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REPORT

OF THE

COMMITTEE OF TWELVE

OF THE

Modern Language Association of America

WITH AN INTRODUCTION

BY THE CHAIRMAN

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INTRODUCTION

THE circumstances attending the origin of the report which is here reprinted without change, the committee's mode of procedure and the difficulties that beset their path, are sufficiently explained in the first section of the report itself. It is part of a general movement started a few years ago by the National Educational Association; a movement looking toward a better and more uniform definition of requirements for admission to American colleges. No one familiar with the facts ever imagined that it would be possible, even if it were desirable, to establish uniform courses of study in all our secondary schools; but it *was* felt that great good would be accomplished if certain norms or units of instruction could be defined, certain general principles laid down, and a descriptive nomenclature recommended, which should have substantially the same meaning everywhere.

The problem of the Modern Language Committee was, then, to suggest to the secondary teacher what should be taught and how it should be taught, and to do this in such a way as to leave to the schools a large measure of liberty in the management of details. But the *what* and the *how* were inextricably bound up with the *why*, since the teacher's theory as to the purpose for which a modern language is

studied will inevitably exert a determining influence upon the character and method of the instruction. It was first necessary, therefore, to take a definite position with regard to the educational value of the modern languages. This topic is covered in Section II, which is to be regarded as the theoretical basis of all the ensuing recommendations. That the views of the committee upon this subject, or indeed any other views that could possibly be formulated, would command universal assent, was, of course, not to be expected. I believe, however, that they rest upon sound reason. If, as we hope, the modern languages are to play an increasingly important and dignified rôle in our scheme of secondary education; if they are to do what they are capable of doing for the mind and character of the learner, they must be taken very seriously. It is important to aim high.

Of course it is not my purpose, in this brief introduction, to traverse the recommendations of the report point by point. It speaks for itself and has little need of explanatory comment. That it is a perfect finality in American education no one supposes, and least of all the scholars who prepared it. It is rather to be regarded as a beginning, a tentative effort toward the creation of a high national standard of secondary instruction in the modern languages. Upon some points there were differences of opinion in the committee itself, and what was finally incorporated in the report was the result of compromise. We had a difficult task to perform. Our foremost desire was to prepare a report that should be practically useful. We did not wish to emit a learned essay, weighted down with historical lore, statistical tables and exhaustive bibliographies. A

report of that kind might have had its uses for some, but it was certain that the great majority of teachers would derive little benefit from such a document, even if they should have the patience to read it. What they needed was practical counsel, stated with all possible clearness and brevity, but based upon sound reasoning and embodying the best thought and experience of the day.

And this is what the committee has faithfully endeavored to give. Every question, certainly every important question, taken up in the report was treated as a matter to be investigated afresh in the light of reason and experience. Snap judgments were not tolerated. Individual prejudice was required to justify itself at the bar of general discussion. Every effort was made to do full justice to arguments and opinions which we could not, in the end, fully approve. No pains were spared in the collection of information which might have a bearing upon our work.

But notwithstanding the care that was exercised, it would be preposterous to suppose that the report can have any other value than that of a normative scheme which may serve provisionally to guide the efforts of teachers and to focus criticism. The difficulty has been hitherto that we have had no national pattern whatever — not even the semblance of one. There has been much profitable discussion in local associations and many good papers have been written by individual teachers. But it has been a scattering fire; there has been no obvious and convenient way of making our increasing wisdom effective toward the general improvement of school work. It is to be hoped that the Report of the Committee of Twelve will hereafter meet this very need. No doubt it is vulnerable here and

there. In a document dealing briefly with such a variety of matters, many of them matters of controversy, it is inevitable that the individual teacher will find more or less to criticise. He will discover what from his point of view will appear to be errors of doctrine and errors of emphasis. He will wish that this and that had been left out or differently formulated. He may think that the courses of study, as laid out by the committee, are too severe; that they make too much of certain disciplines, too little of others. He will think, perhaps with good reason, that the reading-lists are capable of great improvement.

Very well; let him offer his criticisms freely and forcibly, but always in a helpful spirit, regarding the report not as a hostile fort to be battered down, but as a house to be gradually improved into a comfortable habitation for us all. And then, after a few years, it will be for some new committee to revise the scheme in the light of criticism and of freshly accumulated experience.

CALVIN THOMAS.

NEW YORK, *May, 1900.*

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF TWELVE OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA.[1]

The committee appointed two years ago to make recommendations upon the subject of preparatory requirements in French and German has the honor to submit the following report:

SECTION I

Preliminary

It will be remembered that the appointment of the committee grew out of a request of the National Educational Association, which has for some time been endeavoring to bring about a better regulation of secondary instruction in the subjects usually required for admission to American colleges. In pursuing this laudable undertaking the National Educational Association very properly saw fit to ask for the advice of various professional bodies, our own among the number. In particular, it was desired that we draw up model preparatory courses in French and German and make recommendations concerning the practical management of these courses. The matter was brought

[1] Submitted at a meeting of the Association held in December, 1898, at Charlottesville, Va.

to the attention of both branches of this association at the sessions of 1896, and we were asked to take appropriate action. As the business appeared to be of very great importance, it was thought best to turn it over to a large committee having a somewhat general mandate to investigate and report. The resolution under which the committee was appointed reads as follows:

That a committee of twelve be appointed: (*a*) To consider the position of the modern languages in secondary education; (*b*) to examine into and make recommendations upon methods of instruction, the training of teachers, and such other questions connected with the teaching of the modern languages in the secondary schools and the colleges as in the judgment of the committee may require consideration.

That this committee shall consist of the present president of the association, Prof. Calvin Thomas, as chairman, and eleven other members of the association, to be named by him.

That the association hereby refers to this committee the request of a committee of the National Educational Association for coöperation in the consideration of the subject of college entrance examinations in French and German.

In pursuance of this resolution the committee was made up early in the year 1897, and began its work by preparing a circular, which was sent out to some 2,500 teachers. The object of the circular was to obtain information with regard to the present status of secondary instruction in French and German in the country at large, and also to elicit opinions with respect to a number of more or less debatable questions which, as was thought, would be likely to arise in the course of the committee's deliberations. Several hundred replies were received and collated, and

the information thus obtained was laid before the committee at a session held in Philadelphia one year ago. We have not thought it wise to cumber this report, which will be long enough at the best, with a detailed recital of these statistics. Suffice it to say that, taken as a whole, they give us a picture of somewhat chaotic and bewildering conditions. Under various names our secondary schools have a large number of courses in which French and German figure as prominent or as subordinate subjects of instruction; courses of one, two, three and four or more years; courses providing for two, three, four, or five recitations a week, and for recitation periods ranging from twenty-five to sixty minutes. And when we come to the colleges and higher scientific schools the requirements for admission are hardly less multifarious. Various bachelors' degrees are conferred, and for admission to the courses leading to these degrees French and German figure variously, according as the modern language is offered in addition to the Latin and Greek of the classical preparatory course, or in place of Greek, or as the main linguistic study. Some of the colleges have also an elementary and an advanced requirement, with options variously managed.

Upon surveying the intricate problem thus presented, the members of the committee perceived at once that any report which they might make, if it was to be really useful, must be adapted, so far as practicable, to the conditions as they are. It was not for us to recommend radical changes in the American system, or lack of system, which has grown up in a natural way and must work out its own destiny. It was not for us to attempt to decide which of the various competing courses is the best course, or to antagonize any particular study. Nor could we assume to

dictate to the colleges just how much knowledge of French or German, or both, they shall demand for admission to this, that, or the other undergraduate course. The colleges would certainly not consent to any surrender of their liberty to regulate their requirements in their own way. Most important of all, it was not for us to propose any arrangements which could be taken to imply that secondary instruction in French and German exists only for the sake of preparation for college. The great majority of those studying the modern languages in school do not go to college at all. Our secondary education must be recognized as having its own function, its own aims and ideals. In the great mass of the schools those who are preparing for college receive instruction in the same classes with those who are not preparing for college. And this must always be so. These considerations seemed to indicate that the proper line for the committee to pursue was as follows:

To describe a certain number of grades of preparatory instruction, corresponding to courses of different length; to define these grades as clearly as possible in terms of time and work and aim, and to make a few practical recommendations with regard to the management of the instruction—recommendations having as their sole object the educational benefit of the pupil. The members of the committee are naturally of the opinion that the study of a modern language in school has a distinct educational value of its own. The teacher's problem is to realize this value from the study. Whether the learner is going to college or not makes no difference, save as this consideration affects the amount of time he can devote to the modern language while preparing himself in the other necessary

subjects. If such courses could be wisely drawn up, and if then they were to be recommended to the country upon the combined authority of the Modern Language Association and the National Educational Association, it would seem reasonable to expect them soon to become the national norm of secondary instruction in the modern languages. It also seems reasonable to expect that the colleges will be not only willing but glad to adopt the practice of stating their requirements in terms of the national grades. Such a mutual understanding between the colleges and the secondary schools should do much to bring a definitely understood order out of our existing chaos.

Having come a year ago to this general conclusion as to what could and should be done, the committee saw that it would be impossible to submit a satisfactory final report at the Philadelphia meeting. There were various matters that required further study. First, there was the question as to how many grades were really needed—whether two, or three, or more. Then there was the question of French and German in the lower school grades. This subject, it is true, had not been expressly committed to us; but it was known that many private schools, and not a few of our best public schools, already provide instruction in French or German in grades below the high school. It was also known that many good teachers strongly advocate this idea. But if it is wise to begin a modern language some time before the high school is reached, and if this practice is to be extended and to become more and more a part of our national system, it is evident that the modern-language work of the secondary schools must be more or less affected. Again, there was the perplexing question of method.

In view of the sharp differences of opinion and of practice known to exist among teachers, the committee thought it best, before undertaking to advise teachers how to teach, to reëxamine the whole matter carefully in the light of experience and in the light of recent contributions to the subject, to the end that their final recommendations might be as free as possible from any vagaries of personal prejudice. Finally, there was the large task of drawing up the proposed courses and formulating the recommendations. Seeing all this work ahead, the committee decided, at the Philadelphia session, to report progress, ask for additional time and money, and, if this request should be granted, to appoint a number of sub-committees, whose task it should be to inquire into and report upon the various questions just enumerated. The request was granted and the committee adjourned after passing unanimously a single resolution, the import of which will be apparent from what was said a little while ago. The resolution was to the effect that secondary instruction in French and German should not be differentiated, according as the pupil is, or is not, preparing for college.

During the first half of the year 1898 the subcommittees worked at their several tasks by means of circulars and correspondence. Early in November a three day session of the general committee was held in New York City. The meeting was attended by ten of the twelve members, two being unavoidably absent. The reports of the various subcommittees were received and discussed, together with other matters germane to the committee's general task. As a result of the three days' discussion, the substance of the following report was agreed upon. Since the November meeting the report, as below drawn up, has been sub-

mitted to the members of the committee, and, after some further interchange of views by mail, has been agreed to by them unanimously.

SECTION II

Value of the Modern Languages in Secondary Education

Aside from the general disciplinary value common to all linguistic and literary studies, the study of French and German in the secondary schools is profitable in three ways: First, as an introduction to the life and literature of France and Germany; secondly, as a preparation for intellectual pursuits that require the ability to read French and German for information; thirdly, as the foundation of an accomplishment that may become useful in business and travel. Under each of these heads a great deal might be said; but an exhaustive discussion of the several topics would swell the volume of this report beyond the limits within which it is likely to be most useful. A few words must therefore suffice.

What we have called the general disciplinary value of linguistic and literary study is well understood the world over, and has long been recognized in the educational arrangements of every civilized nation. The study of a language other than the mother tongue requires the learner to compare and discriminate, thus training the analytic and reflective faculties. The effort to express himself in the unfamiliar idiom, to translate from it into his own, makes him attentive to the meaning of words, gives a new insight into the possible resources of expression, and cultivates precision of thought and statement. Incidentally

the memory is strengthened and the power of steady application developed. In time such study opens the gate to a new literature, thus liberalizing the mind and giving an ampler outlook upon life. Through literature the student is made a partaker in the intellectual life of other times and other peoples. He becomes familiar with their manners and customs, their ideals and institutions, their mistakes and failures, and with the artistic forms in which the national genius has expressed itself. When he leaves school, such knowledge not only enriches his personal life, but makes him a more useful because a more intelligent member of society. It exerts a steadying, sanative influence, for it furnishes him with standards based upon the best performance of the race everywhere. For us Americans, with our large confidence in our own ways and destiny, there is special need of the wisdom that comes from familiarity with the life, literature, and history of the great makers of European civilization.

What has been said up to this point relates to the profit of linguistics and literary study in general, a matter about which there is no serious difference of opinion among intelligent people. When, however, we come to consider the relative value of the ancient and the modern languages, we raise a moot question over which there has been endless discussion. Here, again, we refrain from lengthy argument. Let it be remarked, however, that the question is a very large one, to be decided only in the light of long and wide experience. To reach a sane view of the matter it is necessary to make some allowance on both sides for the partisanship of the professional teacher, who is generally more or less prone to overstate the importance of his specialty. Nor should we allow too great weight to the

views of publicists, men of letters, and so forth, who treat the question from a purely personal point of view. The man in middle life, who has the advantage of knowing just what knowledge is most useful to him in his own work, can usually look back upon his early education and tell a tale of neglected opportunities and misapplied energy. Educational arrangements must be made for the many, and human tastes, needs, and aptitudes are various. For the boy or girl who must select a course of study long before he or she can know just what special attainment will be the most useful in after life, it is enough to be assured that the discipline and culture derived from the study of a foreign language, whether ancient or modern, will certainly prove valuable.

The committee is of the opinion that the best course of study for the secondary school will always provide instruction in at least one ancient and one modern language. Beyond this we do not undertake to pass judgment upon the comparative merits of competing courses. It has always been the policy of the Modern Language Association not to antagonize the study of Latin and Greek. We ask for the modern languages in school and college nothing more than a fair chance to show what they are worth. We believe that they are worth, when properly taught, no less than the ancient languages.[1] It is, of course, conceded that the Latin and Greek are the more "difficult"

[1] "It seems to me that the teaching of modern languages in many of the schools * * * has now reached such a stage that we may fairly say that a training in French or German, or both, can be given which is just as substantial, strong, and useful a training as any other that is given in the same period."—President Eliot, Educational Reform, p. 378.

in the initial stages. But difficulty can not be the highest test of educational utility, else Latin and Greek should themselves give way to Sanskrit and Chinese. Evidently it is the goodness of the kernel and not the thickness and hardness of the shell that we are mainly to think of. The kernel is the introduction to the life and literature of a great civilized people, whom it is, for some reason, very important for us to know about. And here it may properly be urged on behalf of the modern languages that, just in proportion as they are easier to acquire, the essential benefit of the acquisition is the sooner realized. They give a quicker return upon the investment. This is a consideration that is of special importance for the secondary school. It is quite possible in an ordinary school course to learn to read French and German easily. The high-school graduate who has acquired this ability can at once turn it to account, even if he does not go to college. If he allows his ability to slip from him through lack of practice, it is at least his own fault. In the case of the ancient languages, on the other hand, it is a well-understood and oft-lamented fact that the great majority, even of college graduates, never learn to read Latin and Greek with ease. Up to the last the effort is more or less painful. After leaving college they usually drop their Latin and Greek, and in a short time they can not read at all. The profit of the study thus reduces, for the many, to its purely gymnastic value. That value, we are prepared to admit, is very great; but we would urge that the purely gymnastic value of the modern languages is, potentially, also very great. The argument of "difficulty" is often misused. There may be as much valuable exercise in walking five miles up a gentle slope as in climbing a mile up a sharp acclivity.

The first and greatest value of the study of the modern languages must be looked for, then, in the introduction of the learner to the life and literature of the two great peoples who, next to the English stock, have made the most important contributions to European civilization. That these literatures are as important, as worthy of study, as full of instruction for the modern man and woman as are those earlier literatures that once formed the great staple of education, is a proposition that we do not think necessary to argue, though it is sometimes denied in toto by zealous advocates of classical study. For the peculiar intellectual myopia that can see nothing new and nothing good in modern literature the only remedy is the classical hellebore.

We attach greatest importance, then, to linguistic discipline and literary culture. But the ability to read French and German has also another value not directly connected with the study of belles-lettres. In nearly all branches of knowledge at the present time a large part of the best that has been written is to be found in the German and French languages. One who wishes to study anything thoroughly, no matter what, finds it highly convenient, if not absolutely necessary, to be able to read these languages in the pursuit of information. The high-school graduate who brings this ability with him to college has a great advantage in that he can at once begin to use it as a tool in prosecuting his studies. Of those who do not go to college it is fair to presume that a considerable portion will continue some line of private study, if not as a vocation, then as an avocation. For all such the ability to read French and German will be of great service.

It is next in order to remark briefly upon what is pop-

ularly called the " practical " value of French and German —that is, their utility as a means of intercourse. The practical command of a foreign language has a potential value that is at once perceived by everyone. It is felt to be desirable by multitudes who would probably care but little for the considerations presented in the preceding paragraphs of this section. The committee hold, however, that in our general scheme of secondary education the ability to converse in French or German should be regarded as of subordinate importance. We by no means say that it should be ignored, or that colloquial practice may safely be neglected in teaching. With this point the report will deal further on. Here we merely express the opinion that the ability to converse should not be regarded as a thing of primary importance for its own sake, but as auxiliary to the higher ends of linguistic scholarship and literary culture. The grounds of this opinion are briefly as follows:

The practical command of a living language, such as will be really useful for the ordinary purposes of life, presupposes a large amount of practice in speaking. The requisite amount of practice can not possibly be given in an ordinary school course, even in a course of four years in length, in which the pupils come together four or five times a week, perhaps in classes of considerable size, remain with the teacher for three-quarters of an hour, and the rest of the time speak English. With the most skillful teachers, working with the best methods that can be devised, and concentrating their effort upon the one aim of teaching the pupil to talk, the results of such a course, unless the work of the school is supplemented by practice at home, is only an imperfect command of the language, which is of little

use outside the class room. Meanwhile the concentration of effort upon this one object necessarily involves the neglect of other things that are of more importance in the end. For it must be remembered that the process of learning to speak a foreign language has no educational value except as it is connected with, and grows out of, the improvement of the mind.

In the second place it is to be remarked that while in certain European countries, by reason of their geographical position, or the character of the population, it is of very great practical importance that the rising generation learn to speak two or three languages with facility, the conditions in the United States are different. If it were possible in the secondary school to impart a good practical command of French, it is evident that all but a minute proportion of those leaving school with this accomplishment would soon lose it for lack of occasion to use it. We have, it is true, a number of communities in which the ability to speak German is highly convenient, and may even have a local market value. But nowhere in the United States is this ability indispensable. The English language is the vernacular of the country and the medium of our civilization, and we wish it to become more so, rather than less so, with the lapse of time. So far as purely practical considerations go, it is for those who come to us to learn our language, not for us to learn theirs. If we teach a foreign language in our schools it should be for the sake of its general educational value. At the same time, its potential value as a means of intercourse may very properly be kept in view. One who has received the best training that the secondary school can give may not be able to speak his modern language with facility for

the practical purposes of life, but he will have been started in the right way; will have obtained a good general knowledge of the language, and will have had some practice in speaking. If then, after leaving school, he needs to be able to speak the language, he has an excellent foundation on which to build. Proficiency will come rapidly with practice.

SECTION III

A Critical Review of Methods of Teaching

THE GRAMMAR METHOD

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

This method has fallen into discredit; and while it is

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

as a means of inculcating the habit of accurate ratiocination.

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

THE NATURAL METHOD

At the opposite pedagogical pole from the process just described, we find the conversational or "natural" method. This educational "naturalism" is a reaction against the inflexible systematism of earlier teachers; we should, therefore, expect it to be somewhat aggressive and somewhat formless, more given to pulling down than to building up. It is a principle, an impulse, rather than a plan; and its products depend, to a greater extent than those of any other school, on the personality of the instructor. Too often the results of a protracted and sup-

posedly successful course of unalloyed conversation are a rapid, but unintelligible pronunciation, the fluent use of incorrect forms, and, worst of all, a most discouraging self-complacency. Some peculiarly gifted teachers have succeeded in combining alertness with a reasonable degree of accuracy, but it will probably be found, in all such cases, that the instructor has resorted to devices not strictly "natural."

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

This method—if "method" is the proper term—is based on two general ideas; one true, the other false. The first is the belief that the interest so necessary to the successful prosecution of any study (and especially of language work) can most easily be aroused by the actual spoken use of the foreign tongue. The second is the theory that a boy or man can best learn a new language in the manner in which an infant first acquires its native speech. Hence comes the epithet "natural." The advocates of this view overlook, first, the fact that the child requires eight or ten years of incessant practice to gain even a tolerable command of its own tongue, and, secondly, the vast difference between the mind of the baby and that of the youth. The really natural methods of acquisition at these two stages of development are almost diametrically opposed. Let us consider, for instance, the learning of pronunciation. The newborn child, after various unsuccessful experiments, reproduces sounds correctly because it has no previous habits of speech to contend with. The boy or man, unless he is phonetically trained or exceptionally acute of hearing, does not imitate at all. He merely substitutes for the several strange vowels and consonants the English sounds which the foreign ones happen to suggest to him. That is why the pronunciation of conversational classes is generally not a whit better than that of scholars taught after the most antiquated fashion. In the attempt to inculcate the other elements of speech—inflections, syntax, and phraseology—the purely imitative process shows itself to be almost equally inadequate. We may justly urge, furthermore, against this style of teaching, that it provides little discipline for the intelligence; that it affords only the poorest kind of mnemonic training; that it favors vagueness of

thought and imprecision of expression, and, finally, that it sacrifices the artistic interest of language study to a so-called "practical" one. On the other hand, it certainly does awaken enthusiasm among its disciples, and it stimulates and holds the attention.

The natural method has been vehemently attacked and just as vigorously defended. At present the violence of the conflict has abated, and we are able to judge dispassionately the results of its introduction into our educational life. Those results have been mainly good. In summer schools and other institutions that have used the imitative process exclusively most of the pupils are persons who have had or will soon get some practice in grammar and reading. For them the conversation lessons are supplementary and form a useful addition to their training. In schools and colleges that have not accepted the "naturalistic" theory the fame of the new method has obliged teachers to adopt some of its practical features, thus bringing much-needed life and variety into their instruction. It seems probable that the next generation will regard "naturalism" rather as a vivifying influence than as an independent method.[1]

[1] For a description of the natural method see Der Leitfaden für den Unterricht in der deutschen Sprache, by G. Heness, and L. Sauveur's Introduction to the Teaching of Living Languages. The method is well exemplified, not only in the Leitfaden, but in Der Sprachlehrer unter seinen Schülern, by Heness, and in Sauveur's Causeries avec mes élèves and Petites causeries. All these works are now published by Messrs. Henry Holt & Co., of New York.

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL METHOD

Out of the conviction that modern-language study should be made attractive, and out of the desire to adapt instruction to the known workings of the human mind, has come a system that seems more deserving of serious attention than the grammar method or the "natural" style of teaching. This is the system invented by Gouin and brought into general notice by Bétis.[1]

The psychological method rests on the principle of the association of ideas and the habit of "mental visualization." The whole current vocabulary of a language, in the form of short, idiomatic sentences, is divided up into groups, every group consisting of phrases that are inti-

[1] Its operation and results are described at considerable length in Die neueren Sprachen, by R. Kron in III, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 (published separately under the title Die Methode Gouin, oder das Serien-System in Theorie und Praxis, Marburg, 1896), and by V. Knorr in III, 8, and V, 9. The method has been subjected to a searching criticism by Traugott in the same periodical, VI, 6. It should be said here that Bétis has considerably altered the original plan; and opinions are divided concerning the respective advantages of the two versions. The real Gouin system can be studied in the author's Art d'enseigner et d'étudier les langues, Paris, 1880 (third edition in 1897); the Bétis or "psychological" method is illustrated by a volume called The Facts of Life, New York, 1896, by Bétis and Swan. Without presuming to pass judgment on the merits of the case, we shall confine ourselves to the revised plan, since that is the one more widely known and the only one that has been tried in America. It was brought to the attention of the English-speaking world in 1892 and 1893 by the articles of W. T. Stead in the Review of Reviews. In the years 1895-1897 it was used in Boston, Mass., by Bétis himself, and it is now on trial in one of the public high schools of the same city.

mately connected in subject. One group forms a lesson. These brief divisions are gathered together in chapters, each of which treats of one general topic, and several chapters make a " series." When a pupil has gone through all the series, with numerous reviews, he will have mastered (so we are told) the whole spoken language. Every lesson is first worked out orally and then studied by the pupil from his book. On presenting each new word to the beginner the instructor exhorts him to close his eyes and form a distinct mental picture of the thing or act represented. This image (it is affirmed) will remain indissolubly connected with the word, and the evocation of the one will always recall the other. Sometimes real objects or drawings are used, and pantomime is frequently resorted to; but in most cases reliance is placed on the child's active imagination. It is never considered a sin to put in a word or two of English, and at the outset that language is very freely employed. Although most of the talking is done by the teacher, the pupils are constantly called upon to repeat his sentences and to answer questions. After the first lessons written compositions may be prepared, made up of phrases already acquired. Grammatical instruction is begun early, concurrently with the other exercises, but the reading of consecutive texts is postponed until the bulk of the ordinary vocabulary has been learned. Many innovations have been introduced into the presentation of grammar, but most of them are more radical in appearance than in reality. Some, however, are extremely ingenious, and will doubtless be copied by instructors who do not see fit to adopt the whole system.

The Bétis method has the following obvious advantages: It trains the memory; it fascinates the student and

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

THE PHONETIC METHOD

Pronunciation, neglected in the three modes of instruction just mentioned, is the very foundation of a system that has of late years attracted attention in all northern Europe, and has gained a considerable footing in Germany and Scandinavia.[1] Its advocates, while not entirely free

[1] The names by which it is known are the "reform," the "new," and the "phonetic" methods. It was outlined by Vietor in his famous monograph, Der Sprachunterricht musz umkehren (1882, new edition, Heilbronn, 1886), and its principal features are set forth on the cover of every number of the Maître phonétique. Both this periodical (the organ of the Association Phonétique Internationale) and Die neueren Sprachen, edited by Vietor, are devoted to the propagation of the phonetic method. The list of publications—books, pamphlets, and articles—which deal with the "reform method" is very large. A complete bibliography down to 1893 is given by H. Breymann in Die neusprachliche Reform-

from the intolerance and the self-confidence so characteristic of enthusiastic reformers, are men of sound scholarship, successful experience, and good standing in the educational world. As far as can be ascertained, they have arrived at results which go far toward justifying their seemingly extravagant claims. There have been few attempts to introduce the phonetic teaching in this country; probably the most extensive trial of it has been made at the Johns Hopkins University.

The phonetic method resembles the "natural" and the "psychological" schools in that it takes the modern spoken language as a basis and at first relies mainly on oral instruction, using as far as possible the foreign language itself as a medium of communication. Unlike most

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Litteratur von 1876-1893, eine bibliographisch-kritische Übersicht, Leipzig, 1893. Two articles by leading exponents of the method have appeared in American journals, viz, "A new method of language teaching," by W. Vietor, in the Educational Review, Vol. VI, p. 351, and "Phonetics and reform method," by A. Rambeau, in Modern Language Notes, Vol. VIII, p. 161. An excellent report of observations made during a six months' tour of inspection of German schools is given by Mary Brebner in The Method of Teaching Modern Languages in Germany: New York, Macmillan, 1898, and this is now admirably supplemented by the work of Karl Breul, The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in our [English] Secondary Schools, New York, Macmillan, 1898. A conservative and at the same time fairly representative presentation of the aims and methods of the "reformers" is given by W. Münch in his and F. Glauning's Didaktik und Methodik des französischen und englischen Unterrichts, Sonderausgabe aus A. Baumeister's Handbuch der Erziehungs-und Unterrichtslehre für höhere Schulen. On pp. 102 sq. is to be found a select list of the more important writings on method in modern-language teaching which have appeared in recent years.

"conversation" courses, however, it is very systematically constructed and its beginning is strictly scientific. It begins with a training of the ear and the vocal organs, the pupils being thoroughly drilled in the vowels and consonants of the strange tongue. These sounds are considered both as isolated phenomena and as elements of idiomatic phrases. The phrases, in turn, are combined into dialogues, descriptions, and stories. At this stage printed texts are used, but only in phonetic notation. The ordinary spelling is carefully kept from the students during the elementary period. It is said that the transition from sound symbols to standard orthography presents no serious difficulty. Objects, pictures, and maps are constantly displayed, and every effort is made to familiarize the class with the surroundings, the institutions, the habits, the character, and the mode of thought of the people whose language they are learning. The phonetic texts gradually increase in length and difficulty, and some of the latest are representative of literature. Inflections and syntax are studied inductively. Composition consists first of the oral and written reproduction of matter already heard or read, then of combinations of familiar phrases. Systematic grammar is reserved for a late stage, and translation comes last of all.

It is evident that this sort of instruction requires a special preparation and a special apparatus. Although the pupils are not taught phonetics, it is essential that the teacher be something of a phonetician; and the present difficulty of obtaining adequate instruction in the science of speech-sounds has doubtless done much to hinder the rapid general adoption of Vietor's programme. Let us hope that in the near future such training will be brought

within the reach of all by means of courses conducted, in our universities and in our summer schools, by men who unite with the necessary scientific attainments a practical knowledge of the requirements of American pedagogy. Phonetic texts, too, though not absolutely indispensable, are of the greatest assistance.[1]

This method, while it lacks the logical discipline of the old grammatical instruction, is more successful than any other in forming a good pronunciation and in giving pupils a ready and accurate control of the spoken language. The training it affords can hardly fail, moreover, to improve the quality of the student's voice and his enunciation of his mother tongue. From the standpoint of mnemonic education, too, it ranks high. In stimulating interest it is nearly equal to the "natural" and "psychological" courses, and it is second only to the latter in holding the attention. The training of the attention should, by the way, be regarded as an important part of any pedagogical scheme; for the habit of inattention—the utter inability of pupils to fix their minds on anything for more than a few minutes at a time—is the most serious obstacle that confronts our secondary teachers. The attempt to give scholars, by ear and eye, by description and by the use of objects and pictures, a correct and vivid idea of foreign life has been carried further by the phoneticians than by any other school; but there is no reason, save the lack of rightly prepared instructors, why this feature

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[1] Some good ones are already available: For French, F. Beyer and P. Passy; Rambeau and J. Passy have provided us with suitable chrestomathies; in German, we have a little book by Vietor; the Maître phonétique furthermore, is constantly furnishing material in various languages.

should not be introduced into every method; the neglect of it defeats one of the principal objects of modern-language study. Another means to the same end is the system of international correspondence between school children of different countries.

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[1] Mentioned by Vietor in Die neueren Sprachen, V, 3, 165, and described by Professor Magill in Modern Language Notes, XIII, 3. The plan was first suggested in the Revue universitaire for June, 1896, by Prof. P. Mieille, who gave an account of his efforts to bring about an interchange of letters between French children studying English and English children studying French. His idea attracted immediate attention in France and England, ere long also in Germany, Italy, and the United States, and it was soon perceived that it could be turned to profit, not only for school children, but also for adults, especially for teachers. Having already been tried on a large scale, the plan has passed the experimental stage and may be confidently recommended as a valuable aid in the learning of a living language. At first, correspondents could be secured only through certain journals, which published lists of names in consideration of a subscription. Later, on the initiative of the Manuel général de l'instruction primaire, a large committee was appointed, which now undertakes gratuitously to bring correspondents together. The vice-president of the English section for women is Miss E. Williams, professeur aux Ecoles de Sèvres et de Fontinay, whose address is No. 6 rue de la Sorbonne, Paris. Miss Williams's secretary, who conducts her correspondence, is Mme. Rossignol, 117 rue Nôtre Dame de Champs, Paris. The vice-president of the English section for men is Prof. A. Mouchet, 16 rue de St. Guillaume, Asnières (près Paris). Any one of these three can be addressed by American teachers desiring French correspondents for themselves or for their pupils. In Germany the plan has been taken up prominently by Dr. K. A. Martin Hartmann, of Leipsic, who has reported upon a trial of it in the Saxon schools and published a body of Vorschläge relating to it. The advantages of the system are well set forth by Petri in Die neueren Sprachen, VI, 511, and objections to it are answered by Hartmann

What are the disadvantages of the "phonetic" plan, when we consider it from the point of view of our American high schools? In the first place, it seems, like other "oral" methods, to overlook the importance of literary education, for it postpones the reading of real books to a stage that is beyond our secondary period. In Europe, where intercourse between foreign countries is easy and frequent, and a command of several languages has a recognized commercial value, it is natural that a practical mastery of the strange tongue should seem highly desirable. With us, isolated as we are, a speaking knowledge of French and German has, except for teachers, but little pecuniary worth; and even in the case of a student who has acquired it for pleasure alone, the opportunities for practice are so few that his hardly won accomplishment will soon slip from him. Familiarity with pronunciation and a certain ability to handle foreign constructions are, indeed, essential to a proper appreciation of the literature; but if literary study is not reached, of what avail is the preparatory training? For we must bear in mind that the vast majority of our pupils—those for whom the course should be planned—will not continue their education beyond the high school. It has been pointed out that oral work, besides exercising the organs of speech, arouses interest and fosters a certain alertness of mind, and is therefore valuable for its own sake. We may question, however, whether these benefits make up for the sacrifice of all the æsthetic culture and the intellectual broadening that come only from the reading of good books.

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in the same journal. VI, 324. A second and more extended article by Prof. Edw. H. Magill, of Swarthmore College, Pennsylvania, may be found in Modern Language Notes for February, 1899.

To this criticism the European advocates of the method would surely reply that they believe in abundant reading, after the student has mastered the spoken idiom. It appears, then, that the real fault of their programme, as applied to our conditions, is not so much that its underlying principle is entirely incompatible with our creed as that it calls for much more time than we allot to foreign language. In fact, we may well doubt whether with our three or four hours a week for three or four years our scholars would ever reach the end even of the elementary stage; they certainly would not go beyond it; their acquisition would be only a fragment. If we should wish to introduce this or any other thorough-going method, we should be obliged to increase the importance of French and German in the school curriculum; and such increase is desirable from every point of view. Not only should the pupils who are intending to continue these studies in college receive the best possible preliminary training, but all children who begin the subjects at all should give them time enough to admit of an extended course, conducted according to the most enlightened principles. In order to gain the necessary hours, the foreign language must be taken up earlier, or some other high-school topic must be sacrificed. A few things thoroughly and intelligently done make the best secondary discipline. As long, however, as our present conditions last it is clear that we must give up something. Until we are all willing greatly to lengthen the time given to the linguistic part of our children's education, we shall have to renounce the idea of a full, well-rounded knowledge of French and German, and, selecting the portion of the subject that appears most important for the greatest number, devote ourselves to the

cultivation of that restricted field. Considerations of this nature have led many thoughtful teachers to adopt a mode of instruction that we may call the "reading method."

THE READING METHOD

The title explains itself. The study of texts from the very beginning of the course, abundant practice in translation at sight, leading ultimately to the ability to read the foreign language with ease and without the interposition of English, are the principal features of this programme. Grammar and composition are regarded merely as a help to reading, and are reduced to the essentials; sometimes accidence and syntax are first learned inductively, but oftener a small text-book is used concurrently with translation. Great importance is attached to the use of good English in the renderings. Pronunciation receives scant attention; there is little or no oral exercise.

This method has been much used of late in our schools and colleges, especially in those that have large classes, a short course, and an American teacher. The great advantage of the process is that it quickly enables the student to read French and German literature—not with the complete appreciation that only an all-around command of the language can give, but with the same kind of intelligence and enjoyment with which good classical scholars read Latin. Indirectly, it helps the pupil to form a good style, and to increase the volume and precision of his English vocabulary; it cultivates the taste by dwelling upon delicacies of expression; it exercises the memory through the enforced retention of words and idioms; it trains the linguistic sense by calling attention to the points

of resemblance and difference in various tongues; and the exact fitting of phrase to thought forms an excellent discipline for the judgment.

On the other hand, in addition to the fact that it deals with only one aspect of language, the reading method is lacking in vivacity and in stimulus to the attention; it interests only the more serious pupils. Moreover, the continued use, year after year, of an easy way of teaching—for it is comparatively easy, and requires but little special training—may prove demoralizing to the instructor, dull his appetite for self-improvement, and make him indolent and easily satisfied with his qualifications.

SECTION IV

Method as Related to the Preparation of Teachers

If all our classes were in the hands of born teachers, ideally prepared for their work, advice with respect to method would be quite superfluous. Every teacher would create for himself the method best suited to his class and to his own peculiar gifts. His personality would infuse life and efficacy into any process he would be likely to adopt. But in a profession so widely pursued we can not expect the majority of its followers to show genuine vocation. The most of our teachers are made, and we must see to it that they be as well made as possible. It can not be too strongly urged upon school authorities that if modern-language instruction is to do the good work which it is capable of doing it must be given by thoroughly competent teachers. The committee's investigations show, and it is a pleasure to testify to the fact, that we already have a goodly number of secondary teachers who answer to that

description. Nevertheless, our general standard is still far too low. For some time to come the majority of our teachers will necessarily be guided to a large extent, in their choice of methods, by the consideration of their own competence.

But while it is easy to insist, broadly, upon the importance of adequate preparation for teachers, it is not so easy to define, in exact terms, the minimum of attainment which can be regarded as sufficient. Much will always depend upon personality, upon general alertness of mind and aptitude for teaching. The best of teachers learn with their pupils, and it will sometimes happen that one who knows too little of his subject will teach it better than another who knows more. Nevertheless, it remains broadly true, and should never be forgotten for a moment, that what the teacher most needs is to be a master of his subject. With the sense of all-around mastery come independence of judgment and the right kind of self-assurance. Without this sense the attempt to follow someone else's method, however good the method may be in the hands of its inventor, can never produce the best results.

To be ideally prepared for giving instruction in a modern language, even in a secondary school, one should have, aside from the ability to teach and the general personal culture necessary to secure the respect and attachment of pupils, a thorough practical command of the language to be taught, a solid knowledge of its literature, and a first-hand acquaintance with the foreign life of which the literature is the reflection. To be decently prepared, he should, at least, have read so much in the recent literature of the language that he can read about as easily as he would read matter of the same kind in English. He

should have studied the principal works of the great writers, and should have taken a course in the general history of the literature. He should know thoroughly the grammar of the language in its present form. If he has some knowledge of the historical development of forms, such knowledge will help him in his teaching, especially in the teaching of French to pupils who have studied Latin. He should be able to pronounce the language intelligently and with reasonable accuracy, though he may not have the perfect "accent" of one who is to the manner born. He should be able to write a letter or a short essay in the language without making gross mistakes in grammar or idiom, and to carry on an ordinary conversation in the language without a sense of painful embarrassment. Even this degree of attainment will usually require residence abroad of those for whom English is the mother tongue, unless they have enjoyed exceptional opportunities in this country. In any case, the residence abroad is greatly to be desired.

In insisting that secondary teachers of a modern language should be able to speak the language with at least moderate facility and correctness, the members of the committee are well aware that they set up a standard higher than that which has very generally been deemed sufficient. But it is a standard to which we must come. Many of the best schools have already come to it. Nor need we fear that such a standard will result permanently to the advantage of the foreign-born teacher in the competition for positions. If we leave out of account cases of exceptional individual talent for teaching, the general principle holds good that the best teacher of a foreign language is a person of the same nationality as his pupils

who is thoroughly at home in the language to be taught. The American-born teacher will thus have a substantial advantage over his foreign-born competitor, but he can not afford to be vulnerable in so vital a point as the practical command of the language in which he undertakes to give instruction.

To many of our teachers residence in Europe will probably seem out of the question. Those who, by dint of thrift and sacrifice, contrive to cross the ocean can now enjoy fine opportunities in the way of summer courses at Paris, Geneva, Jena, Marburg, Greifswald, and elsewhere. The others must content themselves for the time being with a somewhat inadequate equipment, the defects of which, however, can be to a great extent remedied by the reading of well-chosen books, by work in American summer schools, and by association with foreigners in this country. It is to be hoped that our colleges and universities will recognize, more largely than they have heretofore recognized, the need of practical courses for teachers of the modern languages.

With respect, now, to the main subject of this section, it is hardly necessary to observe that the teacher who can not himself speak his modern language should not attempt seriously to teach his pupils to speak it. He should not try to work the "natural method," or any private variation thereof; if he does, he will be almost certain to do more harm than good. He may and should provide memory exercises that exhibit natural colloquial forms, but in so doing he should be guided by some good manual, and make that the basis of the class-room work. The native German or Frenchman will naturally think that success will be easy for him in a "conversation" course, but it is

for him to remember that he can accomplish nothing worth while without system; that he must have the proper books; that he can not comprehend his pupils' difficulties unless he knows English well, and that he can never govern his class unless he has a sympathetic understanding of American character. For the "psychological," and still more for the "phonetic" programme, special study is necessary, and no one, foreigner or native, should imagine that he can cope with such a method offhand.

But if the availability and the goodness of the several methods described in the preceding section depend mainly upon the fitness of the teacher, they also depend upon the age of pupils, the probable length of the course, and the size of classes. If the study begins in childhood and the beginner is looking forward to a long and thorough course of the best possible kind, it is obviously the right thing that he devote a large amount of time at first to the acquisition of a faultless pronunciation and an easy command of the colloquial language. He will then have the best possible foundation for literary study. But if he begins later in life and the problem is to realize the maximum of benefit from a limited course, he should devote less time to the colloquial language and proceed more quickly to the study of literature. It is also evident that in classes of considerable size the most efficient colloquial practice can not be given; the pupils may learn to understand the language (and this is of course well worth while) but they will not learn to speak with much facility. If this report were intended to meet ideal conditions, that is, if it were addressed to teachers whose training would permit them to choose freely from the methods that have been described and to combine them with wise discretion, the committee might

be disposed (although in that case, as we have already remarked, advice with regard to method would hardly be needed) to make some such recommendations as the following: For very young children, say up to the age of ten, the "natural" or imitative method of the nurse or the governess, with some help perhaps from the "psychological" method. For a course of six years, beginning, say, at the age of twelve, a combination during the first three years of the "psychological" and "phonetic" methods, accompanied by some study of grammar; after that a more thorough study of grammar, together with the reading and translation of good literature, supplemented by oral practice in the language and written composition. For a four years' course, beginning in the high school, we should recommend a similar procedure, the division between the "psychological-phonetic" and the "reading" method coming, however, somewhat earlier, say, after the first year. In combining the "psychological" and "phonetic" methods the general plan of the former would be followed, while the latter would be imitated in its treatment of pronunciation and, so far at least as French is concerned, in its use of phonetically transcribed texts. For any shorter course we should advise the "reading" method, accompanied, however, by scientific training in pronunciation, drill in the rudiments of grammar, and a moderate amount of oral practice.

Recognizing the somewhat idealistic character of these recommendations, the committee will present further on a scheme of secondary courses, with suggestions relating thereto, which are meant to be adapted to existing conditions. First, however, it is necessary to deal briefly with another subject, or rather with two closely related subjects,

which are more or less involved in any consideration of the modern languages in secondary education.

SECTION V

Modern Languages in the Primary Grades; the Extension of the High-School Course

In a number of American cities modern-language instruction, mainly German, has already been introduced in the primary[1] grades of the public schools, and the propriety and value of such instruction have been warmly debated in the newspapers and in local educational circles. On the one hand, it is urged that in any community where Germans preponderate or constitute even a large minority of the taxpayers they have a right to demand that the German language be taught in the public schools. The reply is made that the primary schools of the United States have an important function to perform in preparing children for life and citizenship in an English-speaking country, and that this mission will best be performed if the English language and no other is made the subject and the medium of instruction. To this it is rejoined that the learning of a foreign language in childhood need not prejudice the learning of English or of any other important subject, that the rudiments are quickly and easily acquired, and that the early beginning is in accordance with sound pedagogical principles. This line of assertion, in turn, is met with the reply that the primary schools have all they can do in teaching the subjects that are of obvious and undeniable use to everybody, and that the smattering of a foreign

[1] We use the word "primary" to denote in a general way all grades below the high school.

language which they can impart serves no educational purpose and is of no practical value in life.

When the issue is thus stated one sees at once that there is a measure of soundness in all these contentions. The committee feel that it would be futile to attempt here an answer to the question whether it is or is not desirable, in the abstract, that a foreign language be taught in the primary grades of our public schools. The question in its politico-social bearings is a very large one, but it is a question which every community must and will decide for itself in view of local conditions, and the wisdom of its decision must abide the test of experience. We believe, however, that experience is already sufficient to enable us to formulate certain general principles which should always be kept in view in the practical management of the matter under consideration.

In the first place, if a foreign language is taken up in the primary grades, it should always be as an optional study. This point seems to require no argument. The value of the study is at best so uncertain, so dependent upon circumstances of one kind or another, that the work should not be made obligatory for anyone.

In the second place, it is not worth while, as a rule, that the study of a foreign language be taken up in the primary grades unless the beginner has at least a prospect and an intention of going on through the secondary school. The reason for this opinion is that what can be acquired of a modern language in the primary grades, even with the best of teaching and under the most favorable conditions, is good for nothing except as a foundation. For while it is true that children learn quickly and easily the rudiments of "conversation" in a foreign tongue, it is also true that

they forget them no less quickly and easily. The children of parents who speak German at home and expect to speak it more or less all their lives, may be taught in the primary school to use the language a little more correctly; but if they leave school at the age of twelve or fourteen, they inevitably drop back into the speech habits of those with whom they associate, and their school training thus becomes, so far as the German language is concerned, a reminiscence of time wasted. The children of parents who speak English at home may get a smattering of German at school; but if they leave school at the age of twelve or fourteen they soon forget all they have learned.

In the third place, if a foreign language is taught in the primary grades, it should be by teachers who handle the language easily and idiomatically. Classes should be as small as possible and there should be at least one exercise on every school day. . Infrequent lessons in large classes amount to nothing. It is important that the teacher know his pupils intimately and be able to adapt his instruction to their individual needs. The general aim should be to familiarize the learner with the vocabulary and phraseology of the spoken language and to teach him to express himself readily and correctly in easy sentences. The free use of objects and pictures is to be recommended.

In what has just been said we have had in view the usual arrangement of work, in accordance with which the secondary or high school is supposed to begin with the ninth grade (the average pupil being then about fourteen years old) and to extend over a period of four years. Grades below the ninth we have classed as primary. But while this is still the typical arrangement for the country at large, school-men have here and there length-

ened the high school by extending it downward; in other words, by making provision that some of the solid disciplinary studies of the secondary period shall begin in the seventh or eighth grade. There appears to be strong argument in favor of this plan. It is urged by thoughtful school-men that our American high school has become congested; that the increased requirements of the colleges and the pressing demands of new subjects for "recognition" have given to the secondary school more work than it can do thoroughly in the traditional allotment of time. When, as sometimes happens, the colleges are blamed for this state of affairs and it is suggested that they reduce their requirements for admission, they are able to reply with much force that present requirements, even where they are highest, are none too high unless we are willing to fall far below the standard of the Old World. The average graduate of an American high school is of about the same age as the average graduate of a German gymnasium, but the latter is further along in his studies and better prepared for higher work. We have therefore to consider the problem of strengthening the preparatory course while recognizing that the ordinary four-year curriculum can bear no further burdens and should, if anything, be simplified. Of this problem the obvious solution is to begin the proper work of the high school at an earlier date. Instead of dividing our educational years into eight primary, four secondary, and seven or eight higher, we should divide them into six primary, six secondary, and six higher.

It is probable then that the six-year high-school course will meet with increasing favor, for the idea is a good one. At the same time we can not expect that the now usual

organization of school work will be changed immediately or even rapidly, and for this reason the model courses to be described below have been drawn up primarily with reference to existing conditions. Our principal object in touching here upon the subject of the six-year secondary curriculum was to prepare the way for an expression of the opinion that, where such extended courses are provided, a modern language can be very advantageously begun in the seventh grade.

Whether Latin or a modern language should come first in a well-ordered course of study is a question upon which teachers differ. It is one of the questions upon which, in the existing state of psychological and pedagogical science, it is just as well not to dogmatize. In fixing the order of studies in any school course, practical considerations of one kind or another will often outweigh general argument. Probably the sanest view of the matter is that it does not make very much difference whether Latin or a modern language precedes, if only the elementary instruction in either case be rightly adapted to the learner's age and mental condition. It is often urged that the discipline afforded by the study of Latin makes the subsequent learning of a modern language easier. This is true, but the converse is no less true. In beginning the serious study of any foreign language there are certain mental habits to be formed, certain faculties to be called into play and exercised. The pupil must learn how to study. He must become familiar with strange forms, and with their equivalent in his own tongue. He must learn what idiom means and how to translate; must learn to observe, compare, and think. For the purpose of this elementary discipline one language is as good as another, if only the teaching be in-

telligent; and the discipline of the first linguistic study makes the second easier. In general, it is safe to assert that the average boy or girl of twelve will take more kindly to French or German than to Latin. The modern language is easier and more interesting. It seems more real and practical. Progress is more rapid. The value of the Latin has to be taken on trust, that of the modern language is more obvious to the juvenile mind. For children of twelve the Latin grammar is a very severe study. It means usually for many months little more than a loading of the memory with paradigms, a blind investment of labor for the sake of a mysterious future profit which the learner can not comprehend. The elementary reading matter is usually dull stuff, devised to illustrate grammar. Up through Cæsar's Commentaries there is almost nothing to touch the feeling, to feed the imagination, or to suggest a real connection with the pupil's own life. It is all a grind; in its time and place, to be sure, a very useful grind. We believe in it heartily. But the question is whether for children of twelve it is not best to break the force of the initial impact with Latin by using a modern language as a buffer.

It may also be remarked, finally, that one who wishes to acquire a modern language thoroughly will always do well to begin in childhood. The later period of youth is distinctly a bad time to begin. In childhood the organs of speech are still in a plastic condition. Good habits are easily formed; bad habits more easily corrected. The mind acts more naively, and the memory is tenacious of whatever interests. Forms of expression are readily mastered as simple facts. Later in life, in proportion as the mind grows stronger, it also grows more rigid. The

habit of analyzing and reasoning interferes more or less with the natural receptivity of the child. The fixation of speech habits in the mother tongue makes it increasingly difficult to acquire even a moderately good pronunciation, and perfection is usually out of the question.

SECTION VI

Proposal of Three National Grades of Preparatory Instruction in the Modern Languages

Thus far this report has not dealt specifically with requirements for admission to college. In accordance with the idea embodied in the resolution referred to in Section I, we have approached our subject from the point of view of the secondary schools. We have endeavored to state and explain the principles which should be kept in view in order to render our school work in French and German as valuable as possible to the learner. We have recognized that the secondary school does not exist solely or even mainly for the sake of its preparatory function; and what we have said would be in the main true, and we hope valuable, even if there were no colleges. Nevertheless the preparatory function of the secondary school is obviously of very great importance. In practice secondary courses are shaped quite largely with reference to college requirements. The school naturally looks to the college as a regulative influence. It turns to the college catalogue, learns what must be done to prepare its pupils for admission, and concludes, not unnaturally, that this is about what ought to be done from an educational point of view. In the absence of any central control of education in the United States this regulative influence of the college is the most

potent agency at our command for creating and maintaining a high standard of secondary teaching. We come, then, to the subject of secondary instruction as related to college requirements.

For the purpose of simplifying the relation between the colleges and the secondary schools and for the purpose of securing greater efficiency and greater uniformity in the work of the schools it is hereby proposed that there be recognized, for the country at large, three grades of preparatory instruction in French and German, to be known as the elementary, the intermediate, and the advanced, and that the colleges be invited to adopt the practice of stating their requirements in terms of the national grades.

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

With respect to the time required, in years and in hours per week, for the satisfactory completion of the work to be outlined below, it should be said that the committee has no thought of imposing upon the schools an inflexible programme. Teachers will continue to make their pro-

grammes in accordance with their own judgment and convenience. The rapidity with which the proposed work can be done will, of course, vary greatly in different schools, with the age and aptitude of pupils, the size of classes, the efficiency of teaching, and according as the beginner of French or German has or has not studied Latin. It makes no small difference whether the modern language is begun in the first year or in the third year of the high-school course. In attempting to draw up model courses, however, the committee obviously had to make some definite assumption with regard to the time of beginning and the number of recitations per week. It was also necessary to provide for the case of the work beginning in the first year, since many of our best schools already have four-year courses in German or French, or both. It is clearly desirable that such courses be made as good as possible, and that they have a recognized place and value in our general scheme of requirements for admission to college.

With regard to the four recitations per week let it be observed that that number has been made the basis of our calculations, not because the committee prefer it to five, or wish to recommend it to the schools instead of five, but because it is believed to be the smallest number that will permit the proper completion of the work proposed, if the work begins in the first year. Where a modern language is begun in the third year of a high school, it may be possible to complete the intermediate course in two years at the rate of five recitations a week, and the elementary course in proportionately less time. Where French is taken up in the last year of the classical preparatory course, it may be possible sometimes to meet the elementary requirement in one year at the rate of five recita-

tions a week. But this will almost never be possible in the case of German, and in general the committee do not recommend one year courses. The attempt to meet the elementary requirement in one year will result usually in a cramming process with neglect of that thorough drill upon the rudiments which is necessary for a good foundation.

In drawing up model courses the committee has had in view the needs and the conditions of the United States at large.[1] The work of the subcommittee charged with the matter was first submitted for criticism and suggestions to some two hundred secondary teachers of known ability and experience. It was then carefully revised in the light of the information and opinions gathered, and finally ran the gauntlet of thorough discussion in the committee of twelve. It is believed to represent the best intelligence of the country; to set a standard which is high, but not too

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[1] In the spring of 1896 representatives of Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Columbia, Cornell, and the University of Pennsylvania met in New York and, in conference with representatives of a number of prominent Eastern preparatory schools, agreed upon a scheme of uniform requirements which has since been accepted by the institutions concerned. The modern-language conference framed an elementary and an advanced requirement in French and in German. The elementary requirement of the New York conference is substantially the same as that proposed by this committee, and their advanced requirement is nearly identical with our intermediate requirement. Slight differences appear in phraseology, in estimates of time required, and in the number of pages suggested for reading. But these differences are insignificant. It is believed therefore that the six prominent institutions which have already made so good a beginning in the unification of entrance requirements will have no difficulty in adapting their statements to the scheme which is here proposed for the country at large.

high, and to be throughout entirely practicable. Teachers who do not find their own ideas perfectly expressed by the scheme will please remember that the committee had to find its way among a multitude of counselors.

SECTION VII

The Elementary Course in German

(*a*) THE AIM OF THE INSTRUCTION

At the end of the elementary course in German the pupil should be able to read at sight, and to translate, if called upon, by way of proving his ability to read, a passage of very easy dialogue or narrative prose, help being given upon unusual words and constructions; to put into German short English sentences taken from the language of every-day life or based upon the text given for translation, and to answer questions upon the rudiments of the grammar as defined below.

(*b*) THE WORK TO BE DONE

During the first year the work should comprise: (1) Careful drill upon pronunciation; (2) the memorizing and frequent repetition of easy colloquial sentences; (3) drill upon the rudiments of grammar, that is, upon the inflection of the articles, of such nouns as belong to the language of every-day life, of adjectives, pronouns, weak verbs, and the more usual strong verbs, also upon the use of the more common prepositions, the simpler uses of the modal auxiliaries, and the elementary rules of syntax and word order; (4) abundant easy exercises designed not

only to fix in mind the forms and principles of grammar, but also to cultivate readiness in the reproduction of natural forms of expression; (5) the reading of from 75 to 100 pages of graduated texts from a reader, with constant practice in translating into German easy variations upon sentences selected from the reading lesson (the teacher giving the English), and in the reproduction from memory of sentences previously read.

During the second year the work should comprise: (1) The reading of from 150 to 200 pages of literature in the form of easy stories and plays; (2) accompanying practice, as before, in the translation into German of easy variations upon the matter read, and also in the off-hand reproduction, sometimes orally and sometimes in writing, of the substance of short and easy selected passages; (3) continued drill upon the rudiments of the grammar, directed to the ends of enabling the pupil, first, to use his knowledge with facility in the formation of sentences, and, secondly, to state his knowledge correctly in the technical language of grammar.

(*c*) SUGGESTIONS TO THE TEACHER

The following paragraphs are submitted in the interest of good teaching, and not in the interest of the most expeditious preparation for college. It is well known that a capable boy or girl can be crammed for a college examination in any subject in much less time than a proper training in the subject would require. Here, however, we are concerned with the proper training. The college entrance examination is admittedly an imperfect test of attainment in a modern language. Where candidates are numerous and the time limited, the examination is neces-

sarily in writing; and then the only available test of the ability to read is the ability to translate, while pronunciation and readiness of speech are not tested at all. It is evident, then, that a good symmetrical training in the secondary school must keep in view more things than are likely to be "required" of the candidate at his examination for admission to college. In what follows we shall take up the more important points that are involved in the teaching of beginners and make some practical suggestions—suggestions that are by no means intended to prescribe a routine, but rather to state and explain guiding principles.

(1) *Pronunciation.*—It is hardly necessary to say that the first matter of importance for the beginner is the learning of a good pronunciation. Drill upon the subject should be kept up steadily and inexorably until right habits are firmly fixed; because wrong habits formed at the outset are very persistent and very difficult to correct. In attempting to imitate his teacher's utterance of the strange German sounds the learner will at first neither hear nor reproduce correctly, but will utter rough approximations of his own. It is necesssary to train both his ear and his vocal organs. In doing this most teachers rely only upon oft-repeated imitations of their own pronunciation; and this is the best reliance, always supposing that the model itself be good. What usually happens, however, is that teachers cease or slacken their drill too soon. They find it dull business. After correcting some faulty utterance a score or two of times, they conclude that the result obtained will "do," that it is the best obtainable, that practice will make perfect—in the future. But the learner, being no longer regularly brought to book for his faults, perpetuates them, and makes no further progress except to

pronounce badly with greater facility. In this way is acquired the slovenly pronunciation with which too many leave school.

The opinion is sometimes expressed that it is not worth while to take great pains in the teaching of pronunciation, since perfection is out of the question. The argument is that American youth will not learn in school, however they may be taught, to pronounce German as Germans pronounce it; and that since they will speak badly anyway, the question of more or less can not greatly matter. But this is not the right attitude. For although one who is not a German will very rarely learn after childhood to use the organs of speech precisely as Germans use them, so that his pronunciation will ring absolutely true, still any boy or girl of average aptitude may by careful attention to the subject acquire a pronunciation so good that it will be pleasing rather than displeasing to a cultivated German ear; just as in the case of Germans learning English, that which is called the foreign "accent" may be reduced to such minute proportions that it does not offend, though it is noticeable. Now this is a result worth working for; but it can only be obtained when the teacher is interested in pronunciation and well-informed with regard to it. And right here comes in the great value of a knowledge of phonetics. Without such knowledge the teacher's only resource is the imitation of himself as model; his own personal habits of utterance become the standard of the class. But his habits may not be the best. If an American, he may have received a faulty training; if a German, he may have dialectic peculiarities which should not be taught to a class. One who knows just how the German sounds are produced, and how they differ from the English sounds

with which they are most apt to be confounded, has a great advantage in teaching pronunciation. If he hears a faulty utterance he will know what is the matter and can correct it in the most effective way. If he knows something of German dialects, of provincial or local peculiarities of pronunciation, of the nature and claims of the so-called standard pronunciation, he will know what "correctness" means and will be able to teach more intelligently. And, what is most important of all, for one who has a scientific interest in pronunciation, the class-room drill upon the subject will not be a dull mechanical routine, but a highly interesting employment. He will himself learn much incidentally, and will make his teaching of pronunciation useful to his pupils, not only for German, but also for English.

It is therefore very much to be desired that teachers of German in the secondary schools be qualified to deal scientifically with the subject of pronunciation. For this purpose it is not at all necessary that they be accomplished phoneticians. A very rudimentary knowledge of general phonetics will suffice. Of greater importance is it to have at hand and to have carefully studied a good treatment of the special problems of German-English phonetics.[1]

[1] Such a treatment can be found in Hempl's German Orthography and Phonology, Boston, 1879, The second "book" of Professor Hempl's work gives, in chapter 1, a sufficient introduction to general phonetics, with bibliography on p. 61; then, in chapter 2, a scientific description of German speech sounds. Chapter 3 discusses such topics as "A standard of pronunciation," "Stage pronunciation," "The best German," "The difference between German and English pronunciation," and, very fully, "The values of the letters." Bibliography, on p. 107. From the works there mentioned we select, as likely to be most useful to the teacher

(2) *The memorizing of colloquial sentences.*—If there is any point upon which progressive teachers of living languages the world over have lately been coming to an agreement, it is that in any course of study making the slightest pretension to thoroughness the proper starting point in teaching is the vocabulary and phraseology of the language as represented in its every-day forms of expression. It is of course possible to learn to read a language with some facility and still not be able to utter a sentence in it intelligently or to understand a sentence uttered by another; in short, without acquiring any feeling for the language in its characteristic modes of expression. Scholars and men of science who find it necessary in their work to read a number of foreign languages can very quickly, by the aid of grammar, dictionary, and translation, reach a point at which they can " make out the sense " or " get the drift" of an article or a pamphlet. But this is not learning the language any more than " picking up " a few tunes on the piano is learning music. Such reading, though better than nothing and useful for certain purposes, is unsatisfactory. In the field of belles-lettres, where so much depends upon style, upon niceties of expression, and the subtle association of ideas, it is extremely

(aside from Professor Hempl's own book): Grandgent's German and English Sounds, Boston, 1892; Brandt's German Grammar (second part), Boston, 1888; Vietor's German Pronunciation, 4th ed., 1890 (Lemcke & Büchner, 812 Broadway, New York, American agents); also Vietor's German essays, Die Aussprache des Schriftdeutschen, 1890, and Wie ist die Aussprache des Deutschen zu lehren? 1893. It is hardly necessary to say that the most widely used school grammars deal very briefly and superficially with the subject of pronunciation and are an insufficient reliance, even when free from positive error.

unsatisfactory. The school, in dealing with languages so important as German and French, should aim at something better. It should aim to be thorough; to begin in the best way and lay a good foundation.

For literary appreciation—that is, for reading of the most profitable kind—one needs before all things a sensitive feeling for the language. One needs the sense of being at home in it. In teaching, this principle should be recognized from the outset. The learner's knowledge is to be made second nature. His faculties and organs must be taught to respond instantly and naturally to the foreign symbols whether they are seen or heard. Idea and form of expression must become so intimately associated that the one suggests the other without any intervening process of ratiocination. To accomplish this, there is no kind of drill so good as the memorizing and frequent repetition of easy colloquial sentences. Such sentences can be given out and learned without any attempt at grammatical analysis and quite in advance of the pupil's grammatical knowledge. To know the meaning of "es thut mir leid" and be able to handle the sentence appropriately, it is not at all necessary that one be able to parse a single one of the words. It is to be borne in mind that psychologically the unit of speech is the sentence or the phrase, and not the individual vocable. Thoughtful teachers sometimes object to this form of drill on the ground that it is mere memory work, that it does not teach the pupil to think or to reason. This, however, is not a valid objection. Such drill does much more than to load the memory. It developes aptitude by making psychological reactions instantaneous; in short, by creating *Sprachgefühl.* Its value

has some analogy to that of the finger-exercises of the incipient pianist.

It is obviously important that what is given out to be learned in this way should consist of nothing but natural, oft-recurring forms of expression. The pupil is to learn how Germans actually say things, and not how they might possibly say something which no one would ever have occasion to say outside the class room. The ideal condition is, of course, that the teacher have such a command of colloquial idiom that he will be able to furnish the necessary materials from the resources of his own knowledge. It will then be best that the pupil's repetitions be elicited by questions addressed to him in German; in other words, that the drill take the form of short dialogues without use of English. But, as we have already intimated, the teacher who does not command the language should not attempt this, but follow a book or note down suitable sentences from his reading of realistic stories and plays. Such sentences may then be given out to be learned and repeated frequently, the teacher giving the thought in English.[1]

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[1] For reasons sufficiently obvious the committee does not undertake to recommend particular American text-books for class use. There are a number of publications from which material more or less suitable can be culled. The test in choosing is whether a sentence represents (1) a natural and (2) a usual or oft-recurring form of expression. A scientific manual of spoken German, on the general lines perhaps of Sweet's Elementarbuch des gesprochenen Englisch, is a desiderandum. Worthy of recommendation for its thorough trustworthiness in respect of idiom, and equally good for German and French, is the German edition of Storm's Dialogues français, i. e. Französische Sprechübungen, Leipzig, 1888.

This is perhaps an appropriate place to say a word upon the subject of memorizing poetry, a kind of drill which is highly thought of and largely practised by many teachers. The argument in its favor generally takes some such form as this: Boys and girls are apt to memorize easily, and they must memorize something; then why not have them memorize gems of poetry and great thoughts of great writers rather than the banalities of ordinary discourse? But this argument is fallacious. The object of the drill in colloquial German is, as we have already remarked, not to load the memory with things supposed to be highly valuable in themselves, but to create an instinctive feeling for the language in its usual and natural modes of expression. Now poetry, as the language of emotion, is a more or less artificial—often a highly artificial—form of expression, and it is better that the natural become lodged in the mind first. The beginner who has learned to recite "*Sah ein Knab ein Röslein stehn, Röslein auf der Heiden,*" is hardly in a better, but rather in a worse, position for learning how a German would ordinarily express that idea. It may further be remarked that in simply hearing recitations of poetry in the class room the teacher can be of little use except to see that his pupils have done their task, which is, to make the best of it, one of his lowest functions; to correct mistakes of pronunciation, and to give points in elocution, if his talent runs in that direction. It is an easy business for him, but it is apt to involve a great waste of valuable time for all except the

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For an excellent theoretical discussion of colloquial German, containing many useful hints to the teacher, we call attention to Wunderlich's Unsere Umgangsprache, Weimar, 1894.

reciter. Finally, it is not to be forgotten that this kind of exercise, if it is felt as an irksome task, may easily create a positive distaste instead of a liking for the gems of poetry. We must remember Lord Byron's pathetic exclamation:

> Then farewell Horace, whom I hated so.

To sum up, we would not be understood as condemning altogether the exercise of memorizing poetry, but we have not thought it of sufficient importance to deserve a place in the scheme of work outlined above. At any rate, it should not be made much of in the early stages. The poems given out for committing to memory should be few and short and selected with reference to their simplicity and naturalness of expression. The teacher who omits the exercise altogether during the first year will make no great mistake. The recitation of well-chosen dialogues, with the parts assigned, is a better exercise, and we believe is usually found more interesting to learners.

(3) *Grammar.*—It is assumed that simple exercises in colloquial German will begin with the very first lesson and take a portion of each recitation period, even when the pupil is learning the alphabet and becoming familiar with the values of the letters. It goes without saying that the sentences learned should occasionally be written down as well as often repeated orally. Practice in writing German from dictation is helpful in learning to spell, and should be kept up for some time. It may, however, be discontinued earlier than in case of French, because German spelling is much easier to learn than French.

Whether the script letters should be learned at the same time with the print letters and regularly used in all written

work is a question upon which opinions differ. On the one hand, it is urged that the script letters are not at all difficult to master, and that the use of them facilitates learning to spell. Such spelling as *musz, müssen, Herz, sitzen,* and others, come more easily in the German than in the Roman script. It is also urged that, as Germans use the script in their ordinary writing, those who are studying the language should learn to use it. The opposing arguments are that there is nothing educational or practically useful about learning to write the German script; that for Americans it is quite sufficient to be able to read it, in case they should some time get a letter written in it; that boys and girls of high-school age have usually formed their hand in English, and that, unless great pains be taken with them at the start—that is, unless the teacher be both able and willing to teach penmanship for its own sake—they are almost sure to learn to write the script in an ugly un-German hand, like nothing ever met with outside the class room. From this it is clear that there is something to be said upon both sides. Upon the whole, the committee are of the opinion that the use of the German script in the schools should not be regarded as a matter of great importance and should never be required at a college examination. Teachers who write it well and are willing to take the time to teach it well may very properly insist upon it. Others will be upon safe ground if they permit the use of the Roman letters in all written work. In that case, however, they should sooner or later give their pupils some practice in reading German handwriting.

It is assumed that learners who are of high-school age will take up the study of grammar after a few preliminary

lessons. But for several weeks the grammar lessons should be short and easy, so as to allow an abundance of time each day for colloquial exercises and drill upon pronunciation. As the course proceeds the study of grammar and the doing of exercises directly related to the study of grammar may properly be allowed to absorb an increasing portion of the time, but the colloquial practice should be kept up. In the teaching of grammar the most important principle to be kept in view is that the grammar is there for the sake of the language and not the language for the sake of the grammar. The recitation of paradigms, rules, and exceptions is always in danger of degenerating into a facile routine in which there is but little profit. The important thing is not that the learner should acquire facility in telling off paradigms, quoting statements, and explaining principles according to the book, but that he should acquire facility in understanding and using the language. The maxim should be: Little theory and much application. It is of small use to be able to state correctly the principle of adjective declension, so long as the pupil, in attempting to apply the principle in a simple case, is obliged to stop and think, to recall his grammar, and perhaps to guess after all. The right forms must be so bred into the blood that they come naturally from tongue and pen. This, of course, requires an endless amount of repetition, which may at times become tedious. But the time spent upon this elementary drill is well spent and tells for good throughout the course. Teachers should not be in too great haste to get to reading good literature.

The first difficulty of practical importance in teaching German grammar relates to the gender and declension of nouns. If the attempt is made to master the gender and

declension of every noun that is met with, either progress will be very slow (as in case of German children learning the mother tongue), or the learner's memory soon becomes overtaxed. Trying to remember everything, he soon ceases to remember anything with absolute confidence. The best way to deal with this difficulty is to concentrate attention from the start upon those nouns that belong to the language of everyday life—the names of familiar objects, relationships, and ideas—to make sure of these and let the others go. A list of such nouns can be made out which need not contain more than, say, 300 words. The pupil who at the end of a two years' course has really learned that number of nouns, so that the right gender and the right plural come to him instantly, has done quite enough. More should not be expected by the college examiner, so far as concerns those nouns the gender and declension of which can not be determined by inspection. It is of course assumed that the candidate will know about nouns in *chen, lein, ei, heit, keit, in, schaft, ung.* Whether he knows any other rules for gender is not very important.

After the inflection of the noun the other grammatical topics that require the most attention are the inflection of the adjective, the forms of the strong verbs and modal auxiliaries, the use of prepositions, and the subject of word order. In dealing with these and the minor difficulties of German grammar it is customary to rely, first, upon grammatical exercises—that is, the translation from German into English and from English into German of collections of sentences devised or selected for the express purpose of illustrating some grammatical point; and, second, upon drill connected with the German reading lesson. Both these resources are good if properly handled, and neither

should be neglected. To do its proper work the grammatical exercise should not be simply worked through once and then dismissed, but reviewed and repeated until the right forms come instantly from tongue and pen. From this it follows that the sentences of the grammatical exercise, no less than those learned in colloquial practice, should represent natural forms of expression—things that Germans say or might say under easily supposable conditions. It used to be thought, and perhaps some teachers and text-book makers still think, that anything grammatical will do for teaching grammar. And so, perhaps, it will; but it is possible to teach the grammar at the expense of the language, and the language is what we are after.

To ask a learner to upset into alleged German such sentences as: "The pupils' coats and shoes are in the maids' hands," or "I give warm clothes and red apples to poor little children," is, to say the least, inexpedient. Instead of a help, it is a hindrance to the acquisition of a sensitive feeling for the language. Rather than exercise his wits upon the translation of such English into such German it were much better that the learner should do no English-German translation whatever, but simply read real German and learn the grammar by observation and appropriate drill. Perceiving rightly that the translation of bad exercises is a waste of time and positively harmful, some teachers have been led to the position that all English-German translation is out of place in a beginner's course. They argue that one should not be expected to translate into a language until he knows something about it, until he has a certain working capital in the way of vocabulary, phraseology, and linguistic feeling; that so long as he must

look up his words in the vocabulary and painfully and faultily piece them together according to his understanding of the grammar, it is better for him to occupy himself with German produced by those who know the language. This reasoning is not altogether unsound, but properly applied it does not lead to the rejection of all English-German translation in the early stages of study. On the contrary, such translation is itself highly useful in acquiring that larger working capital which is desired. All that is necessary is to avoid difficult or independent translation. Throughout the elementary course the English-German translation should consist of little else than easy variations upon a German text already studied. The German text should furnish or suggest substantially all that the learner needs to know, previous acquirements being of course taken into consideration. Here the maxim should be: A great deal of the easy rather than a little of the difficult.

We come now to the subject of drilling upon the reading lesson. There are various kinds of questions that can be asked about a text, but three types are prominent in the practice of teachers. In the first type the questions call for the recitation of paradigms and rules and the explanation of grammatical principles. In the second type the questions call for the translation into German of English sentences based upon the text. In the third the object is to draw the pupil out and induce him to talk about what is said in the text. To illustrate, supposing the text in hand to be *Der See macht eine Bucht ins Land:*

(1) Decline *Der See.* What is the meaning of *die See?* Decline *die See.* Give the principal parts of *macht.* Inflect *macht* in the present indicative active. Give a synop-

sis of its tenses in the indicative, first person singular. Why is the accusative used after *in?* Decline *Land.* What is the difference between *Lande and Länder?*

(2) How would you say in German: The lake is quiet. The sea is quiet. My home is on the lake. I see a ship on the sea. There are many lakes in Switzerland? Give the German for: I made. I have made. I shall make. What are you making? Paper is now made of wood. Would it do to say *eine Bucht im Lande?* How would you say: He is coming to land. I am going into the country. I live in the country. That is the case in all lands except the Netherlands?

(3) *Was macht der See? Welcher See ist gemeint? Wo befindet sich dieser See? Von welchem Lande ist hier die Rede? Waren Sie je in der Schweiz? Was für eine Regierung hat die Schweiz?*

Now, the best teaching will make some use of all these types of drill questions, but more of the second than of the first or third. The objection to an exclusive or even a predominant use of the first is that it teaches the pupil to " rattle off " paradigms and rules, but not to understand or to use the language. Instead of learning to think in German, as the phrase is, he learns to think grammar in the terms of his text-book. Every college examiner is acquainted with the youth who will write *er hat gekommen* and then, on demand, give correctly the rule for the use of the auxiliaries of tense. What is needed in his case is not more practice in repeating the rule, but more practice in writing and saying *er ist gekommen.* The objection to an exclusive use of type 3 is that it does not specifically teach grammar at all. In types 1 and 2 the questions may, of course, be put in German instead of

English. It is to be observed, however, that the German grammatical terms are rather difficult to learn and do not come under the head of "everyday forms of expression." The principal value of grammatical drill conducted in German is to teach the learner to handle the sentence. So far as the vocabulary is concerned he might better be learning something else.

(4) *Reading matter.*—In outlining the work of the elementary course we have recommended that, aside from the German-English exercises of the grammar, the reading matter of the first year consist of graduated texts from a reader. This is the usual practice, and it certainly has some argument in its favor. The advantage of a reader is that it offers variety, introduces the learner to different styles, and leads him gradually from that which is very easy to that which is more difficult. Some teachers, however, prefer to make no use of a reader, but to pass directly from the grammar to complete stories having some literary value. They urge that such reading is more interesting and profitable than the disconnected texts usually found in readers. Others, while approving the use of a reader, will prefer to drop it earlier than our scheme proposes, and to read at least one complete story during the first year. Questions of this kind are not very important; and there are no general principles on which to decide them. Teachers must decide according to the character of their classes. Fortunately there is now no lack of suitable material. We have several very good readers and a large number of *Märchen, Geschichten, Erzählungen,* and *Novellen,* published both separately and in collections, and all annotated for beginners.

In choosing from the mass of literature available for the

second year the aim should be, of course, to find that which is interesting to the young, wholesome, well-written, and not too difficult. It is natural to begin with the fairy stories, or *Märchen*, in which Germany is so prolific, but pupils of high-school age should not be kept too long on a diet of *Märchen*. If, at the end of the elementary course, the pupil is to be able to read easy narrative prose at sight, it is necessary that he have practice in reading different styles. Lively, realistic narrative, with plenty of dialogue, is to be preferred. The German *Märchen* is apt to appear childish to American boys and girls. On the other hand, teachers often complain that the most of the tales furnished by conspiring editors and publishers are more or less mawkish love tales, and they sigh for vigorous stories of adventure with the grand passion left out or made little of. This is a demand which future editors may well keep in view. Meanwhile we must remember that the Germans are a more sentimental people than the Americans, and that one of the objects for which we study German in school is to learn what the Germans are like.

Stories suitable for the elementary course can be selected from the following list:[1] Andersen's *Märchen* and *Bilderbuch ohne Bilder;* Arnold's *Fritz auf Ferien;* Baumbach's *die Nonna* and *Der Schwiegersohn;* Gerstäcker's *Germelshausen;* Heyse's *L'Arrabbiata, Das Mädchen von Treppi,* and *Anfang und Ende;* Hillern's *Höher als die Kirche;* Jensen's *Die braune Erica;* Leander's *Träumereien,* and *Kleine Geschichten;* Seidel's *Märchen;* Stökl's

[1] In all the reading lists the order is alphabetical. It expresses no opinion with regard to the merit of the texts as compared with one another.

Unter dem Christbaum; Storm's *Immensee* and *Geschichten aus der Tonne;* Zschokke's *Der zerbrochene Krug.*

Good plays adapted to the elementary course are much harder to find than good stories. Five-act plays are too long. They require more time than it is advisable to devote to any one text. Among shorter plays the best available are perhaps Benedix's *Der Prozesz, Der Weiberfeind,* and *Günstige Vorzeichen;* Elz's *Er ist nicht eifersüchtig;* Wichert's *An der Majorsecke;* Wilhelmi's *Einer musz heiraten.* It is recommended, however, that not more than one of these plays be read. The narrative style should predominate. A good selection of reading matter for the second year would be Andersen's *Märchen,* or *Bilderbuch,* or Leander's *Träumereien;* to the extent of say forty pages. After that such a story as *Das kalte Herz,* or *Der zerbrochene Krug;* then *Höher als die Kirche,* or *Immensee;* next a good story by Heyse, Baumbach, or Seidel; lastly *Der Prozesz.*

A minor question which sometimes exercises the mind of the teacher is the question of the special vocabulary versus the dictionary. The obvious advantage of the special vocabulary is that it is very much more convenient for the learner. A well-known schoolman in writing to the committee upon this subject, sums up his views in the proposition that "dictionaries are a nuisance." Nor is it easy to find any valid pedagogical objection to the use of a properly prepared special vocabulary. The objection most often urged is that in using a special vocabulary the scholar does not learn, nor try to learn, what the word really means in and of itself, but only what it means in the context where he has found it. It is urged, therefore,

that before he can become independent, and acquire scholarly habits of study, he must emancipate himself from the special vocabulary and learn to use the dictionary. There is some force in this argument, but not much; for what the learner invariably does in using the dictionary is to pick out, from the various meanings given, the particular one that suits his occasion. To the others he pays no attention. When he comes across the word in another sense, he looks it up again. It is thus a saving of time if he have the right meaning, unincumbered by the others, given him in a special vocabulary. Really the whole question is mainly one of saving time. If, in getting his lesson, the learner could have at his elbow someone who would simply tell him the meaning of the word, that would be better still, if he would but remember what he were told. But there is undoubtedly some truth in the principle that what is acquired with difficulty, that is, with exertion and exercise of judgment, is the more likely to be remembered. Meanings that come easily in footnotes are apt to go no less easily. The whole question is one upon which no fixed rules can be laid down. There is no serious objection to the use of special vocabularies throughout the elementary course, provided the right texts are available in editions provided with vocabularies, but the choice of reading matter should not turn primarily upon this consideration. It is best to provide a good course of reading, with variety, interest, and progression, even if, toward the end, the dictionary has to be used.

(5) *Translation into English; sight reading.*—In the majority of schools it would appear that, after the first few months, the study of German consists principally in the translation of German literature into English. Transla-

tion is the exercise which is felt by both teacher and pupil to be the most important, and it is the one, accordingly, which is most insisted upon. It is also the exercise most easily handled. To sit and hold a book while the members of the class translate, one after the other, into class-room English, to correct their more serious blunders, and help them to "get the sense," requires no great amount of preparation, no great expenditure of energy or ingenuity. But while it has its dangers, the profitableness of translation can not be successfully attacked. Whatever may be true of very young children, one who already knows one language will learn another most "naturally," most expeditiously, and most thoroughly by means of comparison with his mother tongue; and this comparison, as was pointed out in a preceding section, is an important instrument of discipline and culture. Moreover, translation is the most effective and the most readily available means of determining whether the sense of a passage is exactly understood. It is the best detective of mental haziness, half-knowledge, and self-deception. At the same time it should not be forgotten that the principal object of study is not to learn to translate, but to learn to read without translating.

How to deal with translation so as to make neither too much nor too little of it, so as to get the good and escape the evil of it, is not a simple problem for the teacher. It is easy to say that good translation should always be insisted on, and that bad English should never be allowed to go uncorrected. As a counsel of perfection, this is no doubt good. The trouble is, however, that really good translation of real literature is an art requiring literary

skill. There must be time for the mental balancing of alternatives, the testing of synonyms, etc. No one can do it offhand. To expect schoolboys or college students to do it in the ordinary routine of class work, is to expect impossibilities. On the other hand, slovenly, incorrect, and unidiomatic translation is worse than a waste of time. The young person who gets into the habit of murdering his mother tongue in cold blood, under the pretense of learning a foreign language, does himself more harm than good. What, then, is to be done? The practical answer would seem to be this: Between the extremes of atrocious English, which should not be endured, and the really good English, which is unattainable, there is a wide belt of what may be called tolerable English; English which is not excellent from a literary point of view, but is at least clear, grammatical, free from gross improprieties in respect to idiom, and reasonably faithful to the meaning of the original. Such tolerable English is all that can be expected in the ordinary routine of the class room. It is, however, desirable that the learner become aware that there is a higher ideal, and that he have some practice in trying to reach it. To this end a passage of German text should occasionally be given out for a carefully prepared written translation, with instructions to take time and make the work just as good as possible. Such translations should then be criticised by the teacher and compared with one another in the class. Attention should be called to the small points of idiom, arrangement, choice of words, turn of phrase, etc., which make up the difference between the tolerable and the excellent. In this way the pupil's literary sense will be cultivated; he will

bcome familiar with the idea of translation as an art, and the effect will be to improve gradually the quality of his ordinary work.

The next question is: How long and to what extent should the routine translation of good German into tolerable English be insisted on in the class room? The answer is: So long as and wherever the teacher is uncertain whether the meaning of the original is understood. If there is complete certainty that the learner can translate his passage of German into tolerable English, it is, as a rule, not worth while to have him do it; the time can be used to better advantage. An exception may be made, of course, in the case of pupils who are for any reason unusually backward in their English, or for such as may be suspected of not preparing their lessons. But for capable pupils who have a right attitude toward their teacher and their work, there presently comes a time when the routine translation in class of what they have previously prepared ceases to be profitable. They learn no new German in the process, and they do not improve their command of English. For A, B, C, and D, who have prepared their lessons and know perfectly well how to translate a given passage, to sit in the class while E actually translates it means a waste of time. When that stage is reached it is time to drop the systematic translation of the entire lesson in class, to call only for the rendering of words or passages that are liable to be misunderstood, and to use the time thus gained in some exercise more profitable than superfluous translation.

One such exercise is reading at sight. Since the general aim in the elementary course is to learn to read very easy narrative prose at sight and not to learn to translate any

specified texts, and since the candidate for admission to college will probably be tested upon some text that he has never studied, it is evident that considerable practice should be given in sight reading. Teachers sometimes object to this exercise on the ground that it encourages guesswork and inaccuracy. But the objection is not valid. The object of the exercise is to increase the learner's vocabulary, to make him feel that he can read German that he has not previously studied and to give him facility in such reading. There is not the slightest objection to his guessing at the meaning of a new word. All our reading is largely a process of divination, and the better we can divine from the context the better we can read. Of course the wrong guesses must be corrected, and the teacher is there for that purpose. It is hardly necessary to say that for sight reading the very easiest texts that can be found should be chosen. Grimm's *Märchen* are well adapted for the earliest experiments, then Meissner's *Aus meiner Welt* or Volkmann's *Kleine Geschichten.*

(6) *Reproductive translation into German.*—It will be observed that the programme of work for the second year of the elementary course provides for practice "in the off-hand reproduction, sometimes orally and sometimes in writing, of the substance of short and easy selected passages." This is what the Germans call "freie Reproduktion," and is one of the most profitable exercises possible. It teaches the pupil to give heed not only to the meaning but to the form in which it is expressed, to put thoughts in German with German as a starting point. The language of the original should, of course, not be memorized verbatim; what is wanted is not an effort of the memory, but an attempt to express thought in German

forms that are remembered in a general way but not remembered exactly. The objection to independent translation from English into German is that for a long time it is necessarily mechanical. The translator has no help except his dictionary and grammar. His translation is mere upsetting. In free reproduction, on the contrary, he instinctively starts from his memory of the original. His thoughts tend to shape themselves in German form. In short, he learns to think in German.

SECTION VIII

The Intermediate Course in German

(*a*) the aim of the instruction

At the end of the intermediate course the pupil should be able to read at sight German prose of ordinary difficulty, whether recent or classical; to put into German a connected passage of simple English, paraphrased from a given text in German; to answer any grammatical questions relating to usual forms and essential principles of the language, including syntax and word formation, and to translate and explain (so far as explanation may be necessary) a passage of classical literature taken from some text previously studied.

(*b*) the work to be done

The work should comprise, in addition to the elementary course, the reading of about 400 pages of moderately difficult prose and poetry, with constant practice in giving, sometimes orally and sometimes in writing, para-

phrases, abstracts, or reproductions from memory of selected portions of the matter read; also grammatical drill upon the less usual strong verbs, the use of articles, cases, auxiliaries of all kinds, tenses and modes (with special reference to the infinitive and subjunctive), and likewise upon word order and word formation.

(*c*) SUGGESTIONS TO THE TEACHER

The intermediate course is supposed to be the elementary course, plus one year's work at the rate of not less than four recitations a week. Suitable reading matter for the third year can be selected from such works as the following: Ebner-Eschenbach's *Die Freiherren von Gemperlein;* Freytag's *Die Journalisten* and *Bilder aus der deutschen Vergangenheit,* for example *Karl der Grosse, Aus den Kreuzzügen, Doktor Luther, Aus dem Staat Friedrichs des Grossen;* Fouqué's *Undine;* Gerstäcker's *Irrfahrten;* Goethe's *Hermann und Dorothea* and *Iphigenie;* Heine's poems and *Reisebilder;* Hoffmann's *Historische Erzählungen;* Lessing's *Minna von Barnhelm;* Meyer's *Gustav Adolph's Page;* Moser's *Der Bibliothekar;* Riehl's *Novellen,* for example, *Burg Neideck, Der Fluch der Schönheit, Der stumme Ratsherr, Das Spielmannskind;* Rosegger's *Waldheimat;* Schiller's *Der Neffe als Onkel, Der Geisterseher, Wilhelm Tell, Die Jungfrau von Orleans, Das Lied von der Glocke, Balladen;* Scheffel's *Der Trompeter von Säkkingen;* Uhland's poems; Wildenbruch's *Das edle Blut.* A good selection would be: (1) one of Riehl's novelettes; (2) one of Freytag's "pictures;" (3) part of *Undine* or *Der Geisterseher;* (4) a short course of reading in lyrics and ballads; (5) a classical play by Schiller, Lessing, or Goethe.

The general principles of teaching set forth in the preceding section apply also to the work of the intermediate course. Translation should be insisted upon so far as necessary, but the aim should be to dispense with it more and more. Every expedient should be employed which will teach the scholar to comprehend and feel the original directly, without the intervention of English. Occasional exercises in preparing very careful written translations should be continued. Practice should be given in reading at sight from authors of moderate difficulty, such as Riehl or Freytag. The "free reproduction" should by all means be kept up. It will be found much more valuable at this stage than independent translation of English into German. In dealing with classical literature thorough literary studies are, of course, not to be expected, but an effort should be made to bring home to the learner the characteristic literary qualities of the text studied, and to give him a correct general idea of the author.

SECTION IX

The Advanced Course in German

(*a*) the aim of the instruction

At the end of the advanced course the student should be able to read, after brief inspection, any German literature of the last one hundred and fifty years that is free from unusual textual difficulties, to put into German a passage of simple English prose, to answer in German questions relating to the lives and works of the great writers studied, and to write in German a short, independent theme upon some assigned topic.

(*b*) THE WORK TO BE DONE

The work of the advanced course (last year) should comprise the reading of about 500 pages of good literature in prose and poetry, reference reading upon the lives and works of the great writers studied, the writing in German of numerous short themes upon assigned subjects, independent translation of English into German.

(*c*) SUGGESTIONS TO THE TEACHER

Suitable reading matter for the last year will be: Freytag's *Soll und Haben;* Fulda's *Der Talisman;* Goethe's dramas (except *Faust*) and prose writings (say extracts from *Werther* and *Dichtung und Wahrheit*); Grillparzer's *Ahnfrau* or *Der Traum ein Leben;* Hauff's *Lichtenstein;* Heine's more difficult prose (for example, *Über Deutschland*); Kleist's *Prinz von Homburg;* Körner's *Zriny;* Lessing's *Emilia Galotti* and prose writings (say extracts from the *Hamburgische Dramaturgie* or *Laokoon*); Scheffel's *Ekkehard;* Schiller's *Wallenstein*, *Maria Stuart*, *Braut von Messina*, and historical prose (say the third book of the *Geschichte des dreissigjahrigen Krieges*); Sudermann's *Johannes;* Tieck's *Genoveva;* Wildenbruch's *Heinrich.*

A good selection from this list would be: (1) A recent novel, such as *Ekkehard* or *Soll und Haben*, read not in its entirety, but in extracts sufficient to give a good idea of the plot, the style, and the characters; (2) *Egmont* or *Götz;* (3) a short course of reading in Goethe's prose (say the *Sesenheim* episode from *Dichtung und Wahrheit*); (4) *Wallenstein's Lager* and *Wallenstein's Tod*, with the third book of the Thirty Years' War; (5) *Emilia Galotti;* (6)

a romantic drama, such as *Genoveva* or *Der Prinz von Homburg*. It is assumed that by the time the fourth year is reached, if the preceding instruction has been what it should be, translation in class can be largely dispensed with and the works read somewhat rapidly. Of course they can not be thoroughly studied, but thorough literary study belongs to the college or the university. It is not sound doctrine for the secondary school that one work studied with the painstaking thoroughness of the professional scholar is worth half a dozen read rapidly. In the secondary school the aim should be to learn to read easily, rapidly, and yet with intelligent, general appreciation, somewhat as an ordinary educated American reads Shakespeare. Such a person in reading Shakespeare will find much that he does not fully understand, archaic phrases, obscure allusions, etc. If he were to work out all these things in the manner of a scholar, and go deeply into the literary, historical, and psychological questions involved in a single one of Shakespeare's great plays, it would take a very long time. Nevertheless, he can read the play intelligently in a few hours. An editor's note helps him quickly over the graver difficulties, and when he is done he has a good general idea of the work, and has been greatly profited by the reading of it.

The other lines of work suggested for the advanced course appear to require no further comment. They explain themselves, and grow naturally out of what has gone before.

SECTION X

The Elementary Course in French

(*a*) the aim of the instruction

At the end of the elementary course the pupil should be able to pronounce French accurately, to read at sight easy French prose, to put into French simple English sentences taken from the language of everyday life, or based upon a portion of the French text read, and to answer questions on the rudiments of the grammar as defined below.

(*b*) the work to be done

During the first year the work should comprise: (1) Careful drill in pronunciation; (2) the rudiments of grammar, including the inflection of the regular and the more common irregular verbs, the plural of nouns, the inflection of adjectives, participles, and pronouns; the use of personal pronouns, common adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions; the order of words in the sentence, and the elementary rules of syntax; (3) abundant easy exercises, designed not only to fix in the memory the forms and principles of grammar, but also to cultivate readiness in the reproduction of natural forms of expression; (4) the reading of from 100 to 175 duodecimo pages of graduated texts, with constant practice in translating into French easy variations of the sentences read (the teacher giving the English), and in reproducing from memory sentences previously read; (5) writing French from dictation.

During the second year the work should comprise: (1)

The reading of from 250 to 400 pages of easy modern prose in the form of stories, plays, or historical or biographical sketches; (2) constant practice, as in the previous year, in translating into French easy variations upon the texts read; (3) frequent abstracts, sometimes oral and sometimes written, of portions of the text already read; (4) writing French from dictation; (5) continued drill upon the rudiments of grammar, with constant application in the construction of sentences; (6) mastery of the forms and use of pronouns, pronominal adjectives, of all but the rare irregular verb forms, and of the simpler uses of the conditional and subjunctive.

Suitable texts for the second year are: About's *Le roi des montagnes,* Bruno's *Le tour de la France,* Daudet's easier short tales, De la Bédollière's *La Mère Michel et son chat,* Erckmann-Chatrian's stories, Foa's *Contes biographiques* and *Le petit Robinson de Paris,* Foncin's *Le pays de France,* Labiche and Martin's *La poudre aux yeux* and *Le voyage de M. Perrichon,* Legouvé and Labiche's *La cigale chez les fourmis,* Malot's *Sans famille,* Mairet's *La tâche du petit Pierre,* Merimée's *Colomba,* extracts from Michelet, Sarcey's *Le siège de Paris,* Verne's stories.

(*c*) SUGGESTIONS TO THE TEACHER

The suggestions already offered upon the teaching of elementary German are, in the main, equally applicable to the teaching of elementary French. While each language has its own peculiar difficulties that require special attention from the teacher, the general principles that should regulate the work are the same for both. To avoid needless repetition we refer the reader back to what is said in Section VII, *c,* and content ourselves here with adding

a few further observations which may be regarded as supplementary.

The educational value of the study of French in cultivating habits of careful discrimination, of mental alertness, of clear statement, must never be lost from view, and the expediency of an exercise must often be determined by its utility in attaining these ends. The knowledge gained in the secondary school alone can rarely be of immediate commercial value, but it should be a most serviceable foundation for later acquirements, and the advocates of oral methods may fairly lay some stress on this consideration. The demand for more spoken French in the class room rests chiefly, however, on other grounds, which may be summarized as follows:

(1) Tongue and ear are most efficient aids to the memory, and he who depends on eye alone deprives himself of indispensable allies.

(2) Oral work gives vivacity to the class, stimulates the pupil by active participation, and encourages him by making him feel that he is gaining a practical command of the language.

(3) In reproducing French sentences several can be spoken in the time needed to write one.

(4) The hearer is compelled to grasp the sentence as a whole, while the reader is apt to dwell on separate words, distorting and often reversing the sense, which can only be obtained by making the sentence the unit of thought and interpreting each word in the light of its relation to its fellows.

(5) The rapidity of speech also conduces to grasping thought directly from the French with no intermediate English. Many readers really read only the English into

which, more or less laboriously, they change the French words. It is needless to dwell on the fact that such readers get their entire thought from a translation, usually a very bad one, and can never have any exact perception of literary excellence in French nor distinguish shades of meaning different from those to which they have been accustomed in English. It is hard to see how such a one can have any vivid conception of a lyric, an oration, or a dialogue; nor can he understand how, when translation is required, the proper order is French-thought-English, and not French-English, with the thought last or never.

On the other hand, that time may be economically used, rambling, aimless talking must not be tolerated in the class room; and a teacher who does not possess a good pronunciation and a ready command of the language generally does far more harm than good by practising on his pupils. Whatever recommendations the committee has made as to oral work apply only to those teachers who can speak French well.

Especially with beginners should the French spoken be accurately pronounced. Faults of pronunciation once fixed are very difficult to eradicate. In some places French has been introduced into grades below the high school, and the classes intrusted to teachers unable to pronounce well. Irreparable injury has thus been done. The utmost pains must be taken at the beginning, especially with the vowels; and the separate sounds, and words containing them, should be pronounced many times by the teacher and repeated by the pupil. For a long time every new word should thus be treated, and unless a phonetic text is used the pupil should always hear a new word before he tries to pronounce it.

Careful memorizing and frequent repetition of a few lines of simple prose are helpful and furnish a standard of pronunciation to which new words may be referred. Both for this and for mastering colloquial and idiomatic expressions, word order, and grammatical forms, it is advised that a small amount of French, preferably simple prose, be carefully memorized the first year. Later, selections may be made for their literary interest.

Most teachers know how they prefer to teach the rudiments of grammar in a given class. We may remark, however, that it is not for the secondary school to spend time over the many pages of exceptions, peculiarities in gender and number, idioms that one rarely sees and never thinks of using, and grammatical puzzles for which each learned grammarian has a different solution, that form so large a part of some grammars. The great universals, however (the regular and the common irregular verbs; negative and interrogative variations; the common use and meaning of moods and tenses; the personal pronouns and their position; the general principles governing the agreement of adjectives, pronouns, and participles; the partitive constructions; the possessives, demonstratives, interrogatives, and relatives; the most common adverbs, conjunctions, and prepositions), should all be thoroughly understood by the end of the second year of high-school study, and subsequent study should give considerable facility in using them.

The verb seems most formidable; but when it is perceived that most forms of all verbs may be treated as identically derived from the "primitive tenses," the difficulties appear less numerous, and when the principle of stem differentiation under the influence of tonic accent,

persisting in the older and more common verbs, is a little understoood, the number of really unique forms is inconsiderable.

Translating into English should mean giving in well-chosen language the exact thought and spirit of the original. Thus understood, it is extremely difficult and should never be attempted by the pupil before the meaning of the original is clear to him. It is then rather an exercise in English than in French. Nothing should be accepted as English which is not English. The teacher who complacently listens while a pupil turns good French into bad English is, to put it mildly, not doing his duty. Translating into English is often the most rapid means of ascertaining whether the pupil has correctly understood the French read, but a few well-chosen questions asked and answered in French, or an abstract in the same language, is often equally effective as a test, and far better as training in French.

Just as English should be English, French should be French and merely using French words and conforming to grammatical rules do not make a sentence French. At first, sentences formed by pupils should exactly follow French model sentences, being either verbatim reproductions or differing only in simple and immaterial verbal changes. Not until the pupil, by much assimilation of French models, has become imbued with the form and spirit of the language, can he be safely left to his own invention. In choosing reading matter, the tendency is to select something too hard. The teacher adopts a book because it is world-renowned, because it interests him personally, because it teaches a valuable lesson, moral or historical. While all pedagogical roads should lead to the

Rome of a broad culture, the attempt to teach literature, æsthetics, history or morality from a work in which linguistic difficulties dismay the pupil and engross his attention, can only end in making him detest both the book and its lessons. The beginner in French can be taught these things best in the vernacular; while searching a dictionary to discover whether *fut* comes from *faire* or from *falloir*, he has little leisure to think of the relative merits of literary schools. Give him at first the easiest reading attainable, remembering that simple language does not mean infantile conceptions nor vice versa. Entertain no thought of teaching literature until the pupil is quite familiar with ordinary prose and can read page after page of the text assigned with no great need of grammar or dictionary. The classics of dramatic literature may very properly be postponed until the fourth year, and we do not consider them always desirable even then; but a few have been given among texts suitable for the third year in the hope that these rather than others will be selected by teachers who, for reasons of their own, choose to read something of the kind at this stage of the course.

The reading lists are meant to be illustrative simply not exhaustive. Other texts equally good might no doubt be mentioned under each head. The answers to the committee's circulars indicate clearly that teachers would not welcome a narrow range of prescribed reading, such as teachers of Latin have in their Cæsar, Cicero, and Virgil. A definite curriculum of that kind would no doubt have its advantages, but in the case of the modern languages it is not practicable and, upon the whole, not desirable. The disadvantages would far outweigh the advantages. The mass of available literature is so great, the preferences

of teachers and the needs of classes so divergent, that the only safe course is to leave a large latitude of choice. This being so, it has seemed best merely to give examples of the kind of reading appropriate to each year.

SECTION XI

The Intermediate Course in French

(*a*) THE AIM OF THE INSTRUCTION

At the end of the intermediate course the pupil should be able to read at sight ordinary French prose or simple poetry, to translate into French a connected passage of English based on the text read, and to answer questions involving a more thorough knowledge of syntax than is expected in the elementary course.

(*b*) THE WORK TO BE DONE

This should comprise the reading of from 400 to 600 pages of French of ordinary difficulty, a portion to be in the dramatic form; constant practice in giving French paraphrases, abstracts, or reproductions from memory of selected portions of the matter read; the study of a grammar of moderate completeness; writing from dictation.

Suitable texts are: About's stories; Augier and Sandeau's *Le Gendre de M. Poirier;* Béranger's poems; Corneille's *Le Cid and Horace;* Coppée's poems; Daudet's *La belle-Nivernaise;* La Brète's *Mon Oncle et mon curé;* Madame de Sévigné's letters; Hugo's *Hernani* and *La Chute;* Labiche's plays; Loti's *Pêcheur d'Islande;* Mignet's historical writings; Molière's *L'Avare* and *Le Bourgeois gentilhomme;* Racine's *Athalie, Andromaque,* and

Esther; George Sand's plays and stories; Sandeau's *Mademoiselle de la Seiglière;* Scribe's plays; Thierry's *Récits des Temps mérovingiens;* Thiers's *L'Expédition de Bonaparte en Egypte;* Vigny's *La canne de jonc;* Voltaire's historical writings.

SECTION XII

The Advanced Course in French

(*a*) the aim of the instruction

At the end of the advanced course the pupil should be able to read at sight, with the help of a vocabulary of special or technical expressions, difficult French not earlier than that of the seventeenth century; to write in French a short essay on some simple subject connected with the works read; to put into French a passage of easy English prose, and to carry on a simple conversation in French.

(*b*) the work to be done

This should comprise the reading of from 600 to 1,000 pages of standard French, classical and modern, only difficult passages being explained in the class; the writing of numerous short themes in French; the study of syntax.

Suitable reading matter will be: Beaumarchais's *Barbier de Séville;* Corneille's dramas; the elder Dumas's prose writings; the younger Dumas's *La Question d'argent;* Hugo's *Ruy Blas,* lyrics, and prose writings; La Fontaine's fables; Lamartine's *Graziella;* Marivaux's plays; Molière's plays; Musset's plays and poems; Pellissier's *Mouvement littéraire au XIXe siècle;* Renan's *Souvenirs d'enfance et de jeunesse;* Rousseau's writings; Sainte-

Beuve's essays; Taine's *Origines de la France contemporaine;* Voltaire's writings; selections from Zola, Maupassant, and Balzac.

SECTION XIII

Specimen Examination Papers for Admission to College

The complaint is sometimes heard from teachers in the secondary schools—and investigation shows it to be not altogether groundless—that even at colleges having the same or very similar requirements for admission the entrance examinations are apt to differ not a little in respect to difficulty and in respect to the general character of the questions asked. To a certain extent this lack of uniformity is inevitable. With the best intentions examiners will differ more or less in their estimate of difficulty and in their choice of test questions. Some will prefer to set a more difficult paper and mark liberally; others to set an easier paper and mark more closely. The only obvious way to bring about uniformity in the papers set would be to intrust the preparation of them each year to a central committee or bureau (say of the Modern Language Association), which should furnish them on demand, in sealed packages and at a fixed rate, to such colleges as might wish to receive them. Such a plan would clearly have much in its favor. Under its operation there would be no room for criticism of particular colleges. The papers would presumably be prepared with very great care; they would improve in the light of criticism, would furnish teachers with a pattern to work by, and so could hardly fail to make for greater excellence and uniformity

in the work of our secondary schools. The feasibility of such a plan would depend largely upon the attitude of the colleges, and whether it would work well in practice could only be determined by trial. Difficulties of one kind and another would no doubt arise, but they do not appear in advance to be insuperable. At any rate, the plan seems worthy of serious consideration.

Meanwhile, without wishing to imply an exclusive preference for a written as opposed to an oral test (the best plan, wherever practicable, is undoubtedly a combination of the two), the committee have thought it appropriate to close this report with a series of papers designed to illustrate in a general way the kind of test which, in our opinion, the candidate for admission to college may reasonably be expected to pass upon completing any of the courses above described. The papers are by no means offered as perfect models for imitation, but as an approximate indication of what, in our judgment, the college entrance examination should be. The time required is estimated in each case at about two hours. Unless the contrary is expressly stated, the texts are not supposed to have been previously studied by the candidate.

A.—ELEMENTARY FRENCH

I. Translate into English:

(a) Lui, penché sur sa chaise, regardait dans la cheminée, les yeux fixes. Et tout à coup, comme on se taisait, il se tourna de mon côté et me dit d'un ton de bonne humeur:

Voici bientôt le printemps, monsieur Florence, nous ferons encore plus d'un bon tour dans la montagne; j'espère que cette année vous viendrez plus souvent, car vous avez beau dire, vous aimez ce pays autant que moi . . .

He! je ne dis pas le contraire, Georges; mais à ton âge, dans ta

position . . . Enfin laissons cela . . . Et puisque tu restes, eh bien, oui, tu as raison, nous irons plus souvent nous promener ensemble dans la montagne; je suis toujours content d'être avec toi.

A la bonne heure, dit-il en riant, voilà ce qui s'appelle parler.

Et durant plus d'une demi-heure, la conversation roula sur les fleurs de nos montagnes, sur la belle vallée de la Sarre-Rouge, etc. On aurait cru que rien d'extraordinaire ne s'était dit.—ERCKMANN-CHATRIAN.

(b) Le temps était sombre, il tombait une petite pluie de brouillard qui épaississait encore l'obscurité, les becs de gaz brûlaient mal, et leur lumière, réfléchie par les flaques d'eau, éclairait la rue déserte d'une façon incertaine et changeante. Le jeune homme marchait rapidement, son parapluie baissé en avant pour s'abriter de la pluie qui lui frappait dans la figure. Tout à coup, sans qu'il les eût vus venir ou sortir d'une embrasure de porte, il se trouva en face de deux hommes et, surpris de cette brusque apparition, il sauta de côté par un mouvement instinctif et nerveux. Il était à ce moment à une centaine de mètres de chez lui, à l'encoignure d'une ruelle qui descend vers la rue de Charenton.—MALOT.

(c) Un jeune homme plein de passions, assis sur la bouche d'un volcan, et pleurant sur les mortels dont à peine il voyait à ses pieds les demeures, n'est sans doute, ô vieillards! qu'un objet digne de votre pitié; mais quoi que vous puissiez penser de René, ce tableau vous offre l'image de son caractère et de son existence: c'est ainsi que toute ma vie j'ai eu devant les yeux une création à la fois immense et imperceptible, et un abîme ouvert à mes côtés.—CHATEAUBRIAND.

II. (*a*) Write the five principal parts of the three verbs (the forms here given occur in I, *b*): *vus, sortir, descend.*

(*b*) Write a synopsis of the conjugation (first person singular of each tense) of *se réjouir* and *savoir.*

(*c*) Write the inflection of: the present indicative of *boire* and *faire;* the future of *pouvoir;* the present subjunctive of *prendre.*

(*d*) Write the forms of the demonstrative pronouns.

(*e*) In what ways may the use of the passive voice be avoided in French?

III. Translate into English:

(a) Here is the pen, shall I send it to her? No; do not send it to her; give it to me.

(b) Cats and dogs are domestic animals.

(c) You must give them some white bread and good coffee, if they have none.

(d) The old man is very well this evening, although he has worked all day.

(e) We have just searched for your gloves, but we do not find them in the room where you left them a quarter of an hour ago.

(f) Why do we weep for mortals whose life and character we scarcely know? We always have them before our eyes. Whatever we may think of them, they are surely worthy of our pity. (See I, *c.*)

B.—INTERMEDIATE FRENCH

I. Translate into English:

(a) Nulle part, à aucune époque de ma vie, je n'ai vécu aussi complètement seul. La maison était loin de la route, dans les terres, écartée même de la ferme dépendante dont les bruits ne m'arrivaient pas. Deux fois par jour, la femme du fermier me servait mon repas, à un bout de la vaste salle à manger dont toutes les fenêtres, moins une, tenaient leur volets clos. Cette Provençale noire, le nez écrasé comme un Cafre, ne comprenant pas quelle étrange besogne m'avait amené à la campagne en plein hiver, gardait de moi une méfiance et une terreur, posait les plats à la hâte, se sauvait sans un mot, en évitant de tourner la tête. Et c'est le seul visage que j'aie vu pendant cette existence, distraite uniquement, vers le soir, par une promenade dans une allée de hauts platanes, à la tristesse d'un soleil froid et rouge dont les grenouilles saluaient le coucher hâtif de leurs discordantes clameurs.—DAUDET.

(b) Amis, loin de la ville,
Loin des palais de roi,
Loin de la cour servile,
Loin de la foule vile,
Trouvez-moi, trouvez-moi,

Aux champs où l'âme oisive
Se recueille en rêvant;
Sur une obscure rive
Où du monde n'arrive
Ni le flot, ni le vent,

Quelque asile sauvage,
Quelque abri d'autrefois,
Un port sur le rivage,
Un nid sous le feuillage,
Un manoir dans les bois!

Bien calme, bien dormant,
Trouvez-le moi bien sombre,
Couvert d'arbres sans nombre,
Dans le silence et l'ombre
Caché profondément!

—V. Hugo.

(c) Denise. Fernand?

Fernand. Qu'est-ce que tu veux?

Denise. Où as-tu mis le livre que tu as été chercher pour mademoiselle de Bardannes?

Fernand. Là, sur la table. Est-ce qu'elle est déjà prête?

Denise. Pas encore, mais elle achève de s'habiller. *Elle prend le livre sur la table.*

André, *entrant, à Denise.* Je n'ai pas pu vous demander tout à l'heure, devant tout ce monde, mademoiselle, si vous êtes tout à fait remise de votre indisposition d'hier qui vous a empêchée de diner avec les amis qui me sont arrivés, dont deux sont déjà des vótres. J'espère que ce soir j'aurai le plaisir et l'honneur de vous voir à notre table, ainsi que monsieur et madame Brissot.

Denise. Oui, monsieur, ma mère m'a déjà fait part de votre aimable invitation.

Fernand, *à André.* Et moi, je vais monter un peu d'avance le cheval de ta sœur pour le bien mettre à sa main; montes-tu avec nous?

André. Non, nous avons une inspection à faire avec M. Thouvenin.

Fernand. A tantôt, alors.

II. (*a*) Write a synopsis, in the first person singular, including infinitive, participles, and imperative singular, of the five verbs (see I, *a*): *vécu, tenaient, comprenant, amené, vu.*

(*b*) What are the general principles governing the use of the indicative, conditional, and subjunctive moods?

III. Translate into French:

Tell me, what has kept you from selling that old house, the shutters of which always remain closed? It is quite alone; at night one hears strange noises in it; and little boys who have to pass near it run away without looking at it. I am sorry you did not sell it to M. André when you sold him your farm and your brother's. You will do well to accept what M. André has offered you for it; and I wish you to go and see him this very evening.

C.—ADVANCED FRENCH

I. Translate into English:

(a) Tous ces dons sont communs aux orateurs; on les retrouve avec des proportions et des degrés différents chez des hommes comme Cicéron et Tite-Live, comme Bourdaloue et Bossuet, comme Fox et Burke. Ces beaux et solides esprits forment une famille naturelle, et les uns comme les autres ont pour trait principal l'habitude et le talent de passer des idées particulières aux idées générales, avec ordre et avec suite, comme on monte un escalier en posant le pied tour à tour sur chaque degré. L'inconvénient de cet art, c'est l'emploi du lieu commun. Les hommes qui le pratiquent ne peignent pas les objets avec précision, ils tombent aisément dans la rhétorique vague. Ils ont en main des développements tout faits, sorte d'échelles portatives qui s'appliquent également bien sur les deux faces contraires de la même question et de toute question.—TAINE.

(b) Les règles générales ne sont que des expédients mesquins pour suppléer à l'absence du grand sens moral, qui suffit à lui seul pour révéler en toute occasion à l'homme ce qui est le plus beau. C'est vouloir suppléer par des instructions préparées d'avance à la spontanéité intime. La variété des cas déjoue sans cesse toutes les prévisions. Rien, rien ne remplace l'âme: aucun renseignement ne saurait suppléer chez l'homme à l'inspiration de sa nature. —RENAN.

(c) Phèdre, si ton chasseur avait autant de charmes
Qu'en donne à son visage un si docte pinceau,
Ta passion fut juste et mérite des larmes
Pour plaindre le malheur qui le met au tombeau.

Et si tu parus lors avec autant de grâce
Qu'en ces vers éclatants qui te rendent le jour,
Estime qui voudra son courage de glace,
Sa froideur fut un crime, et non pas ton amour.

Aussi, quoi qu'on ait dit du courroux de Thésée,
Sa mort n'est pas l'effet de son ressentiment,
Mais les Dieux l'ont puni pour t'avoir méprisée,
Et fait de son trépas un juste châtiment.

—CORNEILLE.

(d) Du Dieu qui nous créa la clémence infinie,
Pour adoucir les maux de cette courte vie,
A placé parmi nous deux êtres bienfaisants,
De la terre à jamais aimables habitants,
Soutiens dans les travaux, trésors dans l'indigence,
L'un est le doux sommeil, et l'autre est l'espérance:
L'un, quand l'homme accablé sent de son faible corps
Les organes vaincus sans force et sans ressorts,
Vient par un calme heureux secourir la nature
Et lui porter l'oubli des peines qu'elle endure;
L'autre anime nos cœurs, enflamme nos désirs,
Et même en nous trompant, donne de vrais plaisirs;
Mais aux mortels chéris à qui le ciel l'envoie
Elle n'inspire point une infidèle joie;
Elle apporte de Dieu la promesse et l'appui;
Elle est inébranlable, et pure comme lui.

—VOLTAIRE.

II. (*a*) Explain the two cases of subjunctive that occur in I (*c*).

(*b*) Point out two cases of poetic inversion in I (*d*).

(*c*) Define *amiable* as used in classic poetry and as used in modern prose.

III. Write fifteen or twenty lines of French about the author of one of the preceding selections, or about one of the persons mentioned in I (*a*).

IV. Translate into French:

The following day, at three o'clock in the afternoon, they came to Surgères. The cardinal was waiting there for Louis XIII. The minister and the King exchanged many affectionate greetings, and congratulated each other on the lucky chance that had rid France of the relentless enemy who was stirring up Europe against her. Thereupon the cardinal, having been informed by Rochefort that D'Artagnan had been arrested, and being eager to see him, took leave of the King, and returned to the house he occupied, near the bridge of La Pierre. There he found D'Artagnan standing without a sword before the door, and the three guardsmen armed.

D.—ELEMENTARY GERMAN

I. Translate into English:

(a) Ich folgte sogleich dem Boten, und er führte mich in ein kleines Zimmer, das seiner schlechten Einrichtung[1] nach zu den billigsten des Gasthauses gehören muszte. Auf einem Bette lag eine schöne, junge Frau mit geschlossenen Augen und totenbleichen,[2] aber edlen und feinen Zügen. Ein Dienstmädchen war mitleidig um sie bemüht,[3] und neben ihr im Bette sasz ein etwa dreijähriges, blondlockiges Bübchen, jämmerlich[4] weinend und seine Mutter mit den süszesten Namen rufend und flehentlich[5] bittend, sie möchte doch die Augen aufmachen und ihn wieder lieb haben. Ich hob den kleinen Burschen vom Bett herunter und setzte ihn auf den Boden nieder. Er blieb auch ruhig sitzen, seine groszen, blauen Augen unverwandt[6] auf die Mutter gerichtet. Meine Bemühungen, deise wieder zum Bewusztsein[7] zu bringen, wurden bald mit Erfolg belohnt. Die Frau atmete schwer und schlug die Augen auf, aber sie war zu schwach um auf meine

Fragen vernehmlich[8] antworten zu können.—*Adapted from* HELENE STÖKL.

[1] Einrichtung, *equipment, furnishings.* [2] Bleich, *pale.* [3] Bemüht, *occupied.* [4] Jämmerlich, *piteously.* [5] Flehentlich, *imploringly.* [6] Unverwandt, *incessantly.* [7] Bewusztsein, *consciousness.* [8] Vernehmlich, *audibly.*

(b) Waldgegend. Vorn rechts ein altertümliches[1] *Gebäude; vor demselben ein Tisch mit Stühlen und einer Bank, unter einem Baume; links ein Thor; im Hintergrunde eine Mauer. Vor derselben eine Anhöhe.*[2]

[1] Altertümlich, *ancient-looking.* [2] Anhöhe, *elevation.*

HEDWIG, *singt.* Wenn ich ein Vöglein wär'
Und auch zwei Flüglein hätt',

URSULA, *kommt mit Frühstück, das sie auf den Tisch stellt.* Du bist ja schon früh bei der Hand, mein Kind.

HEDWIG. Sagst du nicht immer: Morgenstund' hat Gold im Mund?

URSULA. Das ist schon recht, dasz du mit der Lerche auffliegst, aber die Vögel, die zu früh singen, holt am Abend die Katze.

HEDWIG. Soll ich eine Lerche sein, dann musz ich auch mein Lied für mich haben.

URSULA. Das Lied paszt nur nicht an diesen Ort.

HEDWIG. Aber es paszt zu meinem Herzen. Ja, alte Ursula, ich wünschte, dasz ich ein Vöglein wär', und auch zwei Flügel hätt'.

URSULA. Und wo sollte es dann hinaus?

HEDWIG. Weit, weit weg! Uber die Mauer, über die Bäume, über den Wald, über das Feld—in die ferne, schöne Gotteswelt! —KÖNIGSWINTER.

II. (*a*) Give the nominative and genitive singular (with the definite article) and the nominative plural of *Boten, Füsze, Zimmer, Einrichtung, Hauses, Bette, Frau, Auge, Zügen, Mutter, Fragen, Gestalt.*

(*b*) Decline throughout the German phrases meaning *the new house, my dear friend.*

(*c*) Give the principal parts of *muszte, lag, geschlossen, rufend, bittend, möchte, aufmachen, hob herunter, blieb, sitzen, bringen, schlug auf, können.*

(*d*) Give the third person singular, of each tense in the indicative mode, of *bittend, blieb, schlug auf.*

(*e*) What case is governed by each of the prepositions: *Auf, aus, bei, durch, für, in, mit, über, um, von, wegen, zu.*

III. Translate into German:

(a) Who is that old gentleman with the white beard?[1] Surely I have seen him somewhere.[2]

(b) So this is your new house. What a lovely view[3] from this window! But I do not see the old castle[4] of which you told me in your letter.

(c) He has lived two whole years in Germany, and has just returned. He speaks German pretty well, but does not seem to have read much.

(d) I will do the best I can, but you must not expect too much. Perhaps it would be better if you should go to him yourself.

(e) Come now, Hedwig, and eat your breakfast. You are not a bird and can not fly. And, after all,[5] is it not better to be a pretty girl than a stupid[6] bird?

[1] Beard, *der Bart.* [2] Somewhere, *irgendwo.* [3] View, *die Aussicht.* [4] Castle, *das Schloss.* [5] After all, *am Ende.* [6] Stupid, *dumm.*

E.—INTERMEDIATE GERMAN

I. Translate into English:

(a) Die Wohnungen in den Bädern von L. sind entweder unten in einem Dorf, das von hohen Bergen umschlossen ist, oder sie liegen auf einem dieser Berge selbst, unfern der Hauptquelle, wo eine pittoreske Häusergruppe in das reizende Thal hinabschaut. Einige aber liegen auch einzeln zerstreut an den Bergesabhängen, und man musz mühsam hinaufkommen durch Weinreben, Myrtengesträuch, Lorbeerbüsche und andere vornehme Blumen und

Pflanzen, ein wildes Paradies. Ich habe nie ein reizenderes Thal gesehen, besonders wenn man von der Terasse des oberen Bades, wo die ernstgrünen Cypressen stehen, ins Dorf hinabschaut. Man sieht dort die Brücke, die über ein Flüsschen führt, welches L. heiszt, und, das Dorf in zwei Teile durchschneidend, ein Geräusch hervorbringt, als wolle es die angenehmsten Dinge sagen, und könne vor dem allseitig plaudernden Echo nicht zu Worte kommen.—HEINE.

(b) Bernhard schritt durch enge Gassen nach dem Markte, er fand die Straszen voll von geschäftigen Menschen, die den Fremdling neugierig und forschend ansahen, viele unter ihnen in mangelhafter Bekleidung, mit bleichen und vergrämten Gesichtern. Auch die Häuser waren mit Einliegern[1] überfüllt, noch in den Dachfenstern guckten Kinderköpfe und hing die Wäsche armer Leute. Aus den engen Höfen hörte er Gebrüll der Rinder und neben den Hunden liefen grunzende Schweine vor den Hausthüren. Denn viele Landleute waren nach der Stadt geflüchtet und hausten mit ihrem Vieh gedrängt in jämmerlichen Wohnungen. Auch der Marktplatz war mit Bretterbuden und Leinwandzelten[2] besetzt, an welchen armselige Frauen wuschen und kochten und halbnackte Kinder auf den Steinen spielten.—FREYTAG.

[1] Einlieger, *lodger.* [2] Leinwandzelt, *canvas tent.*

(c)[1] GESSLER.

Nun, Tell! weil, du den Apfel triffst vom Baume
Auf hundert Schritt, so wirst du deine Kunst
Vor mir bewähren müssen. Nimm die Armbrust—
Du hast sie gleich zur Hand—und mach dich fertig,
Einen Apfel von des Knaben Kopf zu schieszen—
Doch, will ich raten, ziele gut, dasz du
Den Apfel treffest auf den ersten Schusz!
Denn fehlst du ihn, so ist dein Kopf veloren.
[*Alle geben Zeichen des Schreckens.*]

[1] The candidate is here supposed to have read Schiller's Tell. If he has not, passage *(c)* should be replaced by another, taken from a classic previously studied.

TELL.

Herr, welches Ungeheure sinnet Ihr
Mir an?—Ich soll vom Haupte meines Kindes—
Nein, nein doch, lieber Herr, das kommt Euch nicht
Zu Sinn.—Verhüt's der gnäd'ge Gott.—Das könnt Ihr
Im Ernst von einem Vater nicht begehren!

II. (*a*) Compare the adjectives *alt, kurz, bedeutend, wild, dunkel, hoch, ober, erst, deutsch, ganz.*

(*b*) Explain the use of *sein* and *haben* as auxiliaries of tense, and put into German: (1) The boy has fallen into the water; (2) he has traveled much, but seen little; (3) I have remained too long; (4) I have been sitting in my room all day; (5) you have slept two hours; (6) the child has fallen asleep.[1]

(*c*) How do the modal auxiliaries differ in conjugation from ordinary weak verbs, and how from strong verbs? Put into German: (1) I will tell you something; (2) we can not go; (3) he had to stay at home; (4) I should like to know; (5) she will not be permitted to come; (6) I have not been able to see him.

(*d*) In passage (*c*) explain (1) the plural Schritt; (2) the subjunctive treffest; (3) the use of the article in des Schreckens.

[1] Fall asleep, *einschlafen.*

III. Translate into German:

There was once an old goat[1] that had seven kids.[2] One day she had to go out into the woods to get food[3] for her young ones. So she called them all to her, and said: "I must go away now, and shall not come back till evening. You must all stay in the house and not let anyone in till I come home. If the wolf comes, you will know him by[4] his[5] rough voice and his black feet. Soon the

wolf came and said: "Open the door and let me in. I am your mother and have brought you some cakes." But the kids knew by the rough voice that it was not their mother, and the oldest kid looked out of the window and saw the wolf standing there and told him to go away.

[1] Goat, *die Ziege.* [2] Kid, *Geislein.* [3] Food, *das Futter.* [4] By, *an.* [5] Rough, *rauh.*

F.—ADVANCED GERMAN

I. Translate into English:

(a) Die Kunst ist lang, das Leben kurz, das Urteil schwierig, die Gelegenheit flüchtig. Handeln ist leicht, Denken schwer, nach dem Gedachten handeln unbequem. Die Nachahmung ist uns angeboren, das Nachzuahmende wird nicht leicht erkannt. Selten wird das Treffliche gefunden, seltener geschäzt. Die Höhe reizt uns, nicht die Stufen; den Gipfel im Auge wandeln wir gerne auf der Ebene. Nur ein Teil der Kunst kann gelehrt werden, der Künstler braucht sie ganz. Wer sie halb kennt, ist immer irre und redet viel; wer sie ganz besitzt, mag nur thun und redet selten oder spät. Jene haben keine Geheimnisse und keine Kraft; ihre Lehre ist wie gebackenes Brod, schmackhaft und sättigend für *einen* Tag: aber Mehl kann man nicht säen, und die Saatfrüchte sollen nicht vermahlen werden. Die Worte sind gut, sie sind aber nicht das Beste. Das Beste wird nicht deutlich durch Worte. Der Geist, aus dem wir handeln, ist das Höchste. Niemand weisz, was er thut, wenn er recht handelt; aber des Unrechten sind wir uns immer bewuszt. Des echten Künstlers Lehre schlieszt den Sinn auf; denn wo die Worte fehlen, spricht die That. Der echte Schüler lernt aus dem Bekannten das Unbekannte entwickeln und nähert sich dem Meister.—GOETHE.

(b) Alle Morgen wird auf unseren Frühstückstisch mit der Zeitung ein Bündel der verschiedenartigsten Neuigkeiten gelegt: Weltlauf und Privatschicksale, Handel und Verkehr, Feuilleton und Theaterskandal, Börse und pikanter Roman. Unter dieser Fülle von Dingen, wie Vieles davon ist brauchbar für unser Leben und unsere Bildung? Wie Vieles nährt das heilige Feuer der Humanität? Und wie Vieles schmeichelt unseren schlimmeren

Neigungen und Trieben? Man sage nicht, dasz hier nur das Angebot der Nachfrage entspreche; die Nachfrage hätte zurückgedrängt werden können, wäre das Angebot nicht so eifrig gewesen. Und wenn es dabei bliebe! Aber dabei hat es sein Bewenden nicht, der Leser erhält durch die Zeitung nicht blosz den Stoff, sondern den Stoff in einer bestimmten Form und Fassung, begleitet von einem entschiedenen, wenngleich anonymen Urteil. . . . Und mag sich ein eifriger Zeitungsleser noch so sehr und so lange sträuben, die Meinung des Blattes, das er hält, als die seinige aufzunehmen, es kommen erst Augenblicke, dann Tage und Wochen, in denen es ihm bequem ist, wenn das Journal für ihn denkt, und ist er so weit, dann wird ihm das Denken überhaupt zu mühsam und er überläszt es ein für allemal seinem gedruckten Orakel.—SCHÖNBACH.

II. (*a*) Without translating, paraphrase the following passage in ordinary German prose:

Es ist der Krieg ein roh, gewaltsam Handwerk.
Man kommt nicht aus mit sanften Mitteln, alles
Läszt sich nicht schonen. Wollte man's erpassen,
Bis sie zu Wien aus vier und zwanzig Übeln
Das kleinste ausgewählt, man paszte lange!
—Frisch mitten durchgegriffen, das ist besser!
Reisz dann, was mag!—Die Menschen, in der Regel,
Verstehen sich aufs Flicken und aufs Stückeln,
Und finden sich in ein verhasztes Müssen
Weit besser als in eine bittre Wahl.—SCHILLER.

(*b*) Explain in German (1) the use of the uninflected forms, *roh, gewaltsam;* (2) the difference between *passen* and *erpassen;* (3) the use of *durchgegriffen.*

(*c*) Give the first five lines as they would appear in a report introduced by *er sagte.*

(*d*) Explain in German the meaning of the last two lines.

III. Write fifteen or twenty lines in German upon the plot of some play or novel that you have read.

IV. Translate into German:

One of the most beautiful traits in the character of Frederick the Great was his strict love of justice. Who does not know the story of the windmill at Potsdam, which the King wished to buy of the owner because it stood in his way in the laying out[1] of the park of Sans-Souci? The miller refused steadfastly to sell his property, though the King offered him a large sum and promised to have another mill built for him. But the obstinate old fellow only answered, "My grandfather built this mill, I inherited it from my father, and my children shall inherit it from me." The King now became impatient and said, "But you know, I suppose, that I might have your mill for nothing if I wished?" "Yes," answered the miller, "if there were no chamber of justice[2] at Berlin." Pleased at the confidence which the old miller had in the Prussian courts, the King dismissed the man without further words.

[1] Laying out, *die Anlage.* [2] Chamber of Justice, *das Kammergericht.*

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APPENDIX

ACTION OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION, DECEMBER, 1910

At the annual meeting in New York City, December 28, 29, 30, 1910, a committee, to which had been assigned the consideration of a revision (thought desirable because of the increase of new and available texts) of the lists of texts suggested in the *Report of the Committee of Twelve*, made its report. The Association decided not to make any revision of the original lists of texts, but adopted a motion to recommend, for the guidance of teachers, a list of a *very few* texts as "*typical, and representing approximately the grade of work to be done in each year.*"

The texts suggested were as follows: —

GERMAN

1st year: After some Reader for beginners, — Meissner's *Aus meiner Welt;* Blüthgen's *Das Peterle von Nürnberg;* Storm's *Immensee*, or any of Baumbach's short stories.

2d year: Gerstäcker's *Germelshausen;* Eichendorff's *Aus dem Leben eines Taugenichts;* Wildenbruch's *Das edle Blut;* Jensen's *Die braune Erica;* Seidel's *Leberecht Hühnchen;* Fulda's *Unter vier Augen;* Benedix's *Lustspiele* (any one). — For students preparing for a scientific school a scientific reader is recommended.

3d year: Heyse's, Riehl's, Keller's, Storm's, Meyer's, Ebner-Eschenbach's, W. Raabe's *Novellen* or *Erzählungen* may be read. — Selected poems by Goethe, Schiller, Uhland, Heine. — Goethe's *Hermann und Dorothea;* Lessing's *Minna von Barnhelm;* Schiller's *Wilhelm Tell;* Freytag's *Die Journalisten;* Heine's *Harzreise.*

4th year: Goethe's, Schiller's, Lessing's works and lives.

[NOTE: During every year at least six German poems should be committed to memory.]

FRENCH

1st year: A well-graded reader for beginners; Compayré's *Yvan Gall;* Laboulaye's *Contes Bleus;* Malot's *Sans Famille.*

2d year: Daudet's *Le Petit Chose;* Erckmann-Chatrian's stories; Halévy's *L'Abbé Constantin;* Labiche et Martin's *Le Voyage de M. Perrichon;* Lavisse's *Histoire de France.*

3d year: Bazin's *Les Oberlé;* Dumas's novels; Mérimée's *Colomba;* Sandeau's *Mlle de la Seiglière;* Tocqueville's *Voyage en Amérique.*

4th year: Dumas fils' *La question d'argent;* Hugo's *Quatre-vingt-treize* or *Les Misérables;* Loti's *Pêcheur d'Islande;* Taine's *L'Ancien Régime;* Vigny's *Cinq-Mars;* an anthology of verse.

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