted by a special technique was organized in Cincinnati in 1910. Thirty-two exceptionally bright or superior children were selected and placed under the care of Miss Flora Unrich, who sought to develop in them "habits of

concentration, self-control, continuity, and adaptability." Although twenty-five of the thirty-two accomplished two years' work in one, the emphasis was entirely on the method of instruction rather than on acceleration. "The aim was the adjustment of class instruction to individual needs" (104:247). According to the teacher, none of the essential subject matter was omitted;

"on the contrary, a maximum quantity of work called for in the course of study had to be accomplished, and this merely by avoiding all mechanical teaching, appealing to the reason and judgment of the pupils, reducing all drill to a minimum, studying carefully in advance the entire year's course, and selecting kindred facts and subjects. This made much correlation possible, and prevented dissipation and side tracking of the pupil's energies, by presenting such material when it could be effectively assimilated" (104:247-48).

For some years following this experiment Cincinnati made no provision for special classes, but about 1916 it again opened such classes and appointed special teachers.

The pupils who are recommended as prospective members of these classes are now tested by the director of the psychological laboratory.

The same year (1910) the Practical Arts School of Fitchburg, Massachusetts, rearranged the program of the seventh and eighth grades so that it should consist of four different and differing courses, each one of which led to high school, if the pupil maintained creditable standing in his work. One of these, the "Literary Course" required in addition to the usual subject matter five hours per week of

erman. Here was a course of study offering each child a chance to work up to the full measure of his capabilities. One pupil might elect "language enrichment" while another elected "industrial enrichment."

At the present time (1929) this school, now known as the "Normal Junior High School," contains only the seventh and eighth grades. The program is somewhat different. It has a nearly uniform course for all pupils with the exception of these electives: French, typewriting and business practice, and additional shopwork or home economics. Three periods a week are devoted to electives. The Principal¹ remarks that:

"It usually happens that our most capable pupils are those who elect French, though there are many exceptions... Since the war, French is the language offered... Three hours per week are devoted to the study.

"It is taught by a French-speaking teacher who is a graduate of the normal school and who has studied one summer at the Sorbonne in Paris. She speaks English perfectly, and has work in other subjects, principally English.

"Much of the work in the seventh year is taught by the direct method. The texts used are Greenburg's Premier Livre, Methode Berlitz, Livre, and Guerber's Contes et Legendes for supplementary reading. A little formal grammar is taught in the eighth grade, and more reading is done. Le Premier Livre by Meras is used."

These various flexible promotion plans indicate the importance educational leaders have attached to the problem of

1. Mary A. McConnell, Principal of the Normal Junior High School, Fitchburg, Massachusetts, in reply to the writer's questionnaire, January 3, 1929.

adjusting school organization and curricula to the needs of exceptional children, yet at best they have contributed but indirectly to the pedagogy of the supernormal. Even today our school systems are pitifully inadequate in providing for those children who are endowed by nature with powers, abilities, and talents by virtue of which they seem likely to become of special value to society. The need is apparent, but progress has been slow.

However, "the progress that Binet and others had made in the field of mentality testing had created an entirely new situation" (100:2). Interest in the education of the mentally superior child was intensified through the psychological study of mental traits. Scientific testing revealed that among school children, those of exceptional intellectual ability are just as numerous as the backward and the feeble-minded. Also, "taking the country over, the ratio of accelerates to retardates in the school is approximately one to ten" (102:12). And yet in the average school system they are ignored, simply because they are not recognized without the aid of a mental test.

New Efforts Resulting from Scientific Testing.-- For the purpose of investigation Bureaus of Educational Research have been opened. Psychologists and researchers have set to work in an entirely new direction to investigate the special aptitudes of superior children in order to conserve and develop them.

For as Terman points out:

"The future welfare of the country hinges, in no small degree upon the right education of these superior children, whether civilization moves on and up depends most on the advances made by creative thinkers and leaders in science, politics, art, morality and religion... Through the leveling influences of the educational lockstep such children at present are often lost in the masses. It is a rare child who is able to break this lockstep by extra promotion" (102:12).

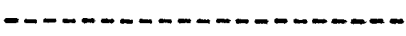
The numerous educational journals have taken up this subject and have published more and more frequently articles describing special classes that have been formed in different sections of the country to provide for children of superior general intelligence, and pleading for administrative recognition of them. This evoked much theoretical discussion involving the adjustment of organization, of subject matter, and especially of methods of instruction to the various needs and capacities of these children who are mentally as far above the average as the feeble-minded are below, and whose rate of progress should be more rapid than that of the average child.

It is evident that the schools as they are now organized cause pupils to utilize opportunity in inverse ratio to the extent to which opportunity exists. To neglect the child of exceptional ability in favor of his mental inferiors not only makes for unnecessary waste, but permits the superior child to form habits of idleness that may, and often do, persist all through life. Each child should be provided with opportunities that challenge his intellect, and be urged to give his maximum effort so as to produce results in accordance with his ability.

The superior child who is permitted to do work unworthy of his powers is just as retarded as the less gifted child who fails to accomplish the work of the grade at the rate at which it is usually given.

In order to determine the needed adjustment many experiments have been carried on. Some of them were crude and limited in their opportunity. Nevertheless, they are significant in that they foretold a movement in the general trend of educational practice that should bear us far toward the point where scientific knowledge of procedure proper for children of exceptional mental ability will be clear and exact, and combined with the results obtained by such investigators as Terman, Whipple, Monroe, and others who have been active in this field, will yield a body of knowledge that should be certain and definite. There is much reason to hope that, as psychology improves the methods of testing individual differences, it will become possible to educate each child according to his innate learning capacity.

Today, (1929) after almost twenty years of scientific experimentation only thirty-nine cities having a population of 100,000 or over use ability grouping in their school systems.²



2. Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education in a letter to the writer, November 14, 1928.

The best that most of the schools have to offer is a flexible promotion plan. However, the attempts made during the last generation toward providing more suitable education for children of exceptional ability are worthy of consideration.

The methods used in these experiments throw added light upon the fact: (1) that the bright pupils do fundamentally the same work, but in less time; (2) that they do work similar in quantity, but superior in quality in less time; (3) that the enrichment of the curriculum by the addition of new subjects results in a saving of time in high school; (4) that many schools are now employing an entirely different type of work with but little or no gain in time; and (5) that individualized instruction is one of our current educational objectives.

Most of these experimental classes have taken the form of an opportunity class or a "special group." They were organized for one or two years, and then the children were returned to the regular class or sent on to high school. As a rule, a "special group" is able to cover about twice the amount of work they would have accomplished had they remained in the original class. Besides this, occasionally, we find the introduction of one or two high-school subjects into the seventh- and eighth-grade course of study, for which the pupils are allowed advanced standing credit on entering high school.

Classes Organized on a Scientific Basis.-- Scientific study of the supernormal child seems to indicate that the administrative aspects of the problem are secondary to the

dagogical. The most important task for the school is to provide the instruction best suited to the capacity of superior minds. Adler reports that in Public School No. 77, New York City, an attempt was made to adapt methods of instruction to superior pupils. The experiment was based on the principle that "pupils of advanced intelligence should not only make more rapid progress than those of younger mental age, but that methods of instruction should be adapted to mental maturity" (2:23). The children were selected individually and personally by Dr. Adler according to the Goddard (1911) Revision of the Binet Scale. The thirty-five first grade boys and thirty-six fourth grade boys who made the best scores were placed in a special section and "in each class progress was made at a rate commensurate with the abilities of the children" (2:24).

Adler adds that

"in the advanced section special efforts were made to engender the higher habits of independent study, the selection of the main thought of a paragraph or a page, the organization of minor details around larger topics, and the cultivation of initiative in the use of a textbook and other aids to study were particularly emphasized" (2:27).

Patterson, in describing the classes in the "preparatory Center" of Baltimore, mentions that one of the aims is "to develop in the pupils habits of self-reliance, of promptness, and of concentration" (78:235). Since rapid advancement depends on concentrated attention, certain specific helps are provided in these classes to teach the children how to study. Besides Latin and advanced English a modern language, either

German or French, is added to the elementary curriculum for the seventh and eighth grades. These three extra credits are allowed to apply on high-school requirements (78:234-38).

Taylor reports that in 1911-1912 he worked with a class in beginning algebra. He urged each pupil to work alone for a designated time at a maximum rate under normal conditions. His aim was to develop accuracy and rapidity. He concludes that:

"speed and accuracy go hand in hand.... The poorer group is the only one that has an opportunity to work to their full ability..... The more efficient mental growth must be accompanied with a conscious, continuous maximum of effort, and alertness for facts and principles necessary for mastery of the subject" (99:378).

As the results of his experiment show that both the inferior and the superior children suffer by heterogeneous grouping, he pleads for special classes: "Let the false standard, that all pupils have the same ability, be broken down, and for once truly and frankly recognize that they are wholly different, and thereby cannot uniformly perform the same task at the same rate" (99:380).

In 1915 Detroit tried an experiment with gifted children. As reported by Cleveland "it was in the hope of discovering and providing the type of training most effective in liberating the mental forces of the most promising" (14:180). The most promising seventh- and eighth-grade pupils of fifteen schools were selected by their teachers and principals. These children were then tested by the Binet Scale. One hundred and

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sixty whose I. Q. was 120 or over were selected and placed in three groups. The aim was not acceleration; but, though they were able "to save a little time, the emphasis is placed on the richer course" (14:181). Latin and algebra were begun in the seventh grade, and at the end of two years they had completed the course for seventh, eighth, and ninth years. Superior teachers were in charge of each group.

In a follow-up study of the work done by these children Cleveland reports:

"At the end of the year we found twenty-two of the 160 reported weak; fifteen of these in one subject only; fourteen of these fifteen in Latin, and thirteen of them in one school. Fifteen of the twenty two were in 7B, six in 7A, one in 8B and none in 8A. Only four were reported generally weak. The main cause of the difficulty in the case of eleven pupils was reported as lack of concentration and application which of course need not indicate that the testing was at fault" (15:198).

In February, 1917, an "Opportunity Class" was formed at the Louisville Normal School. It consisted of ten boys and ten girls, most of whom were from the 4B grade, selected by means of the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Scale, by the director of the psychological laboratory. The intelligence quotients ranged from 123 to 167, with a median of 137.³

3. Sidney L. Pressey and Luella W. Pressey, "Efficiency of a Group Scale of Intelligence." Journal of Applied Psychology, 3, March, 1919, p. 68-80. An exposition of the tests given to Race's experimental class and the results which indicate that children can form habits that cripple their ability.

The aim of this class was not acceleration, "but rather to furnish an abundance of cultural material and to give the pupils a greatly enriched course." However, the class actually covered the work of the fourth grade in a half year.

"Besides the accomplishment of this work, the children learned to use with a considerable degree of freedom four hundred words of conversational German. They also composed the poem and music of a spring song and an operetta.

"The class did this work happily and with ease. Home study was discouraged, except where it was a matter of great desire, and then it was limited to twenty minutes. In character and disposition these children are conceded by all who know them to be superior. They are not conceited or puffed up by their selection for the class" (80:97-98).

In 1918 Specht reported results from a class selected by Miss Irwin, a psychologist, in Manhattan. The children were taken from Public Schools No. 64 and No. 15, from grades 4B through 6B. Eligibility for admission to the class required an intelligence quotient of at least 120 and "desirable social traits." Two children having high I. Q. 's were omitted because they possessed several unfavorable traits of character. The intelligence quotients of the selected group as measured by the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Scale ranged from 120 to 161. In order that these children "might have the fullest and richest opportunities for their mental and physical development several modifications of the course of study were necessary." Music, drawing, physical training, composition of plays, songs, dances, nature study, and care of pets were added to the curriculum. The class made remarkable progress.

At the beginning of the third term they had passed from the original 4B through 6B groups to grades 7A and 8B. "In language habits the children of this class displayed characteristic neighborhood tendencies (Lower East Side).... All of them entered high school, and later reports show that they sustained their scholarship standard in the respective classes they entered" (92:393-98).

In 1919 Whipple published an account of an experiment carried on at the Leal School, the largest elementary school in Urbana, Illinois. The book is a detailed comparison, by tests, of "special" and "control" classes. The special class was selected on teachers' judgments based on records made by the children in their school work. It "consisted of thirty pupils, fifteen in the fifth grade and fifteen in the sixth grade, who represented practically the top twenty per cent of the enrollment in each of these two grades in the entire school" (111:11).

"The plan was to observe carefully the work of every pupil in the special group, and also to apply to each pupil a quite extensive series of both mental and educational tests in order to see to what extent the actual performance in the classroom checked with the results of each test" (111:13).

The children were tested by individual tests, group tests, and educational tests. Also, quite an amount of check testing was done in the other rooms of the Leal School to obtain control data to be used in interpreting the data of the special group. Determined by the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Scale, the I.Q.'s of the fifth grade ranged from 101.5 to 146,

with an average of 119.3; the sixth grade ranged from 99.3 to 133.1, with an average of 115.9. Although these children had the opportunity of completing two years' work in one, only about two-thirds of them did so. Whipple reports that:

"It has been shown that within the Special Group, selected by school officials for their presumptive school ability, were some eight or ten that failed to accomplish the two years' work in one in a perfectly satisfactory manner, and that these pupils, with perhaps minor exceptions, would have been rejected at the outset, had the selection been made upon the basis of mental tests.

"Our argument in favor of the superiority of the test method is, however, incomplete unless we can show that there were pupils left in the Control Group who would have succeeded splendidly in the Special Group and that these pupils would have been chosen at the outset, had the selection been made from the basis of mental tests" (111:94).

He also mentions that "sound health should be a prerequisite for admission to classes for gifted children." Likewise he holds that "the method of selecting gifted children should be by mental tests, not by teachers' estimates of the pupil's ability nor by school administrators' inferences from school marks" (111:119).

Coy, in 1923, published an account of a class of exceptional 4A and 5B children in Columbus, Ohio. Their intelligence quotients ranged from 114 to 156, with an average of 128.5. The class was in session from January 2, 1919, until June, 1920, at which time the children were promoted to 8B. Special methods were used and during the second year Greek and French were added to the curriculum. In regard to the study of French the author says:

"At the beginning of the second year the children started to study French. For a time no textbook was used, but the teacher gave them grammar and translation on the blackboard. This was later supplemented by a most delightful little book by Lady Bell, called French, Without Tears. The stories in this were read in French, translated, and then dramatized in French. The children were very happy in the strange sounds of the French words; they were not at all troubled by the self-consciousness in pronunciation which sometimes attacks older students.

"They learned many conversational phrases, and their special delight was to improvise simple dialogues in French. During the second year Meras' Le Premier Livre was used as a text, and the first year of junior high school French was covered. The author did not consider the work in this field especially good. The learning of grammar and vocabulary seemed drudgery to many of the children, and they were inclined to do it rather carelessly. Perhaps, for work in a field so new to the children, the assignments were too long and there was not sufficient review" (19:117).

During the three semesters the teacher followed their progress by the use of a comprehensive series of tests. In many cases it was possible to compare the results thus obtained with established grade norms and to determine the acceleration of the group. "As far as the author was able to learn none of the special group had any difficulties of adjustment with regard to their classmates in the junior high school" (19:186).

In 1924, Stedman, the organizer and training teacher in charge of an opportunity room at the University of California described a five years' experiment with a class composed exclusively of children of superior intelligence. The class was organized January, 1918, in the Training Department of the Los Angeles State Normal School, which is now the Southern Branch of the University of California. The selected group was taken from 4A, 6B, and 6A. They were given a battery of mental and

educational tests. Special projects and activities were provided for the enrichment of the curriculum in order to study the principles and technique best adapted to the training of supernormal pupils.

"In chronological age they ranged from seven to eleven years; in mental age, measured by the Stanford-Binet Scale, from eleven and a half to fourteen and a half years; in intelligence, from I.Q. 125 to I.Q. 167" (93:6).

The standard for eligibility to the class was an I.Q. of 125. This was later raised to a standard of 140. The aim of the school in organizing this class was "to establish for gifted children an environment where their abilities might develop in accordance with the psychological principles underlying individuality" (93:5).

During the first six months the 4A group completed the work of 5B; and four of the five boys in 6B finished the work of 7B, or one and a half years' work in six months. The other boy in 6B completed one year's work in the same time, with the exception of arithmetic and history. The 6A group completed one year's work in six months.

French was considered a necessary addition to the curriculum. In regard to this subject the author makes the following statement:

"It is conceded that childhood is the time to learn a foreign language. Without doubt a curriculum planned for gifted children should make definite provision for this training. With regard to the linguistic ability of these individuals, Madame Cerf, Supervisor

of French in the University Training School, makes the following statement: "My observation of the work of the children of the opportunity room has proved to me that gifted children stand out with regard to their grasp of modern languages (in this case French), and compare most favorably with older children in beginners' classes, and with more advanced pupils of the eighth and ninth grades. The group I have in mind started French with a student teacher. From the beginning they retained definite rules and tried to put them into use. Many times I saw the children call attention to mistakes which escaped the student teacher. In every case they were right. During the second semester I taught the class myself, reviewing the first semester's work in a systematic way, and was agreeably surprised with the progress the children made in a few weeks. I was leading them into the course of ninth grade French, A and B. At the end of the term they could with credit have been put into these grades. Understanding of the language and ability to use it seemed to come to them easily. I believe this progress was due to their reasoning power; their questions showed a maturity of thought far above the average" (93:14-15).

This historical survey is not to be considered as a complete record of all the attempts that have been made to provide suitable education for superior children, for there have been hundreds of studies carried on in all parts of the country; but sketches briefly some of the more conspicuous efforts and it is fairly representative of what has been done toward the fundamental reconstruction of the entire range of our educational system. Moreover, the survey is based on those published reports which are available to anyone who may be interested in any particular case and who may wish to study it more carefully.

CHAPTER II.

STATUS OF MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES.

For the purpose of securing authentic information with regard to the present status of modern language instruction in the elementary schools of the United States two questionnaires were sent out during months of November and December, 1928. One questionnaire,⁴ in the form of a letter, was addressed to the State Superintendents of Public Instruction of twenty-six selected states where it was thought there was a possibility of learning something definite concerning the teaching of modern languages in the elementary grades.

Twenty-three replies were received. Seven of these had nothing to report. Three: Colorado, Georgia, and Rhode Island, stated that the matter is entirely in the hands of the county and city authorities. Alabama and Indiana replied that, while they have not as yet prescribed any definite work on the instruction of superior or gifted children in the elementary schools, they were planning to initiate a program; that in some of the better city systems where elementary supervisors

4. See Appendix A.

were employed some very good work was being done, but that very little attention had been given to the rural elementary schools.

Eleven states: California, Connecticut, Illinois, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Virginia, and Washington, reported the teaching of modern languages in the junior high schools.

Mr. A. B. Meredith, Commissioner of Education, Hartford, Connecticut, reports the homogeneous grouping of classes as quite common throughout the state, and that about 35% of the pupils elect modern languages. While the present program of study is not quite satisfactory in his opinion, it is due largely to the fact that senior high school teachers are not always sympathetic, and that better articulation will come from a better understanding by high school teachers of the elementary and junior high school program.

Likewise, J. L. Clifton, Director of Education in the State of Ohio, feels that the attitude of high-school teachers is not very favorable toward these accelerated pupils when they enter high school. He recommends that modern language study should start below the ninth grade, chiefly for the purpose of guidance. At the same time several Ohio cities are teaching French and Spanish in the seventh and eighth grades. A few cities have discontinued such classes, giving for the reason the lack of funds for their support. However, the re-establishment of such classes in the near future is being advocated.

Most of the other favorable reports are similar to that of Mrs. Josephine Corliss Preston, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Olympia, Washington. She says in part: "Pupils in many schools are classified, as far as possible, according to their I.Q.'s. This is done in the Intermediate and High Schools. Modern languages are offered in the seventh and eighth grades of the intermediate schools as tryout courses."

Data Gathered by Means of A Questionnaire.-- The other questionnaire,⁵ in the form of a return post card, was sent to Superintendents of Schools in cities having a population of 10,000 or over. One thousand cards were mailed to the various cities in the forty-eight states in the United States, and to Washington, D.C., in an endeavor to discover the extent to which modern languages have been introduced into the elementary school curriculum. Of these one thousand cards, five hundred thirty-four returns were received from forty-three states.

Since none of the cards sent to Arkansas, Florida, Nevada, New Mexico, and Tennessee were returned, it is perhaps fair to assume that these states had nothing to report.

Three hundred eighty-seven of the returned cards stated that nothing is being done in regard to modern language instruction in the elementary grades. Also, they answered in the negative the question concerning the organization of special

5. See Appendix B.

classes for superior or gifted pupils.

Forty-four cities reported that, while no modern language is offered in the elementary schools, they are, nevertheless, not unmindful of the superior pupils. They have provided other subjects for the enrichment of the curriculum. Most of these classes are for the seventh and eighth grades, although a few schools include all the grades. The subjects offered cover a wide range. The industrial arts and commercial subjects predominate. Some of the subjects less frequently mentioned are: agriculture, algebra, auto, band, carpentry, dancing, drawing, electricity, expression, general science, health, home economics, instrumental music, nature study, orchestra, physical education, sewing, shop, social studies, thrift, vocal, and wood carving.

A careful analysis of the data reveals that only twenty-three schools are beginning the study of foreign languages below the eighth grade, while thirteen delay it until 8A. Only two cities, Los Angeles and Pasadena, California, have placed the study below the seventh grade. Hence the eighth grade seems to be the generally accepted one for the introduction of a modern language.

Seventy-five of the favorable reports received relate to the junior high school course of study as including modern languages in grades 7, 8, or 8A. In a way this is to be expected, since the function of the junior high school is to

bridge the gap existing between the traditional elementary schools and the high schools.

Joliet, Illinois, is introducing general language in the eighth grade as a preview course leading to later electives. Altoona, Pennsylvania; Keokuk, Iowa; and Mt. Vernon, New York, have general language incorporated in the eighth-grade course of study as an exploratory course. Mt. Vernon reports 102 pupils giving eighty minutes a week to this exploratory course. Mechanicville, New York, begins the general language course in seventh grade.

Claremont, New Hampshire, taught French in grades seven and eight for several years with good success, but dropped it last year in seventh grade, and this year (1929) in eighth grade on account of over-crowded curricula. Music, art, and physical training are now taking up the time formerly devoted to language.

Cincinnati, Ohio, is making a few tentative experiments in the eighth grade of several of the junior high schools, but is not yet prepared to make any statement concerning them.

J. W. Ashbury, Superintendent of Schools, East Chicago, Indiana, reports that they are not teaching foreign languages below high school. He states:

"Perhaps, if we ever reach the point where conditions are not so crowded in the junior-senior high schools of East Chicago, classes may be formed in both German and Spanish. However, I am almost sure that these offerings will not be below the ninth grade."

Houston, Texas, operates on the five-three-three system.

French is an elective in the sixth year, and is limited to the more efficient pupils. Pupils of the seventh grade who are preparing for college entrance are advised to choose a modern language course. In the eighth grade a foreign language is required of those who elect the college preparatory course, and optional with those who elect the other course.

Petersburg, Virginia, also operates on the five-three-three plan. There the study of Spanish and Latin begins in the eighth grade, which is really equivalent to the traditional first year of high school.

Kalamazoo, Michigan, reports: "None since German went out during the Great War period. Three hundred were studying German at that time. It was given for superior pupils and for advance credit. We are now debating the question of general language in place of any foreign language. We are teaching general science in the seventh and eighth grades."

New London, Connecticut, says: "No modern language in the elementary grades, but we approve of the idea."

Owensburg, Kentucky, has no modern language below the ninth year; but the junior high school curriculum offers a choice variety of electives. Special attention is given to superior children. Instrumental music is offered in fourth grade and up.

Palo Alto, California, reports that the pupils who complete satisfactorily the seventh- and eighth-grade courses in

French enter second-year high-school French and receive one year's entrance credit to the University.

Long Beach, California, has no special classes for eighth grade language courses. Modern language study begins in the ninth grade of the junior high school. However, eighth grade pupils of exceptional ability are permitted by the counsellors to elect a modern language, preferably Spanish. Because they are of superior ability they are able to continue successfully in the senior high school.

Rock Island, Illinois, reports: "in each of the junior high schools, two sections of the eighth grade in general language." They are also doing some experimental work this semester (February, 1929) in foreign languages, but have not carried it far enough to comment upon it.

St. Cloud, Minnesota, replies that "we have not yet started a modern language in grades seven and eight, but one of our purposes in doing so would be to provide for superior pupils."

Both Santa Barbara, California, and West Hartford, Connecticut, hold that the study of modern languages proper which begins in each city in the eighth grade, (Santa Barbara offering French, Spanish, and Latin, and West Hartford, French, German, and Spanish) of the junior high schools, should be preceded by a year of general language in the seventh grade as an exploratory course, a system that is working very satisfactorily.

Worcester, Massachusetts, has four preparatory schools for the pupils who wish to study French in the seventh and eighth grades and Latin in the eighth grade. This enables such pupils to obtain an advanced rating in these subjects in the high schools. The work done in these schools is practically identical with the work done in the regular seventh and eighth grades, with the addition of these two languages. The differentiation is based on the principle that an early age is the best for beginning a foreign language, and as the study of such language is a decided help in the study of English, pupils who at some time expect to study foreign languages are encouraged to attend these schools.

A summary of the data assembled from the returned cards is presented in Table I, page 30.

TABLE I. STATUS OF MODERN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IN THIRTY TWO REPRESENTATIVE STATES.

State	City	Begins in Grade			J.H.S.	Elem.	Language Taught
		7	8	8A			
Ala.	Bessemer		x		x		3, 4
	Mobile		x			x	1, 4
	Selma		x		x		3, 6
Calif.	Coronado	x			x		1, 4
	Fresno		x		x		1, 4
	Los Angeles	1-6				x	1, 4
	Long Beach		x		x		4
	Oakland		x		x		1, 2, 3, 4
	Ontario		x			x	4
	Palo Alto	x				x	1
	Pasadena	2-8				x	1, 4
	San Bernardino			x			1
	San Jose				x		1, 3, 4
	Santa Barbara			x		x	1, 3, 4
	Santa Monica				x		6
	Colo.	Boulder		x			x
Colorado Springs				x			3
Denver			x		x		1, 2, 3, 4
Conn.	New Haven		x		x		3, 6
	Stamford (sch)		x		x		1, 3
	West Hartford		x		x		1, 2, 4, 6
Ga.	Athens		x			x	1, 4
	Rome		x			x	1, 4
Idaho	Idaho Falls		x		x		1, 4
Ill.	Chicago		x		x		1, 2, 3, 4
	Evanston	x			x		1
	Rockford		x		x		
	Rock Island		x		x		6
Ind.	Frankfort			x		x	3
	Marion		x			x	1
	Newcastle		x			x	1, 4
	Notre Dame	x				x	1, 4
	Richmond			x	x		1, 3
	Davenport		x		x		3
	Keokuk		x			x	6
Kansas	Arkansas City	x			x		3, 4
Ky.	Louisville		x		x		1, 2, 4
	Paducah		x			x	1, 2, 3
Maine	Waterville			x	x		1, 3
Md.	Baltimore	x			x		1
Mass.	Adams		x		x		1
	Amesbury		x		x		1, 3
	Andover		x			x	1
	Arlington		x		x		1

TABLE I. STATUS OF MODERN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IN THIRTY TWO REPRESENTATIVE STATES.

State	City	Begins in Grade			J.H.S.	Elem.	Language Taught	
		7	8	8A				
Mass.	Boston	x			x		1,2,3,4,5	
	Bridgewater		x		x		1	
	Chelsea	x				x	1, 3	
	Fitchburg	x			x		1	
	Greenfield			x	x		1	
	Holyoke		x		x		1, 3	
	Malden		x		x		1, 3	
	Newtonville	x			x		1, 3, 6	
	Plymouth		x		x		1, 3, 4	
	Quincy		x		x		1	
	Somerville	x			x		1,3,4,5	
	Springfield			x	x		1, 3	
	Winthrop				x		1, 3	
Worcester (4sch)	x			x		1, 3		
Mich.	Grand Rapids		x		x		1, 3	
	Lansing		x		x		3	
Minn.	Duluth		x		x		3	
Mo.	St. Louis		x		x		1,2,3,4	
N. H.	Laconia		x		x		1	
	Nashua	x			x		1	
N. J.	Englewood		x		x		3	
	Irvington		x		x		1, 3	
	Newark		x		x		1, 3, 4	
N. Y.	South Orange	x			x		1	
	Batavia			x	x		3	
	Ilion			x		x	1, 3	
	New Rochelle	x			x		1, 3	
	Mechanicville	x				x	6	
	New York City			x	x		1,2,3,4,5	
	Norwich		x		x		1	
	Oneida		x		x		3	
	Port Jervis		x		x		1, 2	
	Rochester		x		x		1, 3	
N. C.	Saratoga Springs		x			x	1	
	White Plains			x		x	3	
	Raleigh	x			x		1, 2, 3	
	Ohio	Cleveland Heights		x		x		1, 3, 4
		Mansfield		x		x		1
	Okla.	Tulsa		x			x	1, 3, 4
	Pa.	West Chester			x		x	1, 3
R. I.	Woonsocket		x		x		1, 3	
Texas	Beaumont	x			x		4	
	Corpus Christi		x		x		4	
	El Paso		x		x		1, 4	

TABLE I. STATUS OF MODERN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IN THIRTY TWO REPRESENTATIVE STATES.

State	City	Begins in Grade			J.H.S.	Elem.	Language Taught
		7	8	8A			
Texas	Houston		X		X		1, 3, 4
	Palestine		X		X		4
	Port Arthur		X			X	3, 4
Utah	Salt Lake City	X			X		1,2,3,4
Vt.	Burlington	X			X		1, 3
Va.	Petersburg		X		X		3, 4
Wash.	Bellingham	X			X		3, 4
	Seattle		X			X	1
Wis.	Appleton		X		X		3
	West Allis		X		X		1,2,3,4
Wyo.	Cheyenne		X			X	1,2,3,
D. C.	Rock Springs		X			X	1, 4
	Washington		X		X		1
Total 32	101	23	65	13	75	26	

1.French; 2.German; 3.Latin; 4.Spanish; 5. Italian; 6. General

The Follow-up Letter to Elementary Schools Offering Languages.-- During January, 1929, a follow-up letter⁶ was addressed to the principals of schools in the hundred-one cities reporting modern languages as a part of the elementary curriculum. The purpose of this letter was to gather more detailed information concerning texts, choice of subjects, teachers, grouping, methods most generally used, attitudes of teachers, and objectives. It was hoped to assemble in this way certain important items which, in combination, might form a picture of the status of modern language instruction in the elementary schools as it is at the present time.

This time there were sixty-five replies, representing Washington, D.C., and twenty-seven states. In practically every case modern languages are offered as electives. They are taught by special teachers, or, as some of the schools report, by "regular teacher who has prepared especially for the teaching of foreign languages." In certain of the schools the study is limited to the better pupils in the class. In the junior high schools of New York City, in the rapid advancement classes, designed for pupils who desire to complete the work of seventh, eighth, and ninth years in two years, foreign languages begin the second term of the course. In the other classes they begin in the eighth grade, but no pupil of the

6. See Appendix C.

eighth grade is permitted to elect a foreign language unless his work in English in seventh grade is satisfactory. Moreover, no pupil is permitted to continue a foreign language in ninth grade unless his work in English in eighth grade is rated satisfactory. "A pupil who fails in a foreign language in grade 8B should be withdrawn from the foreign language class unless special reasons convince the principal that the interests of the pupil will best be subserved by permitting him to continue the study of the language in the ninth year."⁷

New York and Boston are the only cities offering five languages in the junior high school. The chief aim is to provide the student "with the basic principles of the language, presented in a systematic manner so that upon this foundation further study may continue without confusion."⁸ Other objectives are "fluency of speech," "the mastery of the printed page," and reading which will "give the pupils a taste for reading foreign languages as well as the ability to do so."⁹

Boston authorities state that the early schools of the city were founded upon the classics, and the Latin Schools still maintain this tradition. French was introduced into the first high school in 1821, and Spanish in 1852. "In 1911 classes in French and German were introduced into the seventh

7. "Time Schedule for the Junior High Schools of the City of New York," p. 3.

8. Ibid., p. 5.

9. Ibid., p. 7.

and eighth grades of four elementary schools. Spanish classes were established two years later." There has been an increasing demand each year for the modern languages, especially French, not only in the junior high schools, but also in the elementary schools. During the World War instruction in German in the intermediate grades was discontinued. At the present time there is only one elementary school in which German is taught. About twelve years ago Italian was offered in three school but it has survived in only two.

The Superintendent's report contains the following statement:

"While this large increase in modern foreign language classes was taking place, there was much difficulty in finding properly trained teachers to supply the needs of these classes, and this brought about a further development in the teaching of the subject, namely, the organization of the department of modern foreign languages in the Teachers College of the City of Boston..... All teachers of modern foreign languages in both high and intermediate schools must, before they are allowed to teach, undergo an oral examination to demonstrate first, that they know the rules of phonetics; second, that they have a standard pronunciation; and third, that they have some power to express themselves in the foreign tongue."¹⁰

Rene Samson, Head of the Department of Modern Languages, Washington, D.C., reporting for the nine junior high schools in the District of Columbia, states that at the present time French is not taught below the eighth grade. It was taught in

10. "School Document No. 12, (Printing Department, Boston Schools, 1927) 100-101.

the seventh grade for one or two years when the junior high schools were first opened; but owing to the congested programs principals eliminated French in the seventh grade. "The object in introducing modern languages in the eighth grade is (1) to give a good pronunciation to the boys; (2) to create an interest in the language." He believes that the children should begin a language as early as possible in order to teach them correct pronunciation, especially the boys. Spanish and German were offered in the Columbia Junior High School but were abandoned for administrative reasons which are summarized as follows:

- "(1) it was difficult to find teachers who could teach two or three of these languages well;
- "(2) or it was impossible to have classes large enough, and enough classes in each language to warrant the employment of a special teacher for each language."

It is not surprising to find that the teaching of modern languages is almost exclusively an affair of the large cities with their large school population when we consider the reasons given for discontinuing the study in the Columbia Junior High School. The difficulty in obtaining adequately trained teachers has compelled the smaller schools to exclude the study of modern languages from the curriculum, and some of the larger ones like Boston to open a special department in the normal training school for teachers.

Geographical Grouping of Data.-- In order to group the data gathered by the follow-up letter the United States was divided into four geographical sections. (1) The New England and North Atlantic States; (2) the South Atlantic and Southern States; (3) the North Central States; and (4) the Mountain and Pacific States. Within each of these groups the states are listed in alphabetical order.

The purpose of grouping the states in this manner is to form a basis of comparison of the status of modern language instruction in the various sections of the country. It is significant that the attitude toward the study of foreign languages in these different geographical regions is determined largely by the historical and ethnological inheritances of each geographic area.

As is shown in table II p. 41, all the New England and North Atlantic States have a common tendency to stress the modern languages, with French predominating. In the North Central group, represented in Table IV, p. 43, Latin leads. In fact, it is the only language offered in the seventh and eighth grade of the schools in five of the cities reporting. In this section French holds second place.

The South Atlantic and Southern group is conspicuous for the lack of modern languages offered below the ninth grade. This may be due to the fact that many of the schools of this section are operating on the traditional eight-four plan. The rapidly growing junior high school has not as yet found its

way into the South generally, although it is fairly well established in practically all the large cities north of the Ohio River and east of the Mississippi, as well as in California, which "has a richly developed modern language system of instruction, located chiefly, of course, in the center and the south, and is quite distinct in its educational organization from Oregon and Washington" (110:5).

Omitting Texas and Oklahoma from this Southern group (Table III), Selma, Alabama, is the only city reporting a language opportunity below the high-school level. Here Latin is offered in the eighth grade of the junior high school, together with general language as an exploratory or try-out course.

True to the historical traditions of the Southwest, in Texas, Oklahoma, and California Spanish appears to be the most popular modern language. California (Table V, p. 44) is unique in being the only state reporting modern language enrollment in the elementary schools proper, that is, in grades one to six. Both French and Spanish are offered in these grades, but the percentage of pupils electing Spanish exceeds that of those electing French.

Coleman, who reports a study made to ascertain the relative achievement of the students who begin a modern language in college as compared with those who take their elementary years in high school, quotes the Modern Foreign Language

Study as finding approximately twenty-five per cent of the secondary school population studying modern foreign languages and twenty-four per cent studying Latin. The enrollment in French for the schools studied is given as "some 13.4%. As would be expected, Spanish comes next with about 9.4%." The enrollment in both German and Italian is small. The former is only about 1.2% and the latter is slightly more than .1%.

"Of the various regions New England stands relatively highest in French, with a registration of about thirty-five per cent of the total school population. The southwest shows thirty-five per cent of the school population in Spanish and only five per cent in French, while the north central region enrolls in French some eighteen per cent of the school population" (17:81).

There is a similarity in the proportional enrollments of the high schools reported by the Modern Foreign Language Study and the elementary schools and junior high schools herein studied. On the whole, however, French has a greater predominance in the elementary schools than Latin, excepting in the Mississippi Valley, where Latin leads, and in the border states where Spanish is the native language of a large proportion of the population.

Referring to the secondary schools, Fife says: "There are, broadly speaking, only two sections in the United States which are virtually interested in the modern languages in the schools if figures are significant" (27:201).

This same statement may virtually be applied to the

elementary schools of the country. For at this level, too, language interest is manifested chiefly in the New England States, Massachusetts, New York, and New Jersey on the one side, and the western states, California, Colorado and Utah on the other. Between these sections the study of modern languages is confined almost exclusively to the large cities and to the junior high schools, where Latin predominates.

TABLE II. STATUS OF MODERN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IN THIRTEEN REPRESENTATIVE NEW ENGLAND AND NORTH ATLANTIC STATES.

State	City	Language Taught	Mandatory	Elective	Teacher		Min. per Week	Purpose	
					Reg.	Spec.			
Conn.	New Haven	3, 6		x		x		Expl.	
	Stamford	1, 3		x		x		Expl.	
	West Hartford	1,2,4,6,		x		x		Expl.	
Del.	Watertown	1, 3		x		x	200	C-R	
Maine	Baltimore	1	x		x		250	C-R	
Md.	Adams	1, 3		x		x	250	C-R-Expl	
	Amesbury	1, 3		x		x	225	Expl.	
Mass.	Andover	1		x	x		160	C-R	
	Arlington	1		x		x	225	C-R-U	
	Boston	1,2,3, 4,5		x		x	200	C-R-U	
	Chelsea	1, 3		x		x	120	C-R-U	
	Fitchburg	1		x		x	200	R	
	Holyoke	1, 3		x		x	250	R-C-U	
	Malden	1, 3		x		x		R-U-C	
	Newtonville	1, 3, 6		x	x		150	Expl.	
	Plymouth	6 (1,3)		x	x		120	Expl.	
	Somerville	1,3,4		x	x		200	R-C	
	Winthrop	1,3		x		x	200	R-C-U	
	Worcester	1, 3		x		x	150	R	
N.H.	Laconia	1		x		x	200	R-U-C	
N.J.	Englewood	3		x	x			Expl.	
	Newark	1,3,4		x		x		C-U-R	
	So. Orange	1, 3		x		x	135	R	
N.Y.	Ilion	1, 3	x			x	250	R-U	
	New Rochelle	1, 3		x	x		160	C-U	
	New York City	1,2,3, 4,5			x		x	200	C-R-U
		Port Jervis	1,2,3		x		x	200	R
	Rochester	1,3		x		x	180	R-C-U	
Pa.	West Chester	1, 3, 4	x			x	225	C-Expl	
R.I.	Woonsocket	1, 3	x			x	80	C-U	
Vt.	Burlington	1, 3		x		x	250	R-C-U	
Va.	Petersburg	3, 4		x		x		R-C-U	
W.Va.									
D.C.	Washington	1		x		x	215	R-C-W-U	
Total	33		4	29	7	26			

1. French; 2. German; 3. Latin; 4. Spanish; 5. Italian; 6. General.
 C- conversation; Expl- exploratory; R- reading; U- understand-
 ing; W- writing.

TABLE III. STATUS OF MODERN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IN ELEVEN REPRESENTATIVE SOUTHERN STATES.

State	City	Language Taught	Mandatory	Elective	Teacher		Min. per week	Purpose
					Reg.	Spec.		
Ala.	Selma	3, 6		x	x		225	R
Ark.								
Fla.								
Ga.								
La.								
Miss.	Tulsa	1,3,4		x		x	225	R-C
N. C.								
Okla.								
S. C.	Houston	1, 3, 4		x		x	225	Expl-C
Tenn.								
Texas	Port Arthur	3, 4		x	x		225	Expl.
Total	4			4	2	2		

1. French; 3. Latin; 4. Spanish; 6. General.

C- conversation; Expl- exploratory; R- reading.

TABLE IV. STATUS OF MODERN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IN NINE REPRESENTATIVE NORTH CENTRAL STATES.

State	City	Language Taught	Mandatory	Elective	Teacher		Min. per Week	Purpose
					Reg.	Spec.		
Ill.	Chicago	1,2,3,4		x			225	C-R-U
	Evanston	1		x	x	x	90	R-C-U
Ind.	Newcastle	3		x	x			R-U
	Notre Dame	1, 4		x		x	120	R-C
	Richmond	1, 3		x	x		300	R-C-U
Iowa	Davenport	3		x		x	300	R-U
	Keokuk	6		x		x	200	Expl.
Ky.	Paducah	1,2,3		x	x		50	R-C-U
Mich.	Grand Rapids	3	x		x			Expl.
Minn.	St. Louis	1,2,3,4		x		x	200	C-R-U
Ohio	Cleveland							
	Heights	1, 3		x		x	60	C-R-U
	Mansfield	3		x	x			R-Expl
Wis.	Appleton	3		x	x		330	U-Expl
	West Allis	2,3,6		x		x	250	C-R
Total	14		1	13	7	7		

1.French; 2.German; 3.Latin; 4.Spanish; 6.General.

C- conversation; Expl- exploratory; R- reading; U- understanding.

TABLE V. STATUS OF MODERN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IN FIFTEEN MOUNTAIN AND PACIFIC STATES.

State	City	Language Taught	Mandatory	Elective	Teacher		Min. per Week	Purpose
					Reg.	Spec.		
Ariz.								
Calif.	Coronado	1, 4		x		x	80	U
	Fresno	1, 4		x		x	225	
	Los Angeles	1, 4		x		x	90	R-C
	Oakland	1, 4		x		x		R-C
	Ontario	4		x		x	200	C-R
	Palo Alto	1		x		x	300	R-C-U
	Pasadena	1, 4		x		x	90	R-C
	San Jose	1, 3		x	x		125	R-C
	Santa Monica	1, 3, 4		x		x		U
Colo.	Boulder	1, 4		x	x		275	C-R-U
	Denver	1, 3, 4		x		x	220	R-U-C
Idaho								
Kas.	Arkansas City	3, 4		x		x	60	C-R
Mont.								
Neb.								
Nev.								
N.Mex.								
N. D.								
Ore.								
S. D.								
Utah	Salt Lake City	1, 3, 4		x	x		300	R-C-U
Wash.								
Wyo.	Cheyenne	1, 3, 4	x			x	300	Expl.
Total	14		1	13	3	11		
11								

1. French; 3. Latin; 4. Spanish.

C- conversation; Expl- exploratory course; R- reading;

U- understanding.

As should be the case, the study of modern languages is elective in almost every instance. There are, however, a few schools in which it is mandatory; or it may be that the various courses are in general elective, but within a given course the study of a foreign language is mandatory.

As a rule those electing a modern language course are rather superior pupils, and frequently selected pupils. Certain cities require that only those pupils who have received seventy-five per cent or more in English, or in English and other subjects, in the previous grade are admitted to these classes.

Only in the smaller communities are the languages taught by regular teachers. Ordinarily, these teachers are also responsible for one or more other subjects, such as English, history, Latin, or mathematics. But in all the larger cities, and particularly in the junior high schools, specially trained language teachers are employed. In a few cities the pupils of the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary school receive their language instruction in special rooms of the high school; and where the number is small and limited to those of exceptional ability, these few are admitted directly to the regular first-year high-school French class for this period.

Many of the principals express the belief that modern languages should begin at least in the seventh grade; others hold "it would be better if our pupils could take French in

an earlier grade, the seventh grade is rather late to begin." Again, a few schools have discontinued language instruction after such classes had been in progress for three or four years because the administration found difficulty in securing suitable teachers, or as one principal expressed it: "We feel that the gain was negligible below the ninth grade."

A very large percentage- almost all- of the pupils who begin a modern language in the junior high school continue the study in the senior high school if their standing warrants it. Usually those who have made a low grade are advised to drop the work.

Salt Lake City, Utah, begins French, Spanish, and Latin in the eighth grade of the junior high school. These classes are open to pupils whose average in English is B or A.

"Over 95% of the pupils electing a modern language continue through the third year." That is, they have the first two years in the junior high school, beginning in the eighth grade, and "the third year is taken in the senior high school."

Another city, South Orange, New Jersey, reports an enrollment of 193 seventh-grade and 112 eighth grade pupils in French with an equal number of eighth grade pupils in Latin.

The principal remarks:

"It is useless to put in junior high school French unless the supervision is vertical and uninterrupted through the two schools. Specially trained Junior High teachers of French are needed, and a supervisor who has actually had classroom experience with the younger children. The difference in registration of the seventh and eighth grades is due not to students

dropping the work, but is due to the fact that this year French was opened to all the seventh grade students who wished to take it."

It is fair to assume that the earlier introduction of a language course and better articulation of the junior and senior high schools together with the experienced supervision mentioned in this letter, may encourage pupils to continue the study of a modern language instead of dropping it after two years, a deplorable tradition that is difficult to destroy. However, Salt Lake City seems to have done so, and it is one of the few cities carrying more than a small percentage of its students of modern foreign languages beyond the traditional two years.

Most of the cities report that the senior high school teachers have a favorable attitude toward these accelerated, or specially grouped, pupils. Three replied: "indifferent," and one "mildly antagonistic." This is due, no doubt, to improper understanding of the junior high school program and technique. The senior high school must not continue to set the standard for junior high schools to meet, but rather it should take children as the junior high schools do and continue the work.

Replying to the question, "Are the results of the present program of study satisfactory in your opinion?" eighty-eight per cent answered an unconditioned "Yes." The others replied: "No, not entirely so;" "not exactly;" or "only fairly so."

The satisfaction expressed in this regard is significant. It indicates a fine adjustment of curriculum content and organization. Where dissatisfaction is expressed we find the use of the ordinary high-school texts and the grammar method. With younger pupils more elementary texts and methods more directly relating to the experience of the pupil are desirable.

In general, the aim of language instruction is either conversation or reading and a better understanding of the people. Where the study is not introduced until 8A it is usually to give the pupils some idea of the language so that they can decide on some rational basis whether to elect Latin or a modern language or neither in the ninth grade. This is likewise the purpose of the course in general language now being offered in many of the schools. They are trial courses offered to the seventh or eighth grade pupils for from six weeks only to an entire year, and are known as "broadening and finding courses."

The general attitude of pupils toward the study of modern languages is wholly favorable or even enthusiastic. A few schools report that girls work harder than boys. But in practically every instance where the enrollment of boys and girls is listed separately, the boys outnumber the girls.

Textbooks Used.-- There seems to be but little agreement in regard to the textbooks used. From the sixty-five schools reporting, there are twenty-one different grammars

mentioned, besides three schools that use manuscript material, and six who reply "None" to the query "Grammar text used?"

Seven schools are using Greenberg's First French Book.

Chapuzet and Daniel's Mes Premiers Pas en Francais and Holzwarth and Price's Beginners' French rank second in frequency of mention, each being mentioned six times. The others vary in frequency from five to one, eight being mentioned only once. Ten schools list more than one grammar text.

The French grammar texts are tabulated in Table VI, p.50 in the order of frequency of mention.

TABLE VI. FRENCH GRAMMAR TEXTS USED IN THE ELEMENTARY AND JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

Title	Number of Schools Using
GREENBERG, <u>First French Book</u>	7
CHAPUZET AND DANIEL, <u>Mes Premiers Pas En Francais</u>	6
HOLZWARTH AND PRICE, <u>Beginners' French</u>	6
de SAUZE, <u>Cours Pratique de Francais pour Com-</u> <u>mencants</u>	5
MERAS, <u>Le Premier Livre</u>	4
CAMERLYNCK, <u>Premiere Annee de Francais</u>	3
MERCIER, <u>Junior French</u>	3
ALDRICH, FOSTER AND ROULE, <u>Elelementary French</u> . .	2
BOVEE, <u>Premiere Annee de Francais</u>	2
CAMERLYNCK, <u>Deuxieme Annee de Francais</u>	2
DOWNER AND KNICKERBOCKER, <u>A First Course in French</u>	2
GREENBERG, <u>Elements of French</u>	2
MERAS, <u>Le Second Livre</u>	2
ARMAND, <u>Grammaire Elementaire</u>	1
CARDON, <u>Premiere Annee Moderne</u>	1
CHARDENAL, <u>Complete French</u>	1
FRASER AND SQUAIR, <u>French Grammar</u>	1
MOORE AND ALLIN, <u>Elements of French</u>	1
NEW CHARDENAL	1
RENOUF COURSE, Montreal, Books I-IV	1

TABLE VI. FRENCH GRAMMAR TEXTS USED IN THE ELEMENTARY AND
JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

Title	Number of Schools Using
ROUX, <u>A First French Course</u>	1
DID NOT SAY	10
NONE	6
MANUSCRIPT MATERIAL	3
Total	65

There are thirty-five different French reading texts mentioned, representing forty-seven schools (Table VII, p. Guerber's Contes et Legendes and Meras and Roth's Petits Contes de France are the most frequently named. Twenty-four mentioned but once, and five only twice. Practically all of them are prepared readers that have been standards in high school for some years back. However, while they do not follow the psychology of the more recent texts designed particularly for the pupils of the intermediate grades or the junior high school, they are, nevertheless, of fundamentally sound content, and they reflect French life and French characteristics in such a way as to create in the child an interest in France and its people.

Meras and Roth's charming little book, although of recent publication, stands second on the list. French teachers are appreciative of the comprehensive treatment of presentation of grammatical forms and the repetition of the same words and idioms which enables a pupil to acquire a working vocabulary which will give him power to think in French and to read it correctly.

In the Introduction (69:5) the authors justify another French reader because of the fact that "a modern language has no place in the American curriculum unless it can give the student a broader view of life by showing him the thought, character, and ideals of another and older race." Their aim is also "to awaken an interest in the French language from

the very beginning.... to introduce the American student to the people whose language he is studying, and to make him conscious of the fact that it is a modern living tongue he is trying to master."

A list of language texts other than French is shown in Table VIII, p.55. It is arranged in the order of grammars and readers according to the frequency of mention. Although this list is less complete than that of the French texts, it does, nevertheless, indicate that there is quite a diversity of texts; and that Dodge's German Grammar, Hills and Ford's First Spanish Course, and Ullman and Henry's Elementary Latin are the most extensively used.

TABLE VII. FRENCH READING TEXTS USED IN THE ELEMENTARY AND JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

Title	Number of Schools Using
GUERBER, <u>Contes et Legendes</u>	6
MERAS and ROTH, <u>Petits Contes de France</u>	6
BARNES, <u>Histoires et Jeux</u>	4
de MONVERT, <u>La Belle France</u>	4
SPINK and MILLIS, <u>Colette et Ses Freres</u>	4
LABICHE and MARTIN, <u>Le Voyage de Monsieur Perrichon</u>	3
LAZARE, <u>Lectures Faciles</u>	3
McGill and LAUTREPPE, <u>Pas A Pas</u>	2
MAIRET, <u>La Tache du Petit Pierre</u>	2
MALLOT, <u>Sans Famille</u>	2
SPINK, <u>Le Beau Pays de France</u>	2
TALBOT, <u>Le Francais et Sa Patrie</u>	2
BIERMAN and FRANK, <u>Conversational French</u>	1
CHANCEL, <u>Le Pari d'un Lyceen</u>	1
CLEMENT and MACIRONE, <u>Je Lis et Je Parle</u>	1
de SAUZE, <u>Contes Gais</u>	1
FOUGERAY, <u>Le Francais par La Lecture</u>	1
FRANCOIS, <u>Easy Standard French</u>	1
LABOULAYE, <u>Contes Bleus</u>	1
LAVISSE, <u>Histoire de France</u>	1
MAIRET, <u>L'Enfant de La Lune</u>	1
-----, <u>La Petite Princesse</u>	1
MERIMEE, <u>Colomba</u>	1
OLMSTED and BARTON, <u>Elementary French Reading</u>	1
PERLEY, <u>Que Fait Gaston</u>	1
SAND, <u>La Mare au Diable</u>	1
SPIERS, <u>Les Deux Sourdes</u>	1
VAST-JALLIFFIER, <u>Histoire de France</u>	1
VERNE, <u>Les Enfants du Capitaine Grault</u>	1
<u>Contes Dramatique</u>	1
<u>Contes Faciles</u>	1
<u>France</u>	1
<u>La Famille Goutier</u>	1
<u>La France Pictoresque</u>	1
<u>Le Francais par L'Image</u>	1
<u>Pour Charmer Nos Petits</u>	1
Total	64

TABLE VIII. MODERN LANGUAGE TEXTS OTHER THAN FRENCH USED IN THE ELEMENTARY AND JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

Title	Number of Schools Using
<u>GERMAN GRAMMAR.</u>	
GOHDES and DODGE, <u>Leitfaden der Deutsche Sprache</u>	2
BETZ and PRICE, <u>First German Book</u>	1
BOGSTER and COLLINS, <u>First Book in German</u>	1
SEELINGMAN, <u>Altes Und Neues</u>	1
SCHMIDT-GLOCKE, <u>Das Erste Jahr Deutsch</u>	1
WHITNEY and STROEBE, <u>Brief Course in German</u>	1
<u>GERMAN READER</u>	
ALLEN, <u>Daheim</u>	1
BACON, <u>Vorwärts</u>	1
BOGSTER and COLLINS, <u>A First German Reader</u>	1
HAGBOLDT, <u>Inductive Reading in German, Parts I-II</u>	1
MULLER, <u>Gluckauf</u>	1
POPE, <u>German Reader for Beginners</u>	1
<u>SPANISH GRAMMAR</u>	
HILLS and FORD, <u>First Spanish Course</u>	9
DORADO, <u>Primeras Lecciones de Espanol</u>	4
COESTER, <u>A Spanish Grammar</u>	3
de Vitie, <u>Brief Spanish Grammar</u>	3
ESPINOSA and ALLEN, <u>Elementary Spanish Grammar</u>	3
WILKINS, <u>New First Spanish Book</u>	1
<u>SPANISH READER</u>	
ROESSLER and REMY, <u>A First Spanish Reader</u>	10
DORADO, <u>Primeras Lecturas en Espanol</u>	6
HILL, <u>Spanish Tales for Beginners</u>	4
HARRISON, <u>Elementary Spanish Reader</u>	3
WALSH, <u>Primer Libro de Lectura</u>	2
BALLARD-STEWART, <u>Short Stories for Oral Spanish</u>	1
HATHEWAY and BERGE, <u>Easy Spanish Reader</u>	1
HILLS and CANO, <u>Cuentos y Leyendas</u>	1
LURIA, <u>Lecturas Elementales</u>	1
RAY, <u>Lecturas Para Principiantes</u>	1
WILKINS, <u>Beginners Reader</u>	1

Latin Grammar

TABLE VIII. MODERN LANGUAGE TEXTS OTHER THAN FRENCH USED IN THE ELEMENTARY AND JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

Title	Number of Schools Using
<u>LATIN GRAMMAR</u>	
ULLMAN AND HENRY, <u>Elementary Latin</u>	7
D'OOGE ROEHM, <u>Junior Latin Lessons</u>	4
SCUDDER, <u>Easy Latin</u>	4
FOSTER AND ARMS, <u>First Year Latin</u>	3
FRANCOIS, <u>First Latin</u>	3
SCOTT-HORN, <u>First Latin Lessons</u>	3
GRAY AND JENKINS, <u>Latin for Today</u>	2
PARSONS AND LITTLE, <u>First Latin Lessons for Junior and Senior High School</u>	2
ALNAG, TALBOT AND OTIS, <u>Our Roman Legacy</u>	1
JENNER AND GRANT, <u>First Year of Latin Complete</u>	1
LUPOLD, <u>Introduction to Latin, Part I</u>	1
PAINE, et al, <u>Decem Fabulae</u>	1
PLACE, <u>Beginning Latin</u>	1
PEARSON, <u>Essentials of Latin</u>	1
PENICK AND PROCTER, <u>First Year Latin</u>	1
RICHIE, <u>Fabulae Faciles</u>	1
SMITH, <u>Smith's Latin Lessons</u>	1
WHITTEMORE AND EWING, <u>Elementa Prima</u>	1
BUGBEE, <u>Introduction to Languages</u>	8
Total	47

Still another aspect of the modern language situation is the tendency towards an increase in language enrollment as the size of the community increases. The establishment of the junior high school has had a noticeable influence in the larger cities in this regard. The junior high school permits an earlier beginning than was formerly possible in the eight-four plan, of modern language work under proper conditions, since it requires capable teachers, adequately planned syllabi, and textbooks better adapted to the younger children, especially those of junior high school age.

The organization of the junior high school has done much to replace inferior work resulting from inadequately paid and insufficiently trained teachers, supervised by principals similarly handicapped for this particular kind of work.

A few of the larger cities with their total enrollment of school population and language enrollment is given in Table IX, p. 58.

TABLE IX. MODERN LANGUAGE ENROLLMENT IN LARGE CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES, 1928-1929.

City	Number of Schools	Total Language Enrollment	Total School Enrollment	Per Cent
Boston ¹¹	60			33.3
Chicago	20	5,901	27,508	21.4
Denver		2,845	9,085	31.3
Houston	11	2,361	10,235	23
New York	55	36,434	85,598	42.6
Oakland	9	9,259		25
St. Louis	6	425	7,000	6.1
Salt Lake City		1,600	8,500	18.8
Washington D.C.	9	857	5,664	15.1
All Other Cities		17,320	184,482	9.3
Total 86		77,002	338,072	22.8

11. About one-third of the Boston school population is enrolled in language courses. Figures of the enrollment of seventh and eighth grade pupils studying the various foreign languages are not available, but a considerable number are taking French, about half that number, Spanish; and a smaller number, Latin, Italian, and German in the order mentioned.

TABLE X. ENROLLMENT IN MODERN LANGUAGE COURSES IN REPRESENTATIVE CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES, 1928-1929.

City	French	German	Latin	Spanish	Italian	Total
Chicago	2,056	88	3,236	521		5,901
Denver	244	33	1,478	1,090		2,845
Houston	35		628	1,698		2,361
New York	26,943	229	3,708	4,809	745	36,434
Oakland	3,449			5,810		9,259
St. Louis	175	50	75	125		425
Washington	857					857
Total 7	33,759	400	9,125	14,053	745	58,082

TABLE XI. LANGUAGES AND COMBINATION OF LANGUAGES OFFERED IN THE ELEMENTARY AND JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, 1928-1929.

Type of School	Number of Cities	Languages Offered	Language Enrollment	School Enrollment	
Junior High	15	French only	4,382	25,877	
	6	Latin only	1,239	6,896	
	3	Spanish only	817	4,550	
	1	General Language		2,600	
	11	French and Latin	3,290	26,000	
	4	French and Spanish	1,151	25,753	
	4	Latin and Spanish	858	1,719	
	2	Latin and General	581	2,624	
	1	French and German	700	750	
	5	French, Latin, Spanish	2,933	14,159	
	3	French, German, Spanish	9,391	20,634	
	1	French, German, Latin	180	450	
	5	French, German, Latin and Spanish	10,809	59,093	
	1	French, Latin, Spanish and General	210	650	
	1	French, German, Latin, Spanish, and Italian	36,434	85,598	
	Elementary	6	French only	444	9,900
		2	Latin only	130	3,135
		1	General only	337	1,748
		1	Spanish only	80	2,347
1		German only	14	60	
6		French and Spanish	1,293	15,861	
3		French and Latin	910	8,650	
1		Spanish and Latin	300	8,500	
2		French, German, Latin	519	10,518	
Total 2		86		77,002	338,072

Table XI on page 60 represents eighty-six cities arranged according to the type of school in the order of frequency of language or combination of languages offered, together with the language enrollment and total school enrollment.

In this connection it is interesting to note the opinion of Smith and Wright, who in a recent publication made the following statement with regard to the teaching of modern foreign languages:

The status of foreign languages in our schools may be briefly summarized as follows: (1) very little if any foreign language is taught in the elementary school; (grades 1-6); (2) foreign language is taught to some pupils in the seventh grade and the eighth grade of the junior high school in the 6-3-3 organization. Usually pupils of more than average ability make up the group that studies foreign language in the junior high school. The experience of some cities indicates that from forty to fifty per cent of the pupils may profitably take up a foreign language when the opportunity is offered in grades seven or eight. Others believe that this proportion is too large, and would not advise more than twenty-five per cent of all seventh grade pupils to study a foreign language. (3) the combined enrollment in all foreign languages is approximately 60 per cent of the total enrollment of pupils in secondary schools (four years).

(4) the Latin enrollment in both junior and senior high school is equal to the enrollment of all other foreign languages combined. (5) some attempts are now being made to develop general try-out and guidance courses in foreign language in the junior high school. (6) a decreasing number of colleges are requiring a certain number of years of foreign language for entrance. (7) for the purpose of developing reading ability in a language, the direct method of teaching is considered by many superior to the translation method" (88:336).

This summary states the situation fairly accurately.

California is the only state reporting in the writer's study which has introduced the study of modern languages below the seventh grade. The eighth grade seems to be the favored grade for beginning the study of languages, although most of the educators believe it should be begun earlier.

Reports show that the percentage of language enrollment increases in proportion to the size of the community, and particularly so, where the junior high school has been established. Practically all the large cities and many of the rural districts are now giving a course in general language in the eighth grade in order to enable the pupils to make a more intelligent election of language in high school.

CHAPTER III

VALUES AND OBJECTIVES OF MODERN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION.

Having discussed in Chapter II the status of modern languages in the elementary schools of the United States as indicated primarily by the writer's questionnaire investigation and secondarily by the opinion of the findings of others in this field, we shall turn now to a discussion of the values and objectives of modern language instruction.

For more than half a century our country has been consistently and earnestly engaged in attempting to discover and repair what is lacking in our educational system; to devise curricula and methods of teaching better adapted to these revealed needs; and to provide suitable opportunities for children of more than normal intellectual ability. As a result, both the content and technique of teaching have been tremendously improved.

In most of the elementary schools, however, the modern languages have not received in the reorganization of the curriculum the attention that the social studies have. In the high schools where a language other than Latin is offered, French usually assumes second place, and as a rule, German, Spanish, and Italian are entirely neglected. This is, no doubt, because the smaller school systems cannot afford the special

teachers. But in pursuing the policy referred to, they disregard the social value of the modern languages as mediums of understanding our European neighbors through the study of their history, culture, and literature.

In enumerating the values of modern language study Landschin (42:3) states that the "study of the mother tongue, but also the study of a foreign language aids in acquiring the ability to do abstract and purposive thinking." He answers the complaint that "our pupils cannot think" with the statement that "language is the greatest single aid to thinking," but that "language is not receiving its due in the United States. This has resulted from a misconception of its value as a factor in education."

Judd (59:214) holds that the value of modern language study lies less in formal discipline which some teachers claim for it than in giving the student a clearer knowledge and understanding of his own language, and that the value of a clearer understanding of the vernacular will doubtless survive as one of the most important reasons for teaching modern languages. He continues: "It took generations of dissatisfaction with the methods employed in language instruction and with the results that come from this instruction to prepare the way for the attitude which many now assume toward the languages."

Considering the various methods, he contends that the grammatical method is an analytic study of value under certain conditions, but "the question is rather when and how shall the

analysis be made" (59:219). He explicitly points out that there is no single best method of teaching foreign languages. The method must vary with the purpose and the maturity of the students" (59:245).

The maturity of the student and the length of time the student should pursue a course of modern language study in order to secure genuinely profitable results are among the fundamental problems to be considered in determining the objectives of the course. Henmon (44:443) comments on the fact that the study of modern languages is unique among school subjects in that it may be begun in the elementary grades, in the junior high school, in senior high school, or in college. However, there seems to be a fairly general agreement that the study should begin at a relatively early age.

Patrick affirms that "there is no age when a child may with so much economy of effort gain a lasting knowledge of a foreign language as when he is from seven to eleven years" (77:391). Those who support the theory that the child should begin the study of language when he enters the first grade base their contention on the strength of the imitative faculty in early years, and claim that it is considerably impaired even before the twelfth year.

Parker is of the opinion that there is very little in common in the case of a child that is brought up with a foreign nurse and the small child in school who is brought in contact

with the foreign language for four or five periods of twenty minutes to half an hour weekly and who hears and speaks his own language the rest of the time. In regard to the age at which it is best to begin a language he says that:

"if we apply to the pedagogical problem concerning the best age at which to learn a foreign vocabulary the conclusions from experimental investigations of ability to memorize at different ages, it is clear that the later years of the period from six to eighteen are just as favorable to such learning as any other years of the period" (71:443).

Snedden (89:139) makes the following statement:

"It is generally conceded that a foreign language, rightly taught, can be more effectively learned at the age of twelve than later. The most conspicuous advantage possessed by European school children over American is found in the opportunities afforded them to begin a foreign language relatively early. Probably few American children as compared with European, should be induced to study a foreign language; but there are the best of reasons why opportunities should exist for those who have special talents in this direction or for whom a higher education is a matter of strong probability."

He further contends that the time devoted to the language course may be wholly wasted unless such classes are taught by effective pedagogical methods.

"Only in one way can such study be effective. Special class must be formed of those having the ability and the desire to apply themselves to the subject, and competent, special teaching provided. It is evident that this can only be brought about through the inauguration of a flexible program of elementary education in the upper grades. Obviously, objection should be made to any program of elementary education making mandatory the study of foreign languages" (89:140).

Wilkins (114:44), too, holds that the time devoted to the teaching of modern languages in the grades, under present

conditions, is mostly time wasted; and he questions the advisability or the desirability of including a modern language in even the seventh or eighth grade course of study in the present eight-year elementary school system of the United States. He adds: "And yet, beyond question, it is with pupils of the age of those in the last two years of the present grade schools that the study of languages should be begun." Moreover, he believes that the solution of the problem is in the junior high school.

"Such a school comprising, let us say, the seventh, eighth, and ninth years of school work will provide (1) departmental teaching, whereby the modern languages will be taught by specialists, (2) teachers having the same standard of training and ability as those who teach in the present four-years high school, (3) a modified system of electives, whereby a pupil, with the help and advice of teachers and parents, may choose the language he prefers, (4) the segregation of pupils by courses, (5) instruction and training of the young student, under supervision, as to how to study, and (6) close articulation with and preparation for the senior high school" (114:44-45).

He quotes Briggs as favoring the junior high school because:

"(1) it provides better for individual differences, and (2) it furnishes an opportunity for various forms of instruction."

This second assertion provides an opportunity for an earlier beginning of modern language instruction under proper conditions, than has been previously possible. He justifies the introduction of foreign languages in the seventh and eighth grades in this manner:

"A foreign language is chiefly a habit-forming subject rather than a fact subject. The plastic mind

of the child twelve, thirteen and fourteen years of age is most easily and lastingly molded and shaped in the thought habits of the foreign tongue. It seems to follow, then, that if a foreign language is to be begun in the junior high school under properly adapted instruction, that language may most certainly be made a part of the pupil's mental habit and mental life" (114:3).

Ryan states that a "foreign language is the subject par excellence for training the memory," and that the study of a foreign language is worth the expenditure of time and effort. "French," he says, "can be made as truly educational as any other language, and, all things considered, probably can be taught with more general benefit to the pupil than any other" (85:216). He points out that a nation's best personality and ideals are expressed in its literature, and that one cannot study the literature without being modified by that personality and those ideals. He lists as some of the characteristic French traits: spirituality, percision, scientific curiosity, intellectual alertness, love of form and symmetry, love of self-expression, politeness, and respect of child for parent." Because French literature is full of the expression of these traits it is worthy of being studied by our pupils.

Our emotions play a large part in our lives. Consequently, "the higher the type of our emotions, the nobler will our actions be."

"Then let our pupils discover and live in sympathy for human kind so exquisitely woven into the tales of Daudet. Let them imbibe the pathos and the love of beauty of Loti. Let them join Moliere in gently and jovially rebuking the shame and selfishness of society.

Let them assimilate the passionate democracy of Hugo" (85:216).

He also maintains that "through battle with the difficulties of French grammar and syntax" the pupils will develop character and judgment; "they will learn to concentrate, to observe with eye and ear, to remember, to imagine, to be accurate, to make analogies, and to deduce correctly."

It is evident that if this development is effected through the study of foreign languages their place in the curriculum is justified even though many of the modern psychologists have discarded to a great extent the theory of formal discipline.

Blackhurst, of Northwestern, disagrees with Ryan. He takes the position that the general discipline value derived from the study of modern languages has no advantages over other courses in the curriculum. Moreover, he would discard the "utilitarian" value of a foreign language "as a medium of communication in the furthering of economic aims," since the amount of time allotted by the usual course of study is insufficient for language mastery. Instead, he supports the socializing value of the study. "The encompassing goal of modern language instruction, the one to which all other possible outcomes must be subordinated or treated as by-products, must be sought in the citizenship objectives of the curriculum" (6:626). In the course which he proposes and defends:

"the outcome would be the social change which would take place in the individual through contact with the civilization of another country. It would do in a measure for the student what a year spent in a foreign land would do for him. It would tend to make him appreciative of the fact that his is but one of many civilizations; that all that is good and worth while is not at home. It would tend to break up the "inevitableness" attitude which makes the objective study of home institutions impossible. Students should slowly come to realize that there are many ways of doing things and other ways of looking upon problems which they previously considered settled... Such a course would break down the provincial in the individual and substitute in its place a cosmopolitan point of view" (6:627-28).

Doubtless, the social benefit accruing to the student from the realization that every nation in the world has a lesson to teach us that is well worth learning is not an unimportant consideration when constructing a curriculum. For any subject worth while must, in the light of educational values, strive to break down narrow-mindedness and prejudice and substitute in their place a broader scientific and humanistic interest in the institutions and ideals of our European neighbors.

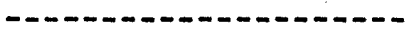
Morgan, of Wisconsin, labels the study of modern languages "utilitarian." He states that a considerable percentage of our people require the knowledge of one or more languages as a direct aid to economic advancement, or even an indispensable tool in their daily work, and that any school that does not offer foreign languages is denying its pupils an extremely valuable experience, but also running to risk of impoverishing the society that supports it" (73:187). He justifies the placement of modern languages in the curriculum

on these three counts:

"First, foreign language mastery is a skill which is a professional requirement for a considerable percentage of our high school graduates; second, foreign language study is particularly adapted to promote efficiency in skills which are involved in many other high school and college branches; third, a knowledge of a foreign language contributes in an unusual degree to the making of internationally-minded broad-thinking, intellectually resourceful and contented citizens" (73:192-93).

According to Morgan it is possible to obtain by the study of a foreign language the social outcomes enumerated by Blackhurst. Through the foreign literature the student derives an insight into a different way of living and thinking, his conception of human life is broadened and deepened with a potential effect upon his attitude toward international relations in general and the given foreign nation in particular" (73:628).¹²

In order to determine whether the study of a modern language may be introduced in the low seventh grade with as great economy as in the low eighth or low ninth grade, an experiment was worked out in the Lakeview Junior High School



12. Franklin Bobbitt, How to Make a Curriculum, (Houghton Mifflin Co., Chicago, 1924), 260. "Foreign languages are justified in public education in the degree in which they function in the life of the population; or rather in the degree in which they ought to function, whether directly or indirectly.... In the general training, while foreign languages may be of value, they probably are not essentials. They should be offered as opportunities in addition to the essentials. They should be optional, not required."

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of Oakland, California. Stendorff, who describes this experiment, says that "this argument is based on the contention that the child in the low seventh grade is so immature that he is not able to cope with the intricacies involved in the study of a foreign language" (94:209).

The test was made with a class of twenty-one pupils who began the study of French in the low seventh grade. The McCall Multi-Mental Scale was used to obtain their mental ability. The median was 126. "The class is above the average in intelligence, but it is probably not much above the level of second-year French pupils in general in Oakland" (94:211). At the beginning of low eighth grade, after two semesters of French had been completed, the American Council Beta French Test was given. This test was selected because it is adapted to the whole course of junior high school or two years of senior high school French. The results showed that "after two semesters of instruction in French, the median for the class is equal to the seventy-fifth percentile of the third semester French pupils on whom the test was standardized" (94:211). The writer concludes with the following statement:

"While the numbers are too small for any definite conclusions, these seventh grade pupils seem to be learning the language in a way that is entirely satisfactory, and, so far as this particular school is concerned, a foreign language may be begun in the seventh grade as successfully as in the eighth or ninth grade" (94:212).

The Objectives of Modern Language Instruction. At the present time the ideas of modern language teachers are beginning to be fairly in accord in regard to the content of the elementary course in French. However, there is not the same general agreement when stating the immediate objectives of the work. This is due chiefly to the diverse conditions presented by the American educational system. Such variations appear in the time allowed by the curriculum, the maturity of the class, and the teacher's methods of presenting the work.

One fact is evident, however: whatever the objective, the ultimate aim is the use of the language in some way as a tool. Yet the broadest aims of usefulness cannot be realized unless the pupil has a sufficient mastery of the language to use it as an instrument in interpreting and understanding the facts and ideas it conveys. In order to obtain this mastery, certain aspects of the course, to the exclusion of others, should be emphasized. The student who elects to pursue a language course for several years, or who is preparing for college will require a different emphasis than one whose time is limited to one or two years, or who is preparing to employ his knowledge in the diplomatic or commercial world.

Unfortunately, the American tradition is "two years of a modern language," and too often the ordinary high school pupil has no more definite reason for electing the study of a modern language than that it is required for admission to college.

Were we to make a composite picture of the diverse methods and objectives of modern language instruction found throughout the country, the one feature that would stand out prominently would be the ability to read the language with moderate ease and fluency.

On this subject Bond (8:411) says:

"Reading is doubtless the only common factor of all modern language courses, and, with the exception of its allied problem of vocabulary, one of the least considered in course making and course administration. Its value, nature, extent, and method constitute a problem that is further complicated by being conditioned upon widely variable characteristics of language teaching, such as age, instructional level, the general program, physical organization, and the teacher's time-load and professional training, rendering standardization difficult if advisable."

He describes how the Junior College of the University of Chicago met a local set of language problems in its elementary modern language course through the treatment of reading. He holds (8:413) that the success of the entire program rests mainly upon the "intensive" and "extensive" one-year reading course which he outlines feature by feature. At the end of the second quarter the students were reading "ordinary French prose with fair understanding." Bond regards the reading as "a type of practice for the development of an ability.... a means to an end, and not an end in itself." He concludes:

"The real proof of power, however, is not to be found in statistics and averages, but in the behavior of the students themselves as they are observed reading for their own ends, using French sources for English, science, or history term papers, applying for foreign scholarships and travel information, making the beginnings of a private library of French books,

changing university sequences to modern languages, and otherwise indicating a permanent interest in and use of the language. Such data are vital. They mean something. The possibilities of early, voluntary reading are larger than the junior college has realized. Its programs expand and change yearly. One fact, however, stands out of five years of self-analysis: LIRE is a synonym for POUVOIR." (8:425-26).

Bobbitt claims that "in our country... those who will use a modern language sufficiently to warrant studying it, will use it mainly for reading... One should read a foreign language in the same way he reads his mother tongue; and for the same purposes" (7:260). However, if a genuine reading ability is to be acquired the student must read ten or twenty times as many pages per year as are usually covered in the traditional school course. "Learning to read a modern language is to read it abundantly. All else should be reduced to a minimum." Likewise, a forced study of a language should be avoided. Mastery should be on the play level, for the joy of the experience and the achievement.¹³

13. Franklin Bobbitt, The Curriculum, pages 273-74. "Language is one of the innumerable opportunities for the intellectual adventure of exploring fields new and different and alluring. One's best general intellectual exfoliation comes from thus ever exploring realms hitherto new and strange, prompted mainly by the zest of the experiences, rather than by a prosaic consciousness of the immediate utilities; the spirited, strenuous, and joyous activities of intellectual play... This is not to be a process of formal discipline through drudgery; but one of growth through zestful experience. The student who sets out to explore any foreign language field should do so of his own choice. He should have a desire for the experiences. He should set out with eager anticipations, in the spirit of adventure. He will find it a good stiff climb, but he should climb with pleasure, do his own climbing, and do it with zest and speed. Such an individual is of that rare metal that can profit from experience. All others will leave the languages alone."

This same idea is expressed by Allen when he says :
 "Make your study a pleasure, a recreation, a play-time... The learning of a foreign language is not a science, nor yet is it a mechanical thing. It is an art. It should be undertaken with high resolve and pursued with ardor" (3:11).

That the pupils should be taught to "read a foreign language in the same way he reads his mother tongue" expresses a fundamental principle in the psychology of reading. The pupil should learn to take the gist of a sentence without paying much attention to the individual words of the text, just as he does when he reads an English book. He should learn to associate the foreign word with the thing for which it stands for a symbol.

Roark holds that there are just two main ends to be sought in the teaching of reading:

"(1) to make the learner automatic and quick in the recognition of word and letter forms and values; (2) to secure his interest in the content, the spiritual element, of the printed forms. Under the first is to include the mechanics of reading--distinct and clear articulation and correct pronunciation, as well as skill in instant interpretation of words and letters. In the second is involved the character growth of the learner, his introduction to an enjoyment of truth, goodness, beauty, as seen by others and expressed by them in the world's literature" (82:103).

Phillips says that we learn to read by means of associating meaning with the letters and words necessary for the purpose. "The student who undertakes to master a foreign vocabulary has to do it primarily by forming suitable associations between English words and their meaning as they

correspond with the foreign words" (79:27).

Methods of Modern Language Instruction.-- The objective of modern language instruction is dependent largely on the method used. The grammar-translation and the indirect methods have given way almost completely to the direct or conversational method. But Judd (59:221) points out that the advocates of the natural method "overlook the fact that the child requires eight or ten years of incessant practice to gain even a tolerable command of his own tongue."

Coates attacks the direct "method-ists" who carry on the work of the class exclusively in the language they are teaching. Thus in the French class all explanations and grammatical rules would be given in French. This she holds is a violation of one principle of educational psychology-- that of getting a thing into the realm of the known; for the goal of the inductive process is the harmonious blending of the knowing mind and the known matter. Rather she would subordinate all grammatical explanations, giving them in English, and in thus reducing them to a minimum would automatically reduce English to a minimum.

She quotes from Monroe's Cyclopedia of Education, in which the direct method is defined as "the method in which facts are not given directly to the pupil, but the pupil is placed in a situation that will stimulate him to acquire facts." She quotes also from Krause, who gives the five cardinal points of the direct method in language teaching as "insistence

upon good pronunciation, oral work, inductive teaching, genuine reading, realia." She then calls attention to the fact that "the exclusive use of the language" is not mentioned as a cardinal point. Quoting Krause again: "Indeed it would be highly advantageous if all instruction in French, Spanish, German, or Italian were conducted in those languages after the first year of college work in them" (16:154-57). This seems to indicate that he believes the explanations for the first year's work at least should be given in English.

The psychological method made prominent by Gouin "gradually builds up a vocabulary" by making use of time associations in dealing with the facts of daily life. The gradual procedure from a few simple words to the more elaborate combinations is very valuable in building up a large and useful vocabulary, presented in a series of connected sentences.

"This gradual method of procedure gives the student a certain confidence and a certain ability to interpret the whole idea that is expressed in the sentence, as distinguished from the partial idea that comes from the isolated word. The psychological study of language has made it perfectly clear that the unit of all language consciousness is the sentence rather than the isolated word. A sentence conveys a fully rounded series of experiences" (59:240).

Sentences, not words, are the units of thought. Since the sentence is the natural unit of thought, it should be the natural unit in reading or speaking. "Hence, the attention to letters, elementary sounds, words and word-meanings, cultivated by the alphabet, phonic and word methods, must be

displaced by attention to sentence wholes and sentence meanings" (54:273). The child who is learning to read may be proficient in the recognition of words and yet not be able to put the words together in meaningful phrases and sentences.

Modern methods of teaching reading are based on this relation principle that makes for true reading, as opposed to mere word recognition with little or no consciousness of a higher unity. Those who would criticise this method are unmindful that phrase-getting is also thought-getting. The two operations simultaneously hold the interest of the pupil and make the acquisition of words a pleasure because of the thought which they convey. Thus reading becomes a process of thinking. Any method that will train the child to grasp the thought is developing in him a valuable power for future education.

There seems to be a fairly general agreement among modern language teachers that translation cannot be an objective of the elementary course. While it may be an excellent practice for the advanced college student, it is far too difficult to be practiced by school children.

Grammar, too, is no longer studied for its own sake as an end in itself, but rather as a means of obtaining a better understanding of the language. In regard to the teaching of grammar Hubman says:

"A grammar can afford at best a formal, detailed, accurate snap-shot of the situation, the real landscape must be worked out in the classroom. It bears

the same relation to the text that the actual experiences the boy has had during his vacation bear to the snap-shots he brings home. They mean something to him, because experience has vitalized them; but to us who have not had the experience, they are after all very insipid. Any teacher who fails to make the text a real experience, not merely an excuse, is guilty of an insidious waste, not so much of a student's time, but of his strength, of his language vitality" (53:84-85).

Tharp describes an experiment which aimed to answer the question: "Can college freshmen learn to read a modern language for comprehension without a preliminary preparation in grammar?" The class was composed of students who were required to have a reading knowledge of French and had but one year to acquire it. Those who might expect a second year were excluded. The technique was unique and the class showed remarkable progress in reading power. The instructor states: "At the end of the semester at least three-fourth of the students were extremely anxious to continue their study of French. In addition to liking the study of French and desiring to continue it, they were capable of reading French for their own enjoyment" (103:387).

In order to determine just what they had accomplished in comparison to the achievement of classes taught by the usual grammar method, two standardized tests were given each semester. The results of these tests showed that the "Reading Section" gained over the "Regular Section" from twenty-five to thirty per cent in vocabulary and reading, but accomplished only about sixteen per cent of the norm in grammar. The following conclusions are added:

"Students were reading rather difficult French literature and understood it in one year with practically no preliminary preparation other than the actual reading. A little grammatical knowledge had accumulated "from exposure", but their passive vocabulary of foreign words was larger, and having done nothing else their reading ability was greater than that of the regular students... Perhaps it is not too far fetched to say that early and much practice in reading is an excellent way to learn to read French and "like it" (103:389-90).

If anything truly worth while is to be accomplished in modern language instruction, the children must "like it." Too often the teachers teach the pupils to hate the literature of these languages and make the class period a bore because they begin at the wrong end of language teaching. "The love of the language should not be crushed out of the pupils by translating "the pretty lady went into the garden and sat on a red bench under the green trees." (65:612). Instead, it should be made a living thing, full of interest, expressing every day ideas of every day people. It should arouse the pupil to pleasant and sustained effort.

"Pleasure in effort is measured by the quality of returns as well as by their quantity... Fortunately, in the first attempt to master the book, there is a feeling on the child's part of something new to be overcome. To work successfully is to increase this just sense of something won." This implies successful perceptive activity over words. The pupil should be taught to recognize instantly the words that he knows and to know just as quickly "the stranger is a stranger."

"One of the keenest intellectual pleasures, as it is one of the most stimulating, is the sense of overcoming. Work should be so spontaneous as to be pleasureable in the main, just because it is happy self-expression. But children, even when very young, should know the happiness that comes from doing something that costs real effort" (64:106-07).

Dewey points out the cause of much of the boredom found in connection with modern language teaching when he says:

"We find that many children, whom we have considered backward or perverse, are merely bored by the unappealing tasks and formalities of school life. The major difficulty... is that they have not adequately enlisted the interests and energies of the children in school work" (25:vii).

Too often the elementary-school children as well as the high school pupils fail to regard language as an inspirational subject, an element to convey thought. This is because their language work, both in English and in the foreign languages, is reduced to a dead formalism of mechanical drills in technical grammar, rhetoric, and figures of speech.

Another experiment that aimed to determine the possibility of teaching grammar informally while stressing reading was carried on in the French classes of the high school at Houghton, Michigan. Rowen, who reports this experiment, states that the primary aim "was to give the pupil a reading knowledge of French," and the secondary aims "were the ability to speak and to understand such French as might be used in simple conversation." Grammars were used merely as reference books for verb study. All the reading was done under the supervision of the instructor, and no book was taken from the classroom.

In order to make the pupils feel that they were accomplishing something, "the first week was spent in the pronunciation of the alphabet, vowels, and a few simple and frequently used words, such as Monsieur, Madame, bonjour, the objects in the classroom were named, etc. The texts were distributed the second week when each pupil was told to "(1) translate each sentence carefully; (2) be sure to ask questions concerning any word of which you do not find the meaning; (3) all translations must be in good English; (4) consult no one but your teacher" (83:223).

During the year no formal grammar was taught, and practically all the teacher's time was devoted to individual conferences. The class average for the first semester, which stressed intensive reading, was 190 pages. Whenever a book was finished, a comprehensive test was given. "Practically all the recitation work took place during the individual conferences."

During the second semester extensive reading was stressed. The average at this time was 500 pages. The writer draws the following conclusion: "The greatest advantage of this method lies in the fact that it gives each pupil ample opportunity to accomplish as much as he is actually capable of doing, regardless of maximum or minimum requirements" (83:226).

Rather than begin with formal grammar, Bahlson, too, recommends the reading of easy texts from which grammatical rules can be deduced by the analytical inductive process

limiting the attention to what is typical rather than to exceptions, but the final aim should be an appreciation of the foreign people's spirit" (71:100).

Many of the advocates of the natural or oral method of language instruction admit that conversational ability is practically impossible in a two-years' course under present conditions. Rayn says: "This is manifestly impossible for the average high school pupil, because each pupil cannot at best get more than two or three minutes' individual attention." While he does not condemn all oral work, he would eliminate the emphasis on conversation as an objective, but "only because it stands in the way of the attainment of greater and more truly educational purposes of language study" (85:222).

Handschin sounds a note of warning in this connection with the present attitude toward oral or conversational objectives. He finds a danger in the fact that the "slighting of thorough work in reading and writing, makes for superficiality, and taxes the aural memory only, thus neglecting the visual and the graphic memory" (42:135).

Warshaw finds that "some critics decry the practicability of teaching anything but reading, precisely because a speaking command of the foreign language is beyond classroom possibilities. The principles of reading can't satisfactorily be taught in high school and college" (107:481).

It is a pedagogical error to expect that the pupils who are beginning the study of a modern language like French should

be able to express themselves naturally in the language before they have acquired the habit of thinking in the foreign language. One cannot say much without thinking. In the case of one who is beginning a language, he must return to his own tongue in order to think, and then translate his thoughts into French.

Graves (41:181) holds that we do not think in words at all but in "mental pictures," and it is only when the necessity arises of communicating our ideas to another that we translate our "mental picture" into language, be this French or English; also that, until we learn to think in French, we must translate our mental pictures into English, and then re-translate them into French-- a slow process, and one which is theoretically undesirable in the ordinary course.

Young (116:316-17) calls attention to the fallacy contained in the idea that pupils can learn to speak a foreign language in the short time allowed for language study in the ordinary curriculum. Instead he desires to see stressed "acquiring the ability to read," and for the reason that "not to be able to read French and German hampers the student in almost any line of advanced work." Consequently, he would have all first year students concentrate on reading, giving as much attention to oral practice as possible without sacrificing the essentials. After the first year's work, those who desire oral work should enter special classes for conversation, while the

others should "hammer away at reading till they can read a bit of French or German-- not merely translate it-- and grasp the therein contained idea without too much attention to each separate word." By this procedure a reading knowledge of the language will remain long after conversational ability has ceased to be from lack of opportunity to use it. "Furthermore, in a brief course, a student undoubtedly gets a better glimpse of foreign culture through reading than if the same time were devoted to practice in speaking." 14

Snow (90:370) states that everywhere reading should be the center of instruction. "This is the fruitful source of every kind of profitable exercise-- pronunciation, memorizing, dictation, reproduction, conversation-- to it we may look for whatever knowledge and culture language study can give us."

Huse (55:8) laments the lack of uniformity in methods, texts, aims, and preparation of teachers of modern languages, and yet he says that a reading knowledge "is attainable even under the conditions that now prevail, and has the most justification from a purely educational and cultural standpoint."

14. Walter Scott Monroe, Measuring the Results of Teaching, page 53. "Language is an instrument of vision. Deep-seated instinct lies at the core of the language type of observation. It has advantages over direct observation. It transcends the limitations of time and space and sense. It lifts the curtain upon the whole nation and all of its activities, the whole world and all its strivings, and even the universe beyond as far as man has been able to penetrate. It opens up the past to one's vision. It can make the long past live before one's eyes as clearly as the past of an hour ago. It enables one to see the hidden, the minute, the intangible, the invisible, the general.

Summarizing these diverse opinions of experienced schoolmen regarding the values and objectives of modern language instruction as at present conducted, we may conclude that the highest test for a foreign language as an element of educational value aside from the mental discipline and linguistic training is to be found in the answer to the question: "How does it contribute to international-mindedness?" Man is a world citizen. Every branch of the curriculum should contribute towards educating him in the direction of such a goal.

As "the mastery of French is the key that unlocks the door to a vast treasure house of transcendently important and interesting materials, (commercial, pedagogical, scientific, scholarly, and especially cultural) it would seem that we had at hand a sufficient explanation of the importance of French to the American citizen" (28:411).

Under prevailing conditions this mastery is attainable through a reading knowledge which lies within the reach of the average pupil. Careful rather than extensive reading should be stressed at first, in order that the pupil may see and understand the difference between the French and English sentence structure. This is extremely important and especially difficult for many young children.

CHAPTER IV.

A TECHNIQUE FOR EXPERIMENTAL PURPOSES.

Granting, therefore, that the aims and objectives of modern language teaching are fairly well standardized, we must admit much divergence of opinion concerning commonly approved teaching procedures for language classes for superior children. Yet "all the evidence at hand points to the fact that the mental difference between superior children and average children are of such a nature that in their instruction a special adaptation is necessary" (45:112). Whipple is of the opinion that not only should the children be taught by different methods in order to assure their success, but that "it needs an extra competent teacher to make these adaptations of method" (112:117).

To summarize, all efforts to provide for the superior child have in general taken the direction either of making him do the same work in less time, or work greater in quantity and superior in quality in the same time. Both methods are in good repute. But what is really needed is an entirely different technique. The desirability of developing in the superior pupil habits of industry, thoroughness, reflective thinking, and independent attack is generally believed to overshadow that of merely accelerating his pace.

The Loyola Experiment.-- In 1927 the writer conducted an experiment under the direction of the Bureau of Educational Research of Loyola University to determine the ability of elementary school children to read French. The technique used in this study was unlike any of those already mentioned. It consisted in selecting a small group of superior children, of excusing them from certain drills which they did not need, and of permitting them to study French at their desks during these free periods, with only such incidental help from the teacher as she was free to give without taking her attention from the ordinary classwork, or occasionally after school.

The writer has been practically unable to find any reference to this method in current educational literature. Paul Hanly Furfey, of the Catholic University, reports the case of a gifted boy in the eighth grade of a parochial school who covered the regular eighth grade course of arithmetic work during the summer vacation, and then, during the following school year, was excused from the usual arithmetic drill. In the time saved in this manner (about four hours a week, together with about an hour a week of special tutoring), he was able to cover a large part of high school and college mathematics (34:109).

Apparently this is the only case that has found its way into publication. Possibly the research has been too limited. However, it is certain that the method is not in common use. Even the Twenty-third Year Book of the National Society for

the Study of Education, the classic on the subject, does not chronicle any experiments of this kind.

Some quiet and unreported work has, however, been going on. The Sisters of Notre Dame of Namur, of Cincinnati, Ohio, care for superior pupils by teaching an additional period of French throughout the entire eight grades. During the first six grades the teaching is limited to simple reading from primers of about equal difficulty to the English readers used in these grades. In the seventh grade the children begin the study of grammar, completing about ten lessons. Grammar is continued in the eighth grade. At the end of the eighth year the pupils are expected to be able to pass an examination in what is the equivalent of a first-year-high-school course. Therefore, they begin second year French upon entering high school. Regular classes are not conducted beyond second-year French. If an individual wishes to continue the study, the Sisters endeavor to find a French correspondent if possible, or guide her by private direction.

In certain ways the technique used in the Loyola experiment appears to be superior to that of the Sisters of Notre Dame. No additional class time is required. The pupil is thrown wholly upon his own resources. He very soon comes to realize that a language like French can be mastered by an intelligent person who reads a thousand or more pages of it-- a result quite the opposite of that often produced in high school, where, despite all the elaborate machinery we have set

up and the help we give the pupil, power to read independently often fails to be developed. Moreover, this technique is peculiarly suited to schools where administrative difficulties prevent homogeneous grading or rapid acceleration, and to teachers whose schedules render impossible, or almost impossible, the preparation and correction of the contracts required by the Dalton Plan or the Winnetka Plan.

The principal objection to this independent method of learning a foreign language is that the pupils will acquire a faulty pronunciation. Granting this fact, it follows, nevertheless, that the learning to read a modern language is of far greater importance for the vast majority of American children than learning to speak it. In addition, the mental activity that the child exercises in the association of symbols and meanings is highly beneficial. These benefits, together with the stimulation that comes to him from the realization that he has the power to learn something independently will, in a large measure, offset the objection.

Present Day Techniques.-- Among the various techniques used in teaching modern languages, the oral and conversational methods are in high favor today. At the same time numerous articles in The Modern Language Journal and other magazines show that many teachers doubt the advisability of attempting to arrive at conversational power in the time at our disposal.

Warshaw claims that "today many pedagogical experts are deploring the attempt to teach anything more than reading of

of the foreign languages. Some like Professor Franklin Bobbitt, seem to believe that the taxpayers are scarcely justified in investing in a speaking and writing knowledge of the foreign languages and that a reading knowledge can be imparted at a small cost" (107:473). Then he quotes Bobbitt as saying: "If any language is to be studied for the purpose here discussed (reading) it should doubtless be French. It is the one which contains the largest and best literature" (107:474).

Warshaw continues: "The effect of the grammar-translation method has led language teaching into a morass of stagnation in which students were apathetically and hopelessly struggling, bereft of vital contacts and gradually losing interest in language" (107:482).

In the ten objectives provisionally formulated by the representative Committee on Modern Foreign Language Study the first is "the ability to read the foreign language with ease and enjoyment" (107:483).

According to Huse:

"If the needs of the student are considered, a speaking knowledge can hardly be admitted as the fundamental object of instruction. Students cannot learn to speak a foreign language with fluency in the time allotted for language study. If they could, they would know more than many of their teachers. In any case, if the object should be attained, it would still be scarcely worth the while. Not one student in a hundred would ever have need or occasion to speak a word in a tongue other than his own" (55:8).

Moreover, Ryan admits that:

There has been for some time an accusing public finger pointed at the modern language teacher because

he has not taught his pupils to speak the language. The teachers have become accustomed, when assembled together, to take this seriously, to feel conscious stricken, to talk of conversational practice as the most important element of the class work. I have come to believe that this is due chiefly to fear of being thought unprogressive; for, remarkable to relate, I find that when approached individually in a dark corner, teachers of experience, with few exceptions, lay stress on the everlasting drilling into pupils the grammatical and idiomatic principles of the foreign language, even at the expense of teaching them early to think in the language. They agree commonly that conversational ability is by no means an important end in itself-- at least during the first two or three years of study. Even those who do not so agree are unable to give for their faith an argument which has real educational weight. Theoretically it is undesirable, and practically it is impossible that a speaking knowledge should be made the aim of the first three years of language study" (85:219).

The Loyola Technique.-- Be this as it may, to lay down the principle that no one should ever be taught to read a modern language without learning how to pronounce it orally is to take an arbitrary and untenable stand. It was with these principles in mind that the Loyola experimental class was organized; the purpose of which was to teach the pupils to read French without any consideration to oral work. The class was composed of five superior children: three girls and two boys. These pupils were not the brightest in the eighth grade, but they were among the most industrious and self-reliant. By "not the brightest" is to be here understood as signifying that they were doing approximately the same work as children two or even three years younger were doing, but usually the selected five would finish assignments before the other members of the class, and consequently, they would waste a great

deal of time were not some supplementary work provided that would hold their interest.

A test by the Otis Group Intelligence Scale, Advanced Examination: Form A, gives the following data:

TABLE XII. TEST SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP.

Pupil	Age		Total Score	Norm	I.B.	P.R.	M.A.	I.Q.
	Yrs.	Mos.						
D. L.	14	4	176	104	172	99.4	18:9	124
E. E.	14	4	164	104	160	97.9	18:3	120
E. M.	13	10	152	99	153	96.3	17:7	118
D. J.	13	5	151	95	156	97.1	17:7	119
P. G.	13	4	133	94	139	90.6	16:7	113

According to the manual accompanying the Otis Scale the total score is interpreted in terms of I.B. and P.R. rather than the usual I.Q. However, for the convenience of those who may wish to express the measure of a pupil's innate capacity for mental development in terms of Intelligence Quotient instead of the Index of Brightness, Table 18 is given on page 80 of the manual. Otis states that

"The "IQ" of a pupil found from these tables is not the same as would be obtained by dividing his mental age obtained from Table 12 by his chronological age, but is, nevertheless, more nearly equal to the IQ that would be obtained from the Binet-Simon Tests than an IQ found as above" (Manual:79).

The texts selected for this class were Guerber's Contes et Legendes, Part I and II (American Book Company). Later three of the children read with real delight Mairet's La Tâche du Petit Pierre, a crisp, dramatic story of an orphan boy who after many struggles regains the family fortune and honor.

The children were introduced to the work during a special period held after school. The lesson consisted of an explanation of the use of the vocabulary, of the introductory idiom, and a few elementary points of technical grammar. The pupils were instructed to look up each word in the vocabulary and write the equivalent English word in a note book, and to work along in this way as rapidly as possible until a story was completed, but should there be any difficulty in finding the meaning of a word to ask for help from the teacher. Each child worked independently in this manner, spending in all an average of about forty minutes a day writing out the English translation of each story.

From time to time the teacher checked the notebooks and gave a little informal comprehensive quiz. Occasionally, besides these conferences, a child would ask for assistance in a difficult passage, which usually proved to be an idiomatic expression or some form of an irregular verb that was not individually listed in the vocabulary.

After each pupil had completed the translation of eight stories, he was asked to set aside a special section in the notebook for idioms. Here they listed those idioms found in

the stories already read, and new ones were added to this list as they were encountered. At odd moments the pupils would turn to this section and study these peculiar groups of words in order to memorize them. This was the only direction given to the class in regard to memorizing. However, through visualization they had acquired a relatively large passive vocabulary.

After ten weeks of faithful practice, each pupil read aloud in English for three minutes, translating at sight. The results were fairly satisfactory, and the children were most enthusiastic and anxious to continue the study.

Two weeks later a short written test was given. This consisted of fifty French words which the children had seen many times and would have recognized easily if met in the text. The test papers were folded vertically so as to form three divisions. The selected French words were listed in a column in the first division or space. The children were instructed to write the English equivalent in the second space opposite the French word. Then the original copy was folded under, leaving only the English words visible, and the pupils wrote the corresponding French words in the last space. Needless to say, the French-English test gave better results than the English-French test. The papers scored a general average of correct English words 88%; of correct French words 76.45%.

No attempt was made to teach pronunciation, nor were the children asked to express themselves in French in any way other than to write in French the answers to simple questions based

on the reading lesson. They were merely building up mental connections between the foreign symbols and the English meanings in the reading. On questioning them in regard to their method of study, it was found that they did all their thinking in English. That is, when they perceived the French word they associated it with its English meaning. Also, idiomatic expressions were viewed as a unit to be expressed by certain English words. Apparently they made no attempt to think in French.

Two of the girls did at first attempt to pronounce the French words, but curiosity to reach the end of the story soon overcame their efforts, and as their reading power grew, the desire for French pronunciation departed from want of stimulation.

While it was evident that the group was gaining in reading power, yet it was desirable to have some norm by which to judge their progress. The instrument used was Handschin's "Modern Language Silent Reading Test in French, A Form." This test is somewhat defective as it has not been fully standardized, but it was the best available at the time. Handschin gives a tentative quality score of 9. The scores of these children averaged 16.3, which is somewhat misleading, for, although they were doing good work, it was not nearly so remarkable as this average would at first impression seem to indicate.

Then, in order to have some more satisfactory evidence as

to their relative standing when compared with a regular first-year class in French, Miss Margaret Synnberg, a teacher of French in the McKinley High School, of Chicago, was asked to make out such an examination as she would administer to her own class at the mid-semester. The examination consisted of four parts: I. French-English translation. This was a short story in simple language taken from a reader which the children had never seen. II. Comprehension or Sentence Structure. This consisted of ten questions in French based on the reading matter in Part I to be answered in French. III. English-French translation. The rewriting of ten English sentences of new material translating it into French. IV. Grammar. Twelve tasks of technical grammar.

Miss Synnberg marked the papers and made the report as tabulated in Table XIII.

TABLE XIII. PUPILS' SCORES BASED ON SYNBERG FRENCH TEST.

Pupil	Translation	Comprehension	Sentence Structure	Grammar
DL	G+	100	56	38
EE	G	100	35	22
EM	F	100	40	29
DJ	F	90	41	31
PG	F	100	32	24

Miss Synnberg's Report.-- With regard to each part of the examination Miss Synnberg says:

"Translation: all satisfactory.

"Comprehension: Good, only no attention was paid to structure or grammar.

"Sentence Structure: Failure as a unit. The numbers indicate the total number of words placed in a nearly correct setting. Impossible to grade as sentences.

"Grammar: 45 to 70 is considered as average for I-B range. The results are very satisfactory. Naturally these children can do nothing with English-French translation yet."

"The best feature of the work of these children is the "sentence sense" which all seem to possess. Oddly enough, it is this very quality which our own high school students lack. The emphasis on grammatical points has a marked tendency to focus attention on detached words, in many cases to such an extent that at the end of two years' study students translate sentences in about the fashion we put together the small pieces of a puzzle. I explain this at length because I feel that your method of procedure has a distinct advantage in training in thought reading."

The pupils manifested intense interest in the study and were enthusiastic about the work. In no way did it injure or interfere with their regular classwork. On the contrary, these children not only did all the ordinary work of the grade, but they consistently maintained a high standing in the class. Also, the privilege granted to these five exercised a wholesome influence on the other members of the class, several of whom strove diligently to raise their grade of accuracy and speed to that required in the hope of joining this special group.

The question now naturally arises: "What have these children gained so far as their future educational careers are

concerned?" They have all entered high school. But the French they learned during their last year in the elementary school did not qualify them to enter a French II class, and yet they are too far advanced for French I. Therefore, it would seem that this work has been of no practical benefit to them. If they take no French at all in high school, they will probably forget what they have learned. At present they are all studying Latin, but they have a love for the French and anticipate renewing the study in the eleventh and twelfth years.

It must be admitted that the technique in this preliminary experiment was defective. In order to get results, this independent method of study should be introduced about the sixth grade, or at the latest, the seventh grade. The material ordinarily assigned to French I should be so outlined in units, that it may be begun in the sixth or seventh grade and completed in the eighth. In this way, these children on entering the ninth grade would be ready for French II, which would be not only a saving of time but would allow for a freer choice of electives in high school.

CHAPTER V.

A NEW TEXT.

During the progress of our experiment we found that a survey of elementary readings in French revealed a large number of excellent studies, but no one single text that offered simple French, well within the reach of the beginner, was of such a nature as to arouse an interest that would last throughout the book.

Even for a child of superior mental ability to undertake to read French with profit the material offered him must be of such a nature that the lessons are increasingly difficult and so presented that he can grasp and fully comprehend each lesson, step by step. This "language sense" is effected by a constant repetition of vocabulary which has a tendency to strengthen and enlarge the passive vocabulary through use and without any mental stress.

A lack of properly arranged material may be the cause for the failure of so many children in their language examinations. Or, it may be because language is chiefly a memory task of isolated words and phrases which seldom function in the child's interest or experiences. Too often in teaching the modern languages, as well as Latin, the study means nothing but words, words, more words, and nothing else. The

pupils memorize set phrases and vocabularies, but they have no actual ability to use them in their own experiences, hence no real interest in them. What will create an interest in the study of a language like French? How can the mental activities of the pupils be motivated so as to make them eager to grasp the new mode of expressing their thoughts?

It would seem that if we could send our pupils into high school with a love for language study they would be in a fair way to develop a broadened conception of human life which would "tend to increase human sympathy and understanding" and make for better citizenship. But how shall we develop this desire for language study? In order to teach the ordinary subjects more intelligently and effectively, especially for the younger children of the elementary school, teachers frequently make use of the story method of presentation. Children are naturally interested in stories. They delight in listening to stories of wonderful things and of heroic deeds of great men. They never tire of tales of chivalry and adventure.

From the teaching of religion we learn that the mere narration of the more striking events in the life of our Blessed Lord appeals strongly to the little ones. This principle formed the working basis for compiling a new French reader which would be well within the ability of elementary children. The stories used in the new text are taken from the simple yet wonderful narratives found in the New Testament. These were selected because they embody homely subjects within

the experiences of the child and they are expressed in simple yet dignified diction that can be readily and easily grasped by pupils of the grammar grades.

As a rule the exact words of the approved translation of the New Testament have been preserved as much as possible. Christ was the Great Teacher. He lived among the lowly and used simple, familiar topics for the subjects of His discourses. We find in His conversation and instructions words of high frequency having the same high frequencies in the vocabularies used by children of the various sections in their daily communication at home or among their little companions at school or at play.

The vocabulary of every language consists of two distinct types, the active vocabulary which is necessary for receiving or expressing a thought, even the most simple, and an auxiliary vocabulary which is more technical. In the former we find such words as and, of, man, house, have, go, and the like. It would be practically impossible to speak consecutively and intelligently, even for a few minutes, or to read a few lines on any page of a primary reader without using some on this list. But it is possible to read through many books without meeting such words as hammer, pliers, formulated, etc. Should one wish to drive a nail he would ask for a hammer, or in stating a principle he might use the word formulate, but these words belong to a distinct group, and it is the group instead of the individual word that fixes its numerical value.

Regarding the necessary vocabulary for ordinary discourse

Huse says:

"The first line of almost any text will involve the use of words of the greatest frequency of occurrence, namely, the articles. The first paragraph will include a good share of the commoner pronouns, adjectives, prepositions, and some of the principal verbs. In twenty-five pages of almost any text nearly all the essentials of grammar are involved, and in a hundred pages a fairly good reading vocabulary" (55:16).

A text, therefore, that is confined largely to a thousand words of high frequency will doubtless prove more serviceable than most of those now available. One of the objections to many of the elementary readers is that they contain so many words used but seldom elsewhere; and although the pupils learn to use them in the classroom, the ability to recognize many of these words dies later from disuse.

Henmon prepared A French Word Book, based on a count of four hundred thousand running words. "The usefulness of a list of the commonest words in French... would be most valuable in studying French." It is interesting to note that words occurring five thousand times or oftener account for one fourth of all the material covered. "The total number of different words, reduced to a dictionary basis, was 9187. Of these 3905 occurred five times or oftener."

An introductory reader has been prepared which embodies a thousand words of high frequency which will enable the pupil to acquire a permanent vocabulary by virtue of encountering the same words and expressions over and over. This implies economy of effort, as for instance, in avoiding the necessity for

searching many times for the same word as it reoccurs, and it has a further pedagogical advantage in teaching the pupils to read accurately.

In this way, the mastery of reading will prove more interesting, too. The words selected are those commonly used in daily discourse, hence they are widely applicable, easy to learn and are related to the child's interest. Our text embodies sixty lessons, the first of which is the story of the Annunciation. This contains forty simple words. In each succeeding lesson these words are found in various combinations with the addition of a few new words.

Although pronunciation is not the aim of this text, nevertheless, for the benefit of those who may wish to pronounce the words, each lesson is reproduced in phonetic form. In this connection Laing says:

"One of the strongest points in favor of teaching children phonics is that it helps them to help themselves, that is, it gives them a means of securing results of independent effort" (64:107).

A list of the new words occurring precedes each lesson, and this list is short enough to be mastered during one class period. A few new words accompanied by a short new story has a stronger appeal to the child's interest than has a long story which is continued from day to day. For it must be remembered that younger children are not, in many cases, able to give sustained attention to the same kind of a task for more than twenty or thirty minutes at a time. As Dewey points out: "it is not enough to catch attention; it must be held. It

does not suffice to arouse energy; the course that energy takes, the results that it effects are the important matters" (25:91).

According to our method we find that interest will cause the pupil to understand whole-heartedly the work to be done. It will generate effort and concentrate his attention upon the words which are to him new symbols for objects and ideas. Thus he acquires a mastery of the words and expressions through their frequent use which gives him a command of the language and enables him to read with pleasure.

"Reading is the power of getting the ideas directly from the language in which they are written, and for this a large vocabulary is needed, which must be acquired by meeting again and again all the ordinary words and expressions of the language until they become perfectly familiar to the eye and ear" (113:191-92).

After every fifth lesson a review of fifty words is provided. These reviews are based on the preceding vocabularies. However, they are unlike the traditional type of review or examination, in that they are self-tests, which the pupil administers to himself. Thus they are in keeping with the self-teaching character of the entire text and technique. The child is instructed that if he makes a low score to review the test until mastery is attained. Each test has been so graded that progress, while gradual, is assured.

The words in these review lessons have been checked with Henmon's French Word List. All, excepting fifty-five, have a frequency of twenty-five or more. These fifty-five words that range below a frequency of twenty-five are distributed as

shown in Table XIV.

TABLE XIV. DISTRIBUTION OF WORDS HAVING A FREQUENCY BELOW TWENTY-FIVE.

Frequency	20-	15-	10-	5-
Number of words in our vocabulary	11	14	25	5

The words having a frequency of less than ten are écriture, evaluated at nine, and Apostles, disciple, juif, and serviteur, each of which is rated five. The pupil who has mastered the vocabulary of these twelve review exercises will have a command of French that will give him power to read books of considerable range.

The entire text is addressed to the pupil rather than to the teacher. This is for the purpose of giving the child methods of learning and habits of study. All technical difficulties and formal grammar have been carefully avoided. Grammatical forms are presented informally, and the repetition of the same words and expressions will enable the pupil to acquire an infinitely greater acquaintance with the language than one may be disposed to think possible in so narrow a compass.

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the reading of the classics.

The references marked (*) were read by the writer as
background material for this study, but were not used directly
in this report.

APPENDIX A.

Dear Sir:

The Bureau of Educational Research of Loyola University is making a study of the extent to which modern languages have been introduced in the elementary curriculum. We are especially interested in securing data on schools that have introduced a modern language as a means of making provision for superior children. To secure these data we ask you to please fill in the following blanks and return in the enclosed envelope.

Do you attempt to provide special instruction for superior or gifted children in any of the elementary schools of your state?

Name of city or school:

If you have not such classes now, do you anticipate establishing such classes in the near future?

Have you discontinued such classes after having organized them?

If you have classes for the education of superior children do you provide: (a) special rooms in the regular elementary school?
(b) special rooms in the high school?
(c) special teachers?

Does the program include a modern language?

Modern languages taught:

Grades in which taught:

Please state if possible the percentage of pupils who continue modern language study in high school:

What is the attitude of high school teachers toward these pupils when they enter high school?

Are the results of the present program of study satisfactory in your opinion?

Any additional information which you think would be of service in this study:

APPENDIX B.

OFFICE OF THE DEAN

The Bureau of Educational Research of Loyola University is making a study of the extent to which modern languages have been introduced in the elementary school curriculum. We are especially interested in securing data on schools that have introduced modern languages as a means of making provision for superior children.

To obtain data in this matter we ask you to please fill out the attached postal and return it.

Bureau of Educational Research

Loyola University

Name of School

City and State

Total registration of school

Modern Languages Taught

Grades in Which Taught

Minutes per week Number of Pupils Taking

Was one of your purposes in introducing modern languages to provide for superior children?

What other subjects have you introduced in the elementary curriculum not found in the conventional curriculum?

APPENDIX C.

Dear Sir:

We wish to thank you for your courtesy in answering the questionnaire we sent you last November. As we are intensely interested in what you are doing, and would be much benefited by a fuller knowledge of just what the seventh and eighth grades, as well as even younger pupils, can accomplish in the study of modern languages, we should appreciate your giving us more detailed information in this matter if you will be so good as to do so.

The type of further information we desire will, perhaps, become more evident from a brief statement of our own work in modern languages.

Some time ago we experimented with a class in reading French. Working on the principle that a reading knowledge of French, or any modern language, can be mastered by an intelligent person who reads a thousand or more pages of it, we selected a small group of superior eighth grade pupils, excused them from certain drills which they did not need, and permitted them to study French at their desks during these periods.

They were practically independent as they received only such help as the teacher was free to give without taking her attention from the ordinary classwork, or occasionally after school. While the results were encouraging, it is clear that if anything worth while is to be gained by this method, the study must begin in the seventh or even in the sixth grade.

What have been your experiences? You may tell us informally, in your own words, or use the blank we enclose for your convenience. We are trying to make our report as thorough as possible, consequently, any data you may send will be valuable and greatly appreciated.

Thanking you for your past favor, we are

Sincerely yours,

Bureau of Educational Research

Loyola University

BLANK ENCLOSED WITH THE FOLLOW-UP LETTER TO PRINCIPALS.

School:

City:

State:

Number of seventh Grade pupils taking French:
 German:
 Spanish:
 Latin:

Number of eighth grade pupils taking French:
 German:
 Spanish:
 Latin:

Is the study Mandatory? Or Elective?

Taught by Special Teachers: By Regular Teachers:

Do you provide special rooms in the high school?

Special rooms in the elementary school?

Grammar texts used?

Reading texts used?

Is the aim of language instruction (a) conversation?
 (b) reading? (c) better understanding of the
 people?

What is the attitude of high school teachers toward these
 pupils when they enter high school?

Are the results of the present program of study satisfactory
 in your opinion?

Please state if possible the percentage of pupils who con-
 tinue modern language study in high school:

Any additional information which you think would be of service

R E F E R E E S ' R E P O R T S

It is the practice of the Graduate School to have theses read by three referees. If the first two votes are favorable, the third reading is sometimes omitted. The Graduate Council regularly recommends for the degree all students who have a majority of favorable votes.

Students are frequently required to rewrite portions of their theses because of the referees' criticisms. This will explain why references to pages are sometimes inaccurate and why shortcomings concerning which comment is made in the reports are found not to exist.

THESIS: MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE GRADES AS A MEANS OF
PROVISION FOR SUPERIOR CHILDREN

Just fair. Horribly detached and disjointed. Chapter 3 on objectives is the best, but it seems to stand alone, as written. So do the other chapters. I tried to connect them and to make corrections all along.

I would change the title of chapter I to Early Attempts at Meeting the Individual Needs and Capacities of Superior Pupils.

In Chapter I, pp 1-4 she fails to mention Helen Parkhurst's Dalton Contracts, Carleton Washburne's Goals, and John Kennedy's Batavia Plan. She may obviate this omission by stating that since these plans are so well known she will include only a cursory discussion of less advertised plans of individualized instruction.

To bring about a transition between Chapter I and II I would suggest something like this:

The reader has observed that many of the attempts at providing specialized instruction for superior pupils have stressed in particular the tendency towards teaching a foreign language to specially gifted pupils in addition to their regular school load.

Since this writer is particularly interested in language instruction, she sent out during the months of November and December, 1928, two questionnaires to Elementary School Principals. From the data received the writer hoped to receive enough authentic information so that she would be able to gauge the status of modern language instruction in representative elementary schools of the United States.

I wrote in a possible transition between Chapters II and III.

Send it through after my suggested changes

Howard Egan

THESIS: MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE GRADES AS A MEANS OF
PROVISION FOR SUPERIOR CHILDREN

This thesis is weak in so far as a review of the literature is concerned, but in my judgment deserves to be accepted because of the real contribution which the writer made by her own experiment.

Austin G. Schmidt, S.J.