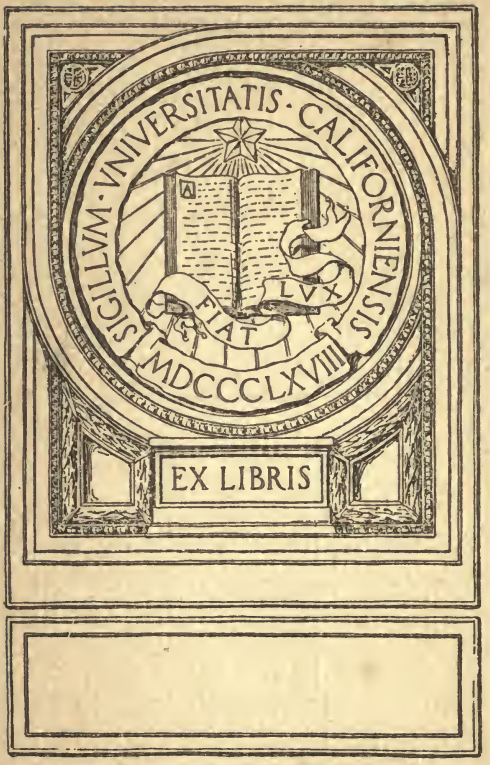
SIGILLVM · VNIVERSITATIS · CALIFORNIENSIS
LVX
FIAT
MDCCCLXVIII
EX LIBRIS

EDUCATION DURING ADOLESCENCE

EDUCATION DURING ADOLESCENCE

Based Partly on G. Stanley Hall's Psychology of Adolescence

BY

RANSOM A. MACKIE, M.A.

SOMETIME SCHOLAR AND JUNIOR FELLOW IN CLARK UNIVERSITY;
FORMERLY INSTRUCTOR, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,
FAIRMONT, WEST VIRGINIA

With an Introduction by

G. STANLEY HALL

PRESIDENT OF CLARK UNIVERSITY

NEW YORK
E. P. DUTTON & COMPANY
681 FIFTH AVENUE

Printed in the United States of America

PREFACE

THIS work is intended as a general introduction to secondary education based largely on the psychology of adolescence. Parts of some of the chapters have appeared in the *Educational Review, Education, American Education,* the *High School Quarterly, Oregon Teacher's Monthly, Northwest Journal of Education,* and *The Historical Outlook,* formerly *The History Teacher's Magazine.* Various sections have been read by Dean F. E. Bolton, Mr. O. L. Luther, Mr. J. W. Graham, Professor L. F. Jackson and Professor G. C. Robinson.

It seems fitting and proper that I should base the principles of secondary education partly on the work of the famous educator and distinguished psychologist, G. Stanley Hall, President of Clark University, whose wonderful power and influence are not only becoming more fully recognized throughout this country,

but also in foreign lands. His work is now being "felt in every department of the school system, and in all fields of activity in which human welfare is an ideal, both at home and abroad."

Dr. Hall's "distinctively original" productions, *i.e.*, his books on Adolescence, published in 1904, gave him recognition in England and also on the continent of Europe. Other countries soon realized the importance of his contributions. It was not long until in all lands his reputation for clear-sightedness and originality of a conspicuous order was firmly established. The wide-reaching consequences of his work made him at once a focus of international interest and admiration.

Before his books "Educational Problems," consisting of two ponderous and comprehensive volumes, appeared in 1911, although he was recognized as one of America's leading educators, he was more widely known as a psychologist. His new books seem to have given him a slightly different and perhaps a more prominent position in the pedagogical world. This is true, not because he changed or modified his original position but rather because he magnified or rather clarified his ideas by elaborating

and expounding more fully his pedagogic doctrines.

Dr. Hall has been looking forward to a new order of things in education and he has been very successful in his interpretations. Indeed, he could truly be called a pedagogical prophet because of the prophetic way in which he has delineated the education of the future. The world knows prophets by their fruits. The fruits of Dr. Hall's work can be seen everywhere. His ideals are being realized, at least in some respects, in that his "pedagogy of the future" is now being put into actual operation in different cities and localities throughout the United States.

It is encouraging to know that his pedagogic philosophy based upon genetic psychology and the needs of society, when in actual practice, works exceedingly well; and the fact that many of his educational ideals have been put into practice, and are working successfully, makes more and more evident his effectiveness as an educational leader and reformer. The new education as expounded by Dr. Hall is meeting the approval of the nation. In view of these facts I have no apology for basing what I have to say partly on his works. In Chapters I,

V, VI, I have quoted freely from Adolescence, Educational Problems, Genetic Philosophy of Education, Pedagogical Seminary, and Proceedings of the National Education Association.

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

THIS work is the product of long thought and extensive reading and ought to be in the hands of every high school principal and teacher and of every superintendent. It represents a point of view which though not entirely new shows much original and careful thought and represents better than anything I know the general principles of what I believe to be the education of the near future. Many of us have long thought that the training both of children and youth should be essentially based upon the fresh study of the pupil's own nature and needs, and we see here set forth in concise outline the conclusions which many advanced pedagogues have reached who believe that the prime requisite of school organizations, methods and subjects should be that they fit the nature and needs of the child.

The war has compelled teachers as well as politicians to go back to first principles and ask, as genetic psychologists have long been doing, what is the real nature of man. They have done this in the belief that this is the ultimate source of appeal and that there must be a wide re-evaluation of human institutions and of education, not least and perhaps most of all, to fit the needs of the vaster future that is now open before us. The old education will certainly not suffice for the new era. Everything must be re-evaluated in terms of man's innate capacities and spontaneities, and many old topics are sure to be seen in a new light. There should especially be a redistribution between required and elective work. The relative stress laid upon ancient versus modern languages and the increased importance of English language and literature are among the most imperative and certain changes, as is the new stress to be laid upon practical and applied subjects.

Greek has already lost its former place in the high school, and Latin is likely to lose much of its prominence despite the very active and well-organized propaganda of the classicists to represent it as the only resource of culture against *Kultur*. We can no longer ignore the

vast waste of time, energy, and money spent in Latin by those who drop it before any proficiency is acquired and whose wretched translation into English, dulls, in fact, just that finer sense of style which Latinists claim that it gives. The fact is the modern world, especially since the war, has become vastly more interesting and important than anything which classical culture can give us. We are prone to forget that any, even vocational, topics can be made more or less cultural. We forget, too, that the Greek and Latin authors knew no other language than their own, and their style would in all probability have been marred if they had dabbled in dead languages as we do. In English, too, we need a radical change from the present excessive attention given to form in order to give content the chief place. Extensive reading in English for the young is vastly more effective than the study of verbiage and style now so stressed. Moreover, it is too often practically forgotten that English has its root in the Anglo-Saxon language and that if we really would imitate the French educators who are now urging that Latin be restored and stressed in the Lycée, we should, by the same token, stress Anglo-Saxon, for the roots of our

mother tongue grew in the atmosphere of the North Sea and not in the Adriatic.

We must bear in mind that interest is the very Holy Ghost of education and that so-called formal studies and methods of discipline are only, for the most part, a delusion and a snare. They make degenerate mental tissue. It is not culture to learn to speak or write well upon trivial or indefinite subjects but rather to keep up with the great human interests, which will come to expression spontaneously if they are given a fair chance to do so.

Even our educational psychology is for the most part antiquated. It lives, moves, and has its being in a pre-evolutionary age, and was, with a few striking exceptions, developed by those who had no knowledge of the wonderful advances that had been lately made in our knowledge of the will, feelings, sentiments, and especially of the great surge of racial life that always and everywhere tends to expand the soul of the individual in the teens toward the dimensions of that of the race. These changes our system in general tends to ignore when they ought, on the contrary, to be more and more stressed.

Mr. Mackie has seen these new tendencies,

which have already begun to work their great transformations, so that his book, coming as it does when the minds of educators the world over are more open than ever before, appears at the psychological moment.

G. STANLEY HALL.

Clark University
July, 1919.

EDUCATION DURING ADOLESCENCE

EDUCATION DURING ADOLESCENCE

CHAPTER I

EDUCATION DURING ADOLESCENCE

President G. Stanley Hall of Clark University, basing his views not only on the needs of society, but on the needs of the adolescent, maintains that the main purpose of secondary education is to "train character, to suggest, to awaken, to graft interest, to give range and loftiness of sentiment of view,[1] to broaden knowledge and to bring everything in touch with life.[2]

[1] In connection with this statement, Dr. Hall reminds us that "the Greek teacher of youth chose to be called an inspirer." See his article in the School Review for Dec., 1901, p. 651, Ped. Sem., Mar., 1902, p. 94.

[2] See Genetic Philosophy of Education: An epitome of

Education during adolescence, Dr. Hall believes, "should seek to feed the interests and capacities peculiar to the adolescent age; it should aim to fill and develop mind, heart, will, and body rather than attempt to distill a budget of prepared knowledge decreed by professors who know no more of the needs of this age than teachers of other grades.[3] The only specialization that should be stressed far more is the vocational. The boy should be helped on toward ability to earn a living and the girl toward what is necessary in the conduct of a home,"[4]

To fulfill these aims not only the materials of education, but the methods of instruction should be vitalized, humanized.

G. S. Hall's Writings, by Dr. George E. Partridge, p. 213. See also G. S. Hall's "The High School as the People's College versus the Fitting School." Ped. Sem., Mar., 1902, pp. 70-71. Proc. N. E. A. 1902.

[3] G. S. Hall, Ideal School Based on Child Study. Proc. N. E. A., 1901, p. 487, The Forum, Sept., 1901, Vol. XXXII, p. 37. "Adolescence, 2 Vols., D. Appleton & Company (1904) Educational Problems, 2 Vols., (1911). These works consider education from the point of view of genetic psychology and the needs of society.

[4] G. S. Hall, Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 651.

It is not difficult to understand why Dr. Hall holds such views. It is because he bases his high school pedagogy largely on the psychology of adolescence. He calls attention to the significance and some of the psychic characteristics of youth in the following statements: "Probably the most important changes for the educator to study are those which begin between the ages of twelve and sixteen and are completed only some years later when the young adolescent receives from nature a new capital of energy and altruistic feeling. It is a physiological second birth, and success in life depends upon the care and wisdom with which this new and final invoice of energy is husbanded."[5]

During later childhood pupils "need much drill, habituation, authority and memory work; but as adolescence slowly supervenes and boyhood is molted, the method of freedom and appeal to interest and spontaneity should be increased. Now the best things are springing up

[5] G. S. Hall, Youth: Its Education, Regimen, and Hygiene, p. 359.

in the human soul. If there is any genius or talent, enthusiasm for work or for ideals, they begin now to be felt. If the race is ever to advance, it will not be by increasing the average longevity or directly by enriching the last stages of life, but by prolonging this period of development so that youth shall not die and its zest and enthusiasm grow pale."[6]

Further, "It is the time when there is the most rapid development of the heart and all the feelings and emotions. Fear, anger, love, pity, jealousy, emulation, ambition and sympathy are either now born or springing into their most intense life. Now young people are interested in adults, and one of their strongest passions is to be treated as if they were mature. They desire to know, do, and be, all that becomes a man or woman. Childhood is ending and plans for future vocations now spring into existence, and slowly grow definite and controlling."[7]

[6] G. S. Hall, School Review, Dec., 1901, "How Far is the Present High School and Early College Training Adapted to the Nature and Needs of Adolescents?"

[7] Proceedings N. E. A., 1901, p. 483.

According to the last statement vocational education is in harmony with the psychology of adolescence. "We must provide all opportunity for selective interests, for giving scope to special ability and inclination, keeping youth in touch with real life, and at the same time making training truly cultural. There must be many kinds of courses and schools, technical and every other kind of industrial institute, open day and evening. We greatly need, too, vocational experts who, by studying the capacities of individuals, will help to eliminate the waste in human energy now so prevalent, and to bring the young more successfully to the stage of citizenship and self-respect which comes only through self-support."[8]

The idea that some educators have that fitting for college and fitting for life are identical is a pernicious doctrine, according to Dr. Hall. He thinks that it can more truly be said that fitting for college is unfitting for life, so

[8] Genetic Philosophy of Education, p. 139. See also Educational Problems, Vol. I. Chapter on "Industrial Education."

clerical, sedentary, bookish, and arbitrary is the high school teaching. Almost nothing of the current high school courses appeals to the best powers of the youth, and those subjects that perhaps are best fitted for the time are likely to be taught in such a way as to rob them of all their educative value. The logical order and divisions of subjects everywhere prevail and take precedence over the psychological.[9]

The college professors are to some extent responsible for this condition of affairs for they tell the high schools what to do and how to do it. But it should not be a question, what does the college require, but rather, what does the student need, what is best for the boy and girl at this stage of development. The high school should act independently of the college and should aim to serve one period of growth in the best way possible. It should give to each boy and girl what is individually best at this time for the youth's mental, moral, and phys-

[9] G. E. Partridge, Genetic Philosophy of Education, pp. 314-16.

ical development. If this is done, the student will be well prepared for college.

The high school should dictate to the college rather than take "dictation." The college is going just a little too far when it tells the high school what it shall teach, and what it shall not teach; what methods it shall use, and what methods it shall not use. The college has no right, no power, no authority whatsoever to dictate to the high school. That power lies solely, exclusively with the school authorities, and ultimately with the people who support the high school. It should therefore be responsive to their needs and desires. The people are demanding that the high school shall give each student the training that will be worth while in the conduct of life, and if it does this, the student will be well fitted to enter college for further training. The college should take the high school student where it finds him, and then proceed in its own way to build the next higher stage.

With reference to "college domination," a point we have just discussed briefly, Dr. Hall

says: "The high school should no longer be content to play an obligato for the college symphony. The high school authorities should say to the dons who manipulate the bachelor's degree, 'Here are our graduates for whom we have done what we deem best for their stage of life. We and not you are judges of what this is. Take them or leave them,' and the college with its intense competition for students would gladly accept the conditions and in the end would greatly profit by it in the number of students." [10]

Everyone "who can profit more by being in college than elsewhere has a right to be there. . . . There is no tragedy in our system quite equal to that of holding up a bright earnest young man for a year before granting him the high school diploma because he failed by a point or two." [11] Further, the whole system of standardization of units is wrong, for it takes no account of "the human element by which

[10] Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 622, Cf. Ped. Sem., Mar., 1902, p. 72.

[11] Ibid., p. 663.

man judges man in society, in business, and in the world generally, in all affairs."[12] "The only question the college has a right to ask is whether or not the boy and girl can do the work offered and get more out of it than in any other stage."[13]

College professors are not entirely responsible for the present status of secondary education. There is another reason for complaint: As a rule teachers in high school are not interested enough in the psychology of adolescence. The studies are not chosen with reference to suitability to the capacity of the student, and they are not taught in such a way as to take advantage of the natural learning methods of the adolescent age. In view of these facts, Dr. Hall says, that "the time has now fully come when we must invoke the American muse of common sense and seriously ask whether the high school is doing the most and best that it can and should, or is accomplishing what the community has a right to expect from

[12] Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 647.
[13] Ibid, p. 623.

it. Dissatisfaction with the methods, matter, and results are wide-spread and increasing."[14]

The changes needed in the high school are so radical that they involve not only the methods of teaching and the subjects of instruction, but the entire conception of the function of the high school. It must fit better for life the great majority who go no farther, and be so changed as to prevent the loss of the three-fourths who drop out of the course before the end.[15] And in order to do this we must recognize what Dr. Hall says, viz., the young adolescent is "a new kind of being which demands a new environment, new methods, and new matter."

In regard to method, the "drill and mechanism of the previous period must be gradually relaxed, and an appeal must be made to freedom and interest. . . . We can no longer coerce and break, but must lead and inspire. To drill merely is now to arrest." The class room work should be vitalized by transferring the discus-

[14] G. S. Hall, Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 647.
[15] Genetic Philosophy of Education, p. 316.

sions and conversations to the class circle. Questions, criticisms, and suggestions should be between the students, with the teacher only occasionally drawn in, rather than always between the teacher and some student. (See Chapter VII, Section III.)

The subjects of instruction should be vitalized, as well as the methods of teaching. The vitalization of the high school means, among other things, the elimination of certain studies, or at least parts of certain studies, and the substitution therefor of studies and work of social, moral, vocational, and psychological significance. The new subject-matter that ought to be introduced during adolescence will be in harmony with the interests and capacities of boys and girls in this stage of development. "Each individual must be studied and made a special problem and the work adapted to his nature and needs if his personality is to come to full maturity. Hence, there must be a wide range of elective study for those who continue at school." If our high school education were based to a greater extent on the psychology

of adolescence it would take a stronger hold on the "interests and affections of the pupil." [16]

If the aims of high school education are to be approximately fulfilled, if secondary education is to be vitalized—humanized, much is required of the teachers. Above all, they should not be too precise, for pupils are at the age "when the soul cries out for wholes, not details; for facts, not formulae; for growth, not for logical order; for crude masses of information, not for accuracy or analysis. Whenever we insist upon accuracy and finish we are forcing nature, which decrees that youth should be kept plastic and growing."

In teaching, large conceptions rather than details should be presented, for quantity and enrichment are more to be desired than accuracy. Examinations [17] should have but little place in high school education. Definite, complete, systematic knowledge should not be stressed. All studies that are merely formal,

[16] Forum, Sept., 1901, pp. 35-37.

[17] Ideal School as Based on Child Study, Proc. N. E. A., 1901, p. 485.

which require drill and drudgery, such as the languages, should have a very subordinate place in the curriculum, for in dull drill valuable time is consumed, without adequate compensation. Everything that might cause arrested development should be eliminated.[18] This is particularly true in regard to the education of girls during adolescence. According to our authority, "the first aim which should dominate every item, pedagogic method and matter should be health, a momentous word that looms up beside holiness, to which it is etymologically akin. The new hygiene of the last few years should be supreme and make these academic areas sacred to the cult of the goddess Hygeia."[19]

We cannot recall to mind too often what Dr. Hall says in his epoch-making work Educational Problems: The mind during adolescence "craves masses of general and germinal knowledge and needs to see large surfaces without

[18] Genetic Philosophy of Education, pp. 211-13.

[19] G. S. Hall, Adolescence, Vol. II, p. 637. See also Child Study: The Basis of Exact Education, Forum, Dec., 1893, p. 436.

the thoroughness and accuracy which is not yet germane. For this they are too immature. The age for doing everything well, or not at all, has not yet come. The muse of exactness needs older devotees. Now the soul absorbs suggestions, typical facts in a vague and unaccountable way. This is the time of extensiveness and not intensiveness; culture to be best instilled, should be general, and the only specialization that should be stressed far more than at present should be vocational. The boy should be helped on toward ability to earn a living and the girl toward what is necessary in the conduct of a home. These are the prime and essential considerations and all else rings hollow." [20]

Comment

In view of what has been said, it seems to me, that the high school should have at least four specific aims:

First: Physical well-being, fostered not

[20] G. S. Hall, Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 651.

merely by gymnastic exercises, by reading books on physiology, and by listening to lectures on hygiene, but by a face to face study of, and experience with, the conditions of wholesome living.[21] Many other things may be important, but the adolescent's "first business is to grow. He may have another opportunity for the acquisition of knowledge, but the demand for physical development cannot wait,"[22] and furthermore, we should bear in mind that "among the habits distinctly conducive to health must be reckoned active interests in nature, in outdoor sports, in varied forms of artistic activity, in social life and social institutions."[23]

Second: Vocational Guidance: This is of fundamental importance to the great majority of high school students. The teachers should do everything possible to awaken, arouse, stimulate, and direct the interests and en-

[21] Cf. David Snedden's article in Charities and Commons, April 25, 1908.

[22] W. H. Burnham, Proc. N. E. A., pp. 727-734.

[23] W. H. Burnham's article in Monroe's Cyclopedia of Education, Vol. I, pp. 44-46.

thusiasm of the student and besides a systematic effort should be made to discover the student's dominant interests and powers and thus assist him in the choice of the vocation in which he is most likely to succeed. But this is not all. The high school should actually give some vocational instruction for those who do not care to, or cannot go on to some higher institution of learning. A suggestion might be added: The work should be made entirely flexible and should offer numerous opportunities for a change of course as a student's inclinations are modified or his tendencies are developed.

Third: Personal Culture.[24] This is not to be attained by studying Greek, Latin, other foreign languages, and mathematics[25] according to contemporary authorities, but rather through the influence of cultured people and by receiving instruction in subjects that have a direct bearing on the conduct and problems of

[24] Henry Suzzallo, Introduction to C. W. Eliot's monograph, Education for Efficiency.

[25] David Snedden, What of Liberal Education. Atlantic Monthly, Jan., 1912.

life. Although no study will necessarily make a person cultured, and while the classics and other foreign languages and mathematics may do something toward fulfilling the personal culture aim, history, literature and modern civic and social problems will undoubtedly do more in this direction than the foreign languages and mathematics. In order to be truly cultural, education during adolescence should, as already pointed out, aim "to train character, to suggest, to awaken, to graft interests, to give range and loftiness of sentiment of view." It ought "to develop mind, heart, will and body, rather than attempt to distill a budget of prepared knowledge decreed by professors who know no more of the needs of this age than teachers of other grades." [26]

Fourth: Social efficiency in the sense of awareness of civic and moral responsibility, and the desire and ability to co-operate with one's fellows to promote the common welfare. Social efficiency, which will contribute both

[26] G. S. Hall, The Ideal School as Based on Child Study. Forum, Sept., 1901, pp. 24-39.

directly and indirectly to a person's vocational efficiency may be promoted, from the academic standpoint, in the same way as personal culture is promoted, by developing a permanent interest in reading the best literature and in studying practical problems pertaining to society and government and the essential facts of the history of civilization. Emphasis should be placed on preparing for service because "service is the highest criterion of the worth of lives. We are learning that, whether in history or in romance, the names that shine with the fairest and brightest light and last longest are those that have done most service. The great moments in great lives are those when the supreme choice is to be made between self and the welfare of others, and the best criterion of supreme manhood and womanhood is when the latter prevails. More and more enlightened public opinion is coming to distinguish between those who live and die for themselves and those who live and die by the gospel of helpfulness." [27]

[27] Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 668.

CHAPTER II

SIX-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULA

High schools throughout the United States are beginning to base their courses of study on adolescent psychology and the needs of society, and a few of the most progressive high schools of the country have already put into actual operation and administration, features that are almost in harmony with the fundamental aims or purposes of education during adolescence as stated in the first chapter.

Perhaps one of the best examples[1] of these advanced schools is the one in Berkeley, California, which will now be considered. The reason for the selection of this institution is not merely because it represents present tendencies, but because, in some respects, it approximates the ideal, and thus serves to illustrate some admirable features in progressive high school reorganization.

[1] "One example is worth a thousand arguments."

Instead of the usual eight years of elementary and four years for high school work, the twelve grades of the public schools in Berkeley are divided into *elementary education,* comprising the first six grades and *secondary education,* comprising the grades seven to twelve inclusive. In order to understand just why the high school should be extended downward, we must speak of elementary as well as secondary school work. We must consider the whole system.

Educational Periods.	Schools.	Ages.	Grades.
Elementary.....	Primary School.....	6 to 9	1 2 3
	Grammar School...	9 to 12	4 5 6
Secondary.....	Junior High School.	12 to 15	7 8 9
	Senior High School.	15 to 18	10 11 12

The question naturally suggests itself: What is the reason for so radical a change from the ordinary divisions of the curriculum? Why does Berkeley have just six years for elementary education? To answer this question, it is

necessary to consider the aim of the first six years of schooling. The fundamental aim is to obtain the use of the tools of learning; that is, the pupil should learn to read and write fairly well and to perform accurately and with some degree of rapidity the fundamental operations of arithmetic. Of course other studies may and should be added, but obtaining the use of the "tools of learning" is the main purpose.

Six years is certainly long enough in which to accomplish this. To spend more time than six years on elementary education exaggerates its importance and leads to the belief that it is education itself instead of preparation for an education. The first six years of school should emphasize chiefly the formal aspects of education. The mission of elementary education is to prepare for further school work. It aims not at knowledge itself, but at supplying the tools of the mind and at inculcating attitudes and habits of mind that will enable the individual later to pursue knowledge and industry.[2]

[2] Dr. C. O. Davis, Reorganization of Secondary Education, Educational Review, Oct., 1911.

Statistics show that the masses are held in school only through the fifth grade, after which they drop out in very large numbers, which means, educationally, that whatever is to be taught to the masses must be given in the first five or six years.[3] By terminating a cycle of work with the sixth year, unquestionably the tendency will be to hold such pupils at least one year longer, namely to the end of the sixth grade.[4]

Something should be said briefly concerning the curriculum of this unique school. The first six years of the course is uniform for all children and somewhat narrow in its scope. The studies emphasized are those which the masses must have, even if they wish to start life with the smallest amount of preparation. Whether or not the pupils get anything else, they learn how to read, write and use their own language, both in oral and written form; how

[3] F. M. Leavitt, Examples of Industrial Education, p. 84. Ginn & Co., N. Y.

[4] F. F. Bunker, Reorganization of the Public School System, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 1916, p. 113.

to perform with facility and accuracy the simple operations of arithmetic and accounting; and they get, also in these first six years, some knowledge of their city, state, and national government. In addition, the pupils learn the elementary principles of sanitation and health conditions which everybody should know, not only to protect themselves as individuals, but to protect society as well. All of this is efficiently accomplished in the six-year elementary school at Berkeley.

As shown in the diagram on page 20, the Six-Year Berkeley High School curriculum is divided into two periods of three years each. The *Introductory* or *Junior* high school comprises the seventh, eighth and ninth grades, while the *Senior* or High School proper[5] is made up of the tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades.

By an examination of the following program you may see what subjects are taught in the Introductory or Lower High School:

[5] In the Upper or Senior High School the only required studies are English, (3 years), Science, (1 year), and United States History and Government, (1 year), Physical Education, (1 year), and Assembly Singing, (3 years).

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Seventh Grade. Required	Pds.
English	5
Language, Composition, Spelling, Reading, Literature	
Geography and World History through Biography	5
Arithmetic	5
Cooking or Manual Training	2
Freehand Drawing	2
Music and Chorus	2
Optional.	
French, beginning	5
German, beginning	5
Latin, beginning	5
Printing Arts	5
Extra English	5
Spanish, beginning	5

Eighth Grade. Required.	Pds.
English	5
Language, Spelling, Reading, Literature, Composition	
American History and Citizenship	5
Arithmetic	5
Sewing or Manual Training.	2
Freehand Drawing	2
Music and Chorus	2
Optional.	
French, continued	5
German, continued	5
Latin, continued	5
Printing Arts	5
Extra English	5
Spanish, continued	5

Ninth Grade. Required.	Pds.
English	5
Language, Composition, Spelling, Reading, Literature	
Elective.	
French, beginning or continued	5
German, beginning or continued	5
Latin, beginning or continued	5
Printing Arts	5
Algebra	5
Spanish, beginning or continued	5
Freehand Drawing	5
Elementary Household Science	5
Manual Arts	5
Pacific Coast History	5

Two main criticisms of this program might be offered: First, Plays, Games and Personal Hygiene ought to be emphasized; and second, General Science, General Mathematics and Vocational Information should be offered in the ninth grade.

The majority of the children enter the introductory high school, at the beginning of the period of adolescence, when by nature they naturally crave an opportunity to dip into a wide range of subjects and activities, which is Nature's way of insuring freedom of choice in determining occupation.

The work of the seventh, eighth and ninth grades comprising the Introductory high school is related very closely to life, and as far away as possible from that which is purely academic in education. Much emphasis is placed on learning how to study, and how to use the library.

The work of the Introductory High School is arranged in such a way as to make a more easy transition from the work of the elementary grades to the work of the high school proper. In regard to the need of a better transition

and the way the new plan meets this need F. F. Bunker says: "The explanation for the break in attendance between the ninth and tenth years, which experience shows to be a very heavy one under the usual grouping of grades, lies largely in the fact that the pupil, coming into the high school from the grades, fails to make a proper adjustment. In consequence he begins to fail in his work, becomes disheartened and discouraged, and drops out before he reaches the tenth grade; and worst of all, he drops out because he has failed. Throwing the seventh, eighth and ninth grades together in a second cycle of work which shall have distinguishing characteristics from that which precedes it, as well as from that which follows; arranging everything connected therewith to make his work a three-year transition period from the elementary school to the upper high school, and yet shaping the work so that it is a unit in itself which can be terminated if necessary, at the end of the ninth year—will not only tend to hold a year longer the pupil who would otherwise drop out at the end of the eighth year, but will

go very far toward insuring a complete adjustment to the conditions which prevail in the upper high school.[6] It likewise offers, at the end of the ninth year, an opportunity for the pupil to check up his own judgment, and to determine whether his circumstances, as well as his tastes, are such as to justify him in going on for three years more in secondary work. If, after making a careful survey of such matters, he decides to leave school, he leaves conscious of having succeeded rather than because he had failed—causing a very different reaction upon his character."[7]

It is interesting to note what is said concerning the success of the new plan: "The response in lessening the mortality between the ninth and tenth grades through arranging the school work in three cycles, has been so immediate and decisive as to admit of no doubt respecting the

[6] "Approximately 85 per cent of the children entering the public schools of the United States leave between the ages of twelve and fifteen," F. M. Leavitt, Examples of Industrial Education, p. 54, Ginn & Co., 1912.

[7] F. F. Bunker, The Better Articulation of the Parts of the Public School System, Educational Review, March, 1914, Vol. XLVII, pages 263-66.

tendency." It is added, however, that "perhaps, the consideration of greatest significance which such a plan of school organization offers, lies in the opportunity that it gives of radically changing the nature and content of the course of study."[8]

Advantages of the New Plan of Organization

The advantages of the six-year plan may be summarized as follows:

First: It not only mitigates the abruptness of the transition from the elementary school and checks the loss of pupils at this critical period,[9] but it prevents pupils from leaving school before this time, and one of the reasons for this is that the new plan, among other things, forces the elimination of non-essentials in the elementary curriculum, especially inherited puzzles,[10] and besides, it makes "pos-

[8] F. F. Bunker, Reorganization of the Public School System, p. 114, Government Printing Office, 1916. Washington, D. C.

[9] Proceedings, National Education Association, 1908, p. 625.

[10] Edward Robinson. The Reorganization of the Grades and the High School. School Review, Dec., 1912.

sible the teaching of subjects at the time when the mind is best fitted to receive them." It is well known that a large percentage of the pupils, especially the boys, drop out because they lack interest in elementary school work; so some contend that if we could get the student well settled in the high school course of study, even a short time before he reaches the adolescent period, we should have a better opportunity to interest and inspire him in the work of the high school; and, if once interested and inspired, it is likely he would continue through the entire high school course.

Second: It is conceded by most educators that young adolescents should be taught by more men teachers than are employed under the present régime. Since there are more male teachers in the high schools this condition is fulfilled. Dr. Hall emphasizes the fact, that under the old régime, the vast majority of boys and girls, perhaps nineteen out of twenty, and often ninety-nine out of a hundred, leave school without ever having been, for a single day, under the influence of a male teacher. This he calls

a "positive scandal" [11] which has been minimized wherever the "Six and Six plan" has been introduced, for men accept positions where they are allowed to present secondary school subjects in the seventh and eighth grades. He then mentions the effect this has on the pupils, especially the boys. "When they reach the teens and their manhood begins to bourgeon," he says, "they do not instantly think of school as a 'sissy' affair, to be thrown off," and adds, that "ten years of secondary education in Europe is essentially in the hands of men." [12]

Third: As the departmental plan of instruction exists in high schools and is an essential part of the new plan, the pupils at the dawn of adolescence receive the benefit of "daily contact with several personalities instead of that all day association with one teacher which often breeds abnormal psychic atmosphere." Authorities are practically unanimous in their contention that "the variety of teachers, equipment, methods and general conditions, the

[11] Educational Problems, Vol. II, page 650.
[12] Ibid., Vol. II, p. 650.

physical relief in changing rooms, the continuity of superior teaching, the greater educative freedom, all serve to stimulate a child to his best endeavor. Nothing is more deadening to a child than to listen to the same voice, see the same surroundings, witness the same methods, and all within the narrow confines of a single room, and under the eye of the same teacher. Children become weary of this eternal 'sameness.'"[13] Furthermore, the new plan gives the pupils the advantage of being taught by teachers especially trained for the different branches, the gain coming from the better teaching that results from the adaptation of the teacher to the work for which he is best fitted and for which he has made special preparation. When an instructor teaches allied subjects he is able to specialize and do the work well.[14]

Fourth: The six-year high school curriculum is fully consistent with established principles

[13] V. E. Kilpatrick, Departmental Teaching in Elementary Schools, Macmillan Co. (An excellent work.)

[14] Proceedings, National Education Association, 1908, p. 626.

of genetic pedagogy and psychology. The six-year elementary school may be completed and the pupils may be ready to enter the Introductory high school when they are about twelve or thirteen years of age. This period is recognized by distinguished psychologists as the beginning of adolescence, and the beginning of adolescence, many authorities maintain, should be the beginning of secondary education. As pointed out in the first chapter, adolescence demands, according to genetic psychology, that new matter and new methods must be introduced. This is precisely the view held by Dr. Hall, for he contends that "we must take account of the nature of the great upheaval at the dawn of the teens, which marks the pubescent ferment, and which requires distinct change in matter and method of education. . . . It is a period of very rapid if not fulminating psychic expansion. . . . The drill to which they have been subjected before pubescence becomes irksome when they reach this crisis." And speaking specifically of the new six-year plan, he says: "It would bring about the change of

external conditions which always ought to mark the great change within, that takes place at the dawn of pubescent years, which our system now, instead of stressing as the world—savage and civilized—has everywhere done, tends to obliterate. Mankind, throughout all its history, has marked the faint dawn of sexual maturity by initiations, training in new modes of life, confirmation, etc., as befits the nature and needs of this stage of evolution.[15] Children are now approaching maturity, and are impressed in a very new and strange way by the lives of those older than themselves, and by adults, and it is just this association and spur that the present system cuts off, for the boy in the upper grammar grades has no higher classmates to admire and imitate. These two evils, namely, the obliteration of pubescence, and the elimination of the influence of those older, are very real and very grave evils in our system which must be remedied, if we are to work with, and not against nature." "I am fully convinced," says the same authority,

[15] Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 648.

speaking further of the six-year high school, "that the interests of both community and child demand some such extension downward, and also that it is inevitable. Of course, it would involve some additional expense to bring boys of twelve under more male teachers, and would require larger appropriations, but, as it is needed, this change must come." [16]

There seems to be an increasing demand throughout the country for courses of study similar to those that follow:

[16] Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 648.

PROPOSED JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM

Seventh, Eighth and Ninth Grades

Seventh Grade.	Pds.	Eighth Grade.	Pds.	Ninth Grade.	Pds.
English—Spelling and Reading, Composition, and Literature	5	English—Reading, Spelling, Composition, and Literature	5	English—Literature, Expression and Vocational Information	5
The Lives of Great Men, selected from the History of the World	5	American History and Citizenship	5	Social Problems, World's Work or Current Events	5
Geography Correlated with History	5	Practical Business Arithmetic	5	General Science and General Mathematics	5
Practical Business Arithmetic	5	Plays, Games and Personal Hygiene	5	Plays, Games and Personal Hygiene	5
Domestic and Manual Arts	2	Vocational Information	1	Music (Chorus)	1
Freehand Drawing	2	Science, Field Excursions	1		
Personal Hygiene, Plays and Games	5	Music (Chorus)	1		
Science (Nature Study) Field Excursions	1				
Music (Chorus)					

Elective Subject, select one:
- Latin
- German
- French
- Spanish
- Extra English
- Typewriting

Elective Subject, select one or two:
- Extra English
- A Foreign Language
- Printing Arts
- Manual Arts
- Domestic Arts
- Freehand Drawing
- Typewriting and Bookkeeping
- Arithmetic
- Algebra
- Geometry

Elective Subject, select one or two:
- Extra English
- Civil Government
- Foreign Language
- Printing Arts
- Domestic Arts
- Manual Arts
- Drawing
- Typewriting
- Bookkeeping
- Algebra
- Geometry
- Arithmetic
- Physical Geography and Commercial Geography
- Biology, Botany, Zoology, Physiology

PROPOSED SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM

TENTH, ELEVENTH AND TWELFTH GRADES.

REQUIRED STUDIES.[1] Tenth Grade.	Pds.	REQUIRED STUDIES. Eleventh Grade.	Pds.	REQUIRED STUDIES. Twelfth Grade.	Pds.
English Literature[4] and English Expression	5	English Literature and English Expression	5	English Literature and English Expression	5
History of Civilization (Ancient and Medieval)	5	History of Civilization (Modern)	5	American History, Society and Government	5
Physical Training and Personal Hygiene	5	Physical Training and Personal Hygiene	5	Physical Training and Personal Hygiene	5
Elective Studies,[2] select two:		**Elective Studies,[3] select two:**		**Elective Studies,[3] select two:**	
Phonography and Typewriting		Ethics, ½ year		Ethics, ½ year	
Commercial Geography		Sociology, ½ year		Sociology, ½ year	
Civil Government		Economics, ½ year		Economics, ½ year	
Biology (Botany, Zoology)		Education, ½ year		Education, ½ year	
Algebra and Geometry or Arithmetic		Psychology, ½ year		Psychology, ½ year	
Latin		Mathematics		Mathematics	
French		English History		English History	
German		A Foreign Language		A Foreign Language	
		Physiology		Physiology	
		Physics		Physics	

ELECTIVE STUDIES (*Continued*)

Physics	Biology	Biology
Manual Training	Chemistry	Chemistry
Spanish	Household Science	Household Science
General Science	Manual Training	Manual Training
Drawing	Drawing, Music	Drawing, Music
Music	Bookkeeping, including Commercial Arithmetic	Bookkeeping, including Commercial Arithmetic
Home Economics	Commercial Law	Commercial Law
Sanitation, Furnishing	History of Commerce	History of Commerce
	Typewriting and Office Practice	Typewriting and Office Practice

[1] Some attention should be devoted to practical problems in Civics, Ethics, Hygiene, Economics, Sociology, and Psychology, in connection with the course in English Literature and English Expression. Instead of reading all of the "English Classics" now required, some books might be studied, dealing with the practical problems in the subjects just mentioned. Of course, most of the reading along the lines suggested would be elective, except the study of civic and social problems which would be required.

[2] Students intending to enter college or university should ascertain the special requirements for entrance to that college or university.

[3] Any study in the earlier lists not already taken or successfully completed may, with the consent of the principal or vocational adviser, be taken this year.

CHAPTER III

PRINCIPLE OF ELECTION IN EDUCATION

The fact that some of the greatest colleges and universities of this country recognize the limited elective system of high school studies for admission shows that there is a strong tendency in that direction.[1] Two of the most progressive institutions to adopt this policy recently are Reed College, founded in 1912 at Portland, Oregon, and the University of Chicago, which changed in 1911 its requirements for admission and graduation.[2]

[1] It seems to me that the State College of Washington and the University of Chicago have approximated the ideal in regard to admission requirements, while Reed College and Stanford University have approximated the ideal with reference to requirements for graduation.

[2] Some excellent papers have been written on the new requirements at the University of Chicago. See articles by C. H. Judd (Education, Jan., 1912, Vol. XXXII, No. 5, pp. 266-277), C. R. Mann (Educational Review, Sept., 1911, Vol.

One of the first institutions of higher learning that not merely formulated the elective system in theory but put it into actual operation, was Stanford University. I quote these words from the Stanford catalogue: "No prescription other than English will be made." The catalogue here refers to the entrance requirements of the University.

President Emeritus David Starr Jordan in his admirable book entitled, "The Care and Culture of Men," maintains that "we must let the student have, to a great extent, his own way as to what his studies shall be. We can see that he does his work well, and we can help him in many ways, but the direction of his efforts must in the end rest with him."

Many of the most progressive school men today contend that as soon as the common branches are mastered each student should be given the privilege of selecting his own studies, but not without careful advice and direction by parents and teachers. It is worse than useless,

XLII, No. 2, pp. 186-191), J. R. Angell (School Review, Sept., 1911, Vol. XIX, No. 7, pp, 489-497).

it is claimed, to try to change the course of a student's life by compelling him to do work which he knows will only be of little use to him.

High school authorities everywhere are beginning to recognize the truth of the statement made by the Committee of Nine of the 1911 National Education Association concerning the most effective way of securing good work. The Committee maintained that the school must take into account individual differences and must emphasize interest rather than difficulty as a stimulant to the student.

Many leading educators have long held this view. Dr. Bolton has always maintained that interest is of pre-eminent and fundamental importance,[3] and Dr. Suzzallo seems to be of the same opinion, for he says: "Too many of the able and willing of mind are only half engrossed with their school tasks . . . and we find that many children, whom we have considered

[3] See Dean F. E. Bolton's discussion of "Interest and Education" in his Principles of Education. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1910.

backward or perverse, are merely bored by the unappealing tasks and formalities of school life. The major difficulty with our schools is that they have not adequately enlisted the interests and energies of children in school work."[4]

Most authorities would give the student considerable freedom in selecting his studies during later adolescence. Dr. C. W. Eliot, whose work in forwarding the "elective system" in education cannot be estimated, says: "The safest guides to a wise choice will be the taste, inclination and special capacity of each individual. . . . It is only the individual youth who can select that course of study which will most profit him, because it will most interest him. The very fact of choice goes far to secure the co-operation of his will. It is for the happiness of the individual and the benefit of society alike that these mental diversities should be cultivated, not suppressed. The individual en-

[4] See the editor's introduction to John Dewey's monograph "Interest and Effort in Education." Houghton, Mifflin Co., N. Y.

joys most that intellectual labor for which he is most fit; and society is best served when every man's peculiar skill, faculty, or aptitude is developed and utilized to the highest possible degree."[5]

Dr. Eliot thinks our courses of study should be flexible for the younger as well as the older students. He holds that "every individual child's peculiar gifts and powers should be discovered early and developed and trained assiduously. . . . There should be some choice of subjects of study by ten years of age, and much variety by fifteen years of age." Many would agree with him when he says that there should be much variety by fifteen years of age but very few, I think, believe that there should be any choice of subjects by ten years of age. And again does he not go to the extreme when he asserts that "in the ideal democratic school no two children would follow the same course of study or have the same tasks, except that they would all need to learn the use of the

[5] C. W. Eliot, Educational Reform, pp. 134-136, The Century Company, N. Y., 1901.

elementary tools of education: reading, writing and ciphering."[6]

The principle of election has reached all classes in the "General High Schools" in Boston, and other cities are rapidly adopting the plan. The reason for this, undoubtedly, is the "growing diversity of knowledge," the breaking down of the "old ideal of the scholar," the "need of specialization," the necessity of civic, moral, hygienic and vocational instruction and training, and the "opening of educational opportunities to all the people."

In the Boise, Idaho, High School, all studies, except English are elective. "The students are aided in selecting a unified course in accordance with their needs."[7] In Boston in all the "General High Schools" the only required studies are English, Hygiene and Physical Training. Recently, a year of science has been added to the list of constants.

More than one-half of the studies of the

[6] C. W. Eliot, Educational Reform, p. 262, and pp. 408-10.

[7] See Stout, The High School, p. 312, D. C. Heath & Co., 1914.

"General Course" of the Seattle High Schools are elective. The required studies are English (3 years), mathematics (1 year), history and civics (2 years) and laboratory science (1 year). The rest of the studies (16 credits) are elective. Each pupil must, however, earn six credits (3 years) in one subject other than English. This is an excellent course for the purpose for which it is designed. It is meant for all who "have not reached a decision as to their future."

It might be added that although this course is not intended to prepare students for college, many upon the completion of it would be allowed to enter Stanford University or the University of Chicago, two of the best institutions in the United States. Both belong to the Assocation of American Universities. English is the only required study for admission to Stanford. The University of Chicago demands three years' work in English, a major of three years and a minor of two years in any of the standard high school subjects. I quote from Dr. J. R. Angell's article, "New Requirements for Entrance and Graduation at the University

of Chicago" (School Review, Sept., 1911, page 493): "English is the only subject definitely, required of all candidates for entrance to the University. Apart from this, the two most essential demands are: first, the presentation of two groups of subjects, of which at least three units shall be offered in one and at least two units in the other; and, second, the requirement that at least ten of the fifteen units offered shall be the familiar academic subjects."

Some educators favor the elective principle for colleges but not for high schools. They talk of "laying a good foundation." According to Dr. Jordan, "we have tried, as we used to say, to make well rounded men, men who stand four-square to every wind that blows." But he says, "This is a training better fitted for hitching-posts or windmills than for men."[8]

Often the very people who speak of "laying a good foundation" are also enthusiastic advocates of "thorough mental discipline" for each student so that when he receives his di-

[8] D. S. Jordan, Care and Culture of Men, p. 163, Whitaker & Ray Co., 1903.

ploma, leaves the school, and goes "out in the world," he will be prepared to cope with any situation, and the best and only way, they say, "to train the mind," for this purpose, is to study the foreign languages and higher mathematics. But is this argument sound? Do not the studies that have a more direct bearing on the conduct and problems of life "train the mind" quite as well, if not better than the languages and mathematics?

We have good authority to answer the last question in the affirmative, for Herbert Spencer contends that knowledge that is best for life is also best for development of power [9] and I am sure that G. Stanley Hall would also support my contention, for he maintains that the "very existence of any such thing" as a "generalized type of ability or general culture" is "now disputed by psychologists." Then he says emphatically: "The power which is trained for efficiency in one direction cannot be applied

[9] See Spencer's Education, p. 74, D. Appleton Co., N. Y. Also see Graves, Great Educators of Three Centuries, pp. 278-279, Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1912.

in any other without very great abatement and loss, if indeed it can be at all."[10]

If the positions held by Herbert Spencer and G. Stanley Hall be correct, and if Professor Horne's contention[11] that mental discipline gained in one field will aid in another just in so far as the two subjects are similar, be sound, ought not the pupil study subjects in which he has a genuine interest or work that will be of more use to him in later life instead of being forced to take Latin, advanced algebra[12] or solid geometry?[13] Should not the student be allowed to select, with assistance, studies in harmony with his nature, interests, capacities, needs and aims in life? But some contend that many high school students are not greatly interested in anything in the curriculum and do not know their needs[14] and aims in life. Al-

[10] Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 653. D. Appleton Co.

[11] H. H. Horne, Psychological Principles of Education, p. 71, Macmillian Co., N. Y., 1907.

[12] See Dr. M. V. O'Shea's Editorial Comments in the May, (1916), issue of the Wisconsin Journal of Education.

[13] See David Snedden's article, "What of Liberal Education." Atlantic Monthly, Jan., 1912, Vol. CIX, pp. 111-117.

[14] Dr. E. O. Holland maintains that "the schoolmaster

though this situation presents a difficult problem, could not the secondary school do much more than it is now doing for this class of students? If a student does not know his dominant interests, capabilities and needs, the teachers should endeavor to discover them, and I believe this could be done by means of short general courses in various subjects.

After discussing this problem from every possible standpoint at the meeting of the N. E. A. in 1911, it was the consensus of opinion of the committee on secondary education that "the high school period is the testing time, the time for trying out different powers, the time for forming life purposes. . . ." Further, the committee maintained that "in high school the boy or girl may very properly make a start along

must go out into the industrial life of a community and learn at first hand what is expected of the young people when they leave the school. Then he must have sufficient courage and initiative to do two things: first, make such changes in the course of study as will give better preparation to the children who must enter the vocations at an early age; and, second, make possible for any child to continue uninterruptedly his course through the grades, the high school, and the university." (Proc. N. E. A., 1913, pp. 711-712).

the line of his chosen vocation, but final choice should not be forced upon him at the beginning of that career. If he makes a provisional choice early in the course there should be ample opportunity for adjustment later in the high school."[15]

In a classic on election in education we find these words: "At every turn the elective system has met a 'stone wall of conservatism.' For one educated under the old prescribed régime and indoctrined with the venerable idea of what constitutes a liberal education, it is difficult to eliminate the personal equation. . . . Scholars cling naturally to old ideas, old ideals, old methods; no body of men is more averse to change. In business such men fail, driven to the wall by competition with those who are ready to adopt new methods. But education fosters conservatism; as a rule, men prefer to teach the things they were taught, and to teach them in the same way. So the mistakes of fathers are visited upon children and upon

[15] Proc. N. E. A., 1911, p. 560.

children's children unto how many generations only the history of education can tell."

Someone has said that the opponents of the elective system free its advocates from the need of any discussion of relative value of studies; the reason is plain—the final incontestable reason why no high school studies can be sensibly prescribed for all—the opponents of free choice are utterly unable to agree among themselves as to what the prescribed subjects should be. There is much truth in this argument, but it is not as forceful to-day as it was a decade ago, for educators are beginning to agree on at least three studies that ought to be required. These are discussed in the following chapters.

Prior to 1910 I examined the catalogues of nearly all of the colleges and universities in the Northwest, and no two agreed as to the required work for entrance to the Freshman class in the B. A. course. So we can readily see that it depends on the individual or group of individuals, who make the lists of required studies—it depends absolutely upon what they

consider important and positively necessary for a "good foundation."

An authority writing on the subject asks this question: "When there are not a half-dozen high schools in the entire country, under separate management, with identical courses of study, is it not preposterous to maintain that there is a vital, fixed interrelation and one natural sequence of subjects?" One group of educators says: "So in a program, much should be insisted on," and they insist on one program. Another says: "All studies should be required," and they insist on another program.

So much for prescription of courses. Let us speak now of the positive advantages of the elective system. In the first place, the elective plan will attract more grammar school graduates to the high school and it will hold them in school longer than if the courses were prescribed. This is something that is ardently to be desired for the percentage of population that secure a high school education should be increased.

A recent report of the United States Com-

missioner of Education shows that about seven per cent of the students of the country are in secondary schools. Just think of it, only seven per cent! Surely something should be done to attract more eighth grade graduates to the high schools of our country. This can be done by introducing the elective system into high schools and to prove this statement let us refer to the high school at Galesburg, Illinois.

"Two years after the introduction of the new system, the school building had to be more than doubled to accommodate the applicants for admission. Formerly one pupil out of eleven in the lower grades entered the high school, two years later, one out of five entered high school." Many of the students would not have continued in school had they not been permitted to elect a course which seemed to them suited to their needs. [16]

"If we should admit that the studies that these pupils selected did not do them as much

[16] See the History of the Galesburg Schools. In this work the author, Dr. Steele, who is superintendent, shows definitely and conclusively that the elective system increases attendance.

good as some that might have been prescribed, yet it must be conceded that these elective studies did them more good than remaining out of school entirely would have done."

Moreover, the elective plan has a good effect on teachers. It gets students and teachers together who are vitally interested in the same subject. In this way a teacher can see the effect of his work. It also gives the school a chance to rid itself of inefficient teachers. Under the prescribed plan pupils are forced to go to teachers who are not interesting—teachers who are teachers only in name—and often are intolerant, sluggish and unprogressive. The elective system tends to force such persons to become better teachers or leave the profession.

We are now going to introduce an argument which seems to be most essential. It is this: The elective system arouses the interest and willingness of the student and fills him with enthusiasm to do better work. It also makes him feel his responsibility as no other system can do. If a person selects a certain study because he likes the subject and the teacher, he studies

harder and he desires to learn more than if that study were prescribed. Furthermore, the elective plan makes the student conscious of what he is doing, trains him in independent choice, and in this way makes him feel his own individual responsibility.

The stock argument of the opponents of the elective system, is that there are some students who, from pure laziness, select only the easiest studies and go through school with the very easiest work possible. "But this is no new thing, and it is not for such students that the school exists. The school should not obstruct the work of its earnest students to keep its idlers and sneaks from wasting their useless time." As Dr. Angell has said: "No plan will make the school career of lazy students brilliant. The work should be organized to meet the needs of the earnest and aspiring, rather than the infirmities and defects of the indolent."

But, Dr. Jordan contends that most students, as a matter of fact do not select the easiest studies, as statistics certainly show. He says further, "It is simple nonsense to call any

study easy, if pursued in a serious manner for a serious purpose. If any subject draws to itself the idlers solely because it is easy, the fault lies with the teacher. The success of the elective system, as of any other system, demands the removal of inefficient teachers. The elective system can never wholly succeed unless each teacher has the power and the will to enforce good work or to remove from his classes all idle or inefficient students. The average course, however, as chosen by the students themselves, is as capable of serious defense as the average established course evolved from the pulling and hauling and patching and fitting of the average faculty."[17]

Dr. C. W. Eliot asks this pertinent question: "What becomes of the careless, indifferent, lazy boys who have no bent or ambition of any sort?" and answers it by saying: "What becomes of such boys under the uniform compulsory system?. . . It really does not make much difference what these unawakened minds

[17] Dr. C. W. Eliot is of the same opinion. See his Educational Reform, p. 138. Century Co., New York, 1901.

dawdle with. There is, however, much more chance that such young men will get roused from their lethargy under an elective system than under a required."[18]

"But you may say: 'Would you let a student graduate ignorant of Chemistry, of Latin, of Logic, of Botany?'" "Well, yes," says Dr. Jordan, "if superficiality in everything is the alternative. It is well for a scholar to know something of each of these and of each of the subjects in the most extended curriculum. But he purchases this knowledge too dearly if he buys it at the expense of thoroughness in some line of study in which a real interest has been awakened."

Although those who advocate the almost purely elective system seem to be able to meet the arguments of their opponents, nevertheless, it seems to me, it is not a question of "free election" or absolute "prescription," but it is rather what studies should be chosen by each student, for to-day it is recognized that each person needs an education fitted to his indi-

[18] Educational Reform, p. 140.

vidual needs. If any studies should be prescribed, should they not be in the field of the humanities, rather than in the field of mathematics and the classics? For instance, does it not seem reasonable that all students should be required to study, besides English, some of the essential facts of the history of the world from the earliest times to the present, and besides, would it not be desirable to advise all to study at least the elementary problems in ethics, civics, hygiene, sociology, economics, and psychology?

CHAPTER IV

CHANGES PROPOSED IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

By an examination of some of the most progressive high schools of the United States, we find that there is a tendency to provide not merely for the vocational needs of their students, but also for the civic, social and cultural needs as well. And it is right that it should be thus, for the aim of the modern high school should be to provide instruction tending to produce cultured, self-supporting, self-respecting, efficient members of society.

But how is this to be done? Partly by a wise selection of subject matter. Then the question arises: What studies should be prescribed for all students. The answer must be, the studies that are recognized as supremely useful to all. But what are the specific studies?

Constants

The required subjects should be English, some phases of the history of civilization, and modern civic and social problems, and the

Electives

i.e., the rest of the studies, will depend absolutely upon the student's aptitudes, interests, needs and aims in life. For instance, if the student is reasonably sure that he will go to college, normal, or technical school, his electives should be chosen with this particular aim clearly in view. If the student intends to go into business, he should take the commercial course. If he wishes to learn a trade, of course he will select industrial subjects, and take some of his work in a factory or in a shop as provided for by the part-time schools.[1] If he does not know what course to enter, the teachers should try to discover the student's dominant interests

[1] The Fitchburg Plan. See H. Schneider, Partial Time Trade Schools, Annals of Am. Acad. of Pol. & S.S., 1909, Volume XXXIII, pp. 50-55. See also J. S. Taylor, Handbook of Vocational Education, Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1914.

and capabilities by means of short courses in various subjects.

Although not exclusively, a large part of the school time should be devoted to vocational education or in discovering vocational aptitudes. The vocational instruction, however, will not crowd out the so-called cultural subjects. The instruction will be both cultural and vocational. But this is not all. It will develop social efficiency. It will help all to be better citizens and will aid each individual to enjoy life irrespective of vocation.

In the ideal high school the pupils, parents, and teachers working together will select the student's program. This is now done in Boston and Seattle. There is no uniform "course" for all individuals, but each student's nature, interests, and plans for the future are fully recognized and the studies are selected with these things in mind. The aim is to develop the pupil's interests and aptitudes. The largest liberty of choice is given to each student. The teachers and parents advise, the students choose, and the flexibility of the course makes

it possible for every individual, no matter what his talent may be, to receive the proper education and culture.

The "General High Schools" of Boston and the general courses of the Seattle High Schools are especially adapted to the nature and needs of adolescents. Aside from a very few required studies, each student's program depends solely upon his dominant interests and capacities. The characteristic features are (1) the limited elective system and (2) the flexibility of the courses of study. The required studies—English, Civics, and History—give some of the knowledge and training every American citizen should receive, while the electives give each individual an opportunity to discover and develop his dominant interests, which simply means each student has an opportunity to stress the subjects that will be of use later and to study problems closely related to our social, civic, and industrial life. The program is entirely flexible and offers numerous opportunities for a change of course as a student's inclinations are modified or his tendencies are

developed. Thus the individual is not made to fit the education, but the education is made to fit the individual.

Electives and Constants

It devolves upon the modern high school to teach not merely those subjects that give "culture" but it must give, as the Fitchburg schools do, instruction that will lead the student to become a self-supporting citizen in the community.

Appropriate vocational training will be provided to meet the capacities, interests and needs of all classes of students. Aside from the required studies—English, the history of civilization, and civic and social problems—all work will depend absolutely upon the individual student's natural aptitudes, capacities, interests, needs and aims in life. His interests and capacities will, of course, largely determine his needs or aims in life.

There are, it is true, many pupils in the high school who are in the finding process, and who

do not need or wish to select their future work. It is highly desirable that there be provided the best possible instruction in subjects that are likely to find the widest range of application in adult life. The vocational instruction and the elective studies together serve an excellent purpose in enabling the student to discover his tastes, ability, interests and in this way he is able to "find himself."

In having different courses for different students as many high schools have, it is recognized that what the Committee of Nine of the National Education Association in 1911 said is true, that "hard work is to be secured not by insistence upon uniformity of tastes and interests, but by the encouragement of special effort along lines that appeal to the individual."[2] Dr. W. H. Burnham says that "the child's mind can no more give attention to the absolutely uninteresting than the eye can perceive the ultra-violet rays of the spectrum."

The work of the high school should be spent mostly in developing dominant interests and

[2] Proc. N. E. A., 1911, p. 560.

should stress instruction tending toward the professional, industrial, business, or agricultural career in which the student is most interested. But the high school has another distinct function aside from the vocational. It must be deeply concerned not only in preparing for a vocation, but it must do its best to give some general culture and prepare for efficient citizenship.

It is scarcely necessary to give the reasons why all should study English, for I know of no first-class high school anywhere that does not require at least two or three years of every student who is to graduate. And when I mentioned on page 60 that history too should be required of all I was not stating a new view, for this study is already prescribed in the great majority of high schools throughout the country.[3]

Although the study of modern civic and social problems is not a required subject in every secondary school, some of the most progressive

[3] For justification of prescribing history we refer to Chapter VII of this book.

educators to-day think it should be. President Nicholas M. Butler of Columbia University, says: "The public education of a great democratic people has other aims to fulfill than the extension of scientific knowledge or the development of literary culture. It must prepare for intelligent citizenship." He says further, "We can leave questions as to the undulatory theory of light and as to Grimm's and Verner's laws to the specialist, but we may not do the same with questions as to production and exchange, as to monetary policy and taxation. The course of study is not liberal, in this country, that does not recognize these facts and emphasize economics as it deserves."

We should bear in mind that most students who enter high school never go to college, but within a few years become voters and have all the responsibilities of citizenship to discharge. In view of these facts, it is essential that the students should be required to study practical problems pertaining to society and government. They may not make great progress in the study of modern problems, but a little knowledge may

stimulate them to acquire more, and it will certainly give them a deeper interest in the welfare of their country and the well-being of their fellow citizens.

American statesmen always have in the past urged what many sociologists and educators are to-day vigorously contending, that because of our form of government, the people must have knowledge concerning political affairs. This contention is sound at present even more so than it was in the past because of the widespread adoption of the "Initiative and Referendum." Direct legislation by the people needs not only more political, but social and economic knowledge.

If the people become legislators or law-makers as they do under the Initiative and Referendum, they must be enlightened in the practical present-day problems pertaining to just legislation. It is absurd to think that it is possible to give an intelligent decision upon the laws that come before the people without social, political, and economic knowledge.

In answer to this contention some maintain

that the Initiative and Referendum may not be adopted in all the states. But even if this should be the case, the argument is still forceful, as these devices of government are already in full operation in nearly all municipalities throughout the country. Furthermore, such knowledge is needed to know whether or not the platforms of the various political parties are just, reasonable and otherwise desirable.

In order for the student "to work" as Dr. Hanus says, "for the continuous improvement and happiness of his race, his nation, and his own immediate community" the student must have social knowledge; he must have knowledge concerning the actual conditions, he must study the evils as well as the proposed remedies, and these are some of the reasons why all should study the social sciences.

We sincerely hope it will not be long before the high schools everywhere will follow the example of some of the secondary schools of the Middle West which lay great stress on, not only civic and social instruction, but on English literature and English expression, and the

history of civilization. This is ardently to be desired, for an education must not only help to make the individual self-supporting, but it must give culture and prepare the student for social service, and besides, it ought to train, as Dr. Eliot says, "some permanent capacity for productiveness or enjoyment and aid in the development of character."

Some attention could be devoted to civic and social questions along with the course in history, but perhaps to a greater extent could they be emphasized in connection with the course in English literature and English expression. Instead of reading all of the "English Classics" now required, some books might be studied dealing with the questions just mentioned. The students in their English course might, for example, study Towne's Social Problems or Ellwood's Sociology and Modern Social Problems. Many books are appearing now like these which deal with current problems in a practical and interesting manner. Such work would vitalize the high school English course, and in addition it would give the students valuable information.

Since physical training is not one of the formal studies, we did not include it in the small group of constants. Nevertheless, we believe it is extremely important for all, and should be "fostered not merely by gymnastic exercises and lectures on hygiene, but by a face to face study of, and experience with, the conditions of wholesome living,"[4] and this is more important than any one or all of the studies mentioned as required, for "the acquisition of knowledge may be deferred, but the demands of physical development cannot wait." This is in harmony with common sense and an eminent authority[5] who states further that "among the habits distinctly conducive to health must be reckoned active interests in nature, in outdoor sports, in varied forms of artistic activity, in social life, and social institutions."

Of course, we realize that in all knowledge

[4] David Snedden.

[5] This view is held by President Hall's most intimate collaborator, Dr. W. H. Burnham, in whom America has a brilliant exponent of scientific mental hygiene. See his contributions in Monroe's Cyclopedia of Education. Also School Review, Dec., 1897, pp. 652-666.

there is profit, and the wider the student's learning the better prepared he will be to do his best work, and that while the student must consider first his actual and immediate vocational needs, we should never lose sight of the fact that he should strive to secure some general culture, and become as nearly as possible socially efficient. However, we should bear in mind that the course of study will fulfill these aims but imperfectly and that other knowledge and other culture are desirable, not only in a general way but also as bearing directly upon his success in life.

Intelligent people everywhere recognize the importance of personal culture and social efficiency, but how are they to be attained? In nearly every important meeting of high school men this question is discussed: What studies are best for these purposes? May the student become cultured and socially efficient by studying the foreign languages and mathematics, or by receiving instruction in the branches having a direct bearing on the conduct and problems of life? Neither, it is generally conceded will

necessarily make a person cultured and socially efficient, but according to a large and increasing number of eminent authorities, literature, history, and modern civic and social problems are undoubtedly some of the chief sources.

While the classics, other foreign languages, and mathematics may be important to some students for some purposes, personal culture and social efficiency (which will, broadly speaking, contribute, both directly and indirectly, to the individual's vocational efficiency) may be promoted better by developing a permanent interest in reading the best literature and in studying modern civic and social problems and the essential facts of the history of civilization.

Dr. Chas. W. Eliot, who for forty years was President of Harvard University, in his monograph entitled Education for Efficiency and The New Definition of the Cultivated Man, after speaking of the increased importance of character and the power of literary appreciation and expression says: "The next great element in cultivation . . . is acquaintance with some part of the store of knowledge which hu-

manity in its progress from barbarism has acquired and laid up. This is the prodigous store of recorded, rationalized, and systematized discoveries, experiences, and ideas. . . . It is too vast for any man to master, though he had a hundred lives instead of one; and its growth in the nineteenth century was greater than in all the thirty preceding centuries put together. In the eighteenth century a diligent student with quick powers of apprehension and a strong memory need not have despaired of mastering a large fraction of this store of knowledge. Long before the end of the nineteenth century such a task had become impossible. Culture, therefore, can no longer imply a knowledge of everything—not even a little knowledge of everything. It must be content with general knowledge of some things, and a real mastery of some small portion of the human store. Here is a profound modification of the idea of cultivation which the nineteenth century has brought about."

Dr. Eliot then asks this question: "What portion or portions of the infinite human store

are most proper to the cultivated man?" and answers it by saying: "Those which enable him, with his individual personal qualities to deal best and sympathize most with nature and with other human beings. It is here that the passion for service must fuse with the passion for knowledge."

Now does it not seem almost self evident that the student who has acquainted himself with English literature, the history of civilization, and practical problems in civics, economics and sociology, "has a better chance of fusing the passion for knowledge with the passion for doing good" than the student who has neglected these studies?

From the standpoint of social service, the study of these branches equips the student, as nothing else can, academically, for an active, useful, earnest and profitable life, and anything like a mastery of these studies brings with it a high degree of culture, according to the definition formulated by Dr. Eliot.

To sum up: If a student expects to enter a profession he should take studies bearing in

some way on that particular profession, but in addition he should study English literature and expression, some phases of the history of civilization, and at least a few practical problems in sociology and government.

If the student is interested in agriculture and intends to become a farmer obviously he should take the agricultural course. But although he intends to be a farmer he must assume the duties of citizenship, and herein lies the reason for studying the subjects I have just mentioned.

If the student intends to become a merchant he should take the business or commercial course; but he too should study the subjects that are regarded as useful to all, for the merchant like the farmer has to discharge the duties of citizenship.

If the student in high school decides to learn a trade, of course he will enter one of the industrial courses. So we might go on naming courses, but the real point is simply this: The course for each individual will depend exclusively upon the student's interests, capabilities, needs and aims in life. But no matter what

his interests and capacities are; no matter what his needs and aims in life may be; no matter what trade or profession he may enter; no matter what vocation he may pursue; he must become a self-respecting citizen; he must be trained in the work of genuine citizenship; and herein lies the reason for requiring all to study English literature and expression, the history of civilization, and practical problems in sociology and government.

It is evident that not only social efficiency or citizenship, but also general culture demands that instruction in these branches be required. These subjects have cultural value in themselves and practical worth for life. The reason why they should be taught to everybody is because they are supremely useful to everybody. They will not only contribute to each citizen's usefulness but also to each citizen's happiness regardless of his probable vocation. These studies prove their worth and justify themselves by their fruits.

Now let us state our general conclusion as concisely as possible. In order to be self-sup-

porting, each individual should take studies bearing either directly or indirectly on some trade, occupation, or profession. But no matter what vocation a student is to follow he must become a citizen, and should be trained for genuine citizenship, which necessitates active participation in human affairs, and it is also extremely desirable that he should secure some "general culture." Therefore every pupil, sometime during the high school course, should be required to pursue three studies and their correlates, namely: (1) English literature and English expression, (2) the essential facts of the history of civilization, and (3) practical problems pertaining to society and government. Many other studies are desirable, interesting and stimulating and what they should be will depend solely upon the nature, interests and capacities, needs and aims in life of each particular student, but the three required courses just enumerated are absolutely essential, indispensable to every cultured, socially efficient citizen. The three studies were selected first, with reference to the knowledge they will give;

and second, with reference to social efficiency, and the value of the culture their mastery will bring. The constants will help to make the student socially efficient and "self-respecting" while the electives will give the student a chance to "find himself" and an opportunity to stress vocational training if he so desires, thus helping him to become vocationally efficient and therefore "self-supporting."

CHAPTER V

REQUIRED SUBJECTS: THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The study of practical problems pertaining to society[1] and government will not only tend to make one cultured, but will tend to make one socially efficient. We admit that in all knowledge there is some culture, but the culture obtained in studying modern problems relating to politics and sociology is of a kind which nothing else can claim to give, while the practical use of such a course is by no means small, even if we confine the study to the elementary problems and measure the value by the strictest of utilitarian rules. Besides, the study of sociology and government will help one to get the most out of life, not only by contributing to the en-

[1] See G. W. Bate, An Experiment in Teaching a Course in Elementary Sociology. School Review, May, 1915.

joyment of leisure, but also by creating both the desire and ability to share effectively in making others better and happier. This study will arouse one's interest, and will give one insight into our municipal, state, and national institutions, our political, industrial, commercial and educational affairs. If presented in the right way, it will help any person to work better with his fellowmen for the continuous improvement and happiness of his race, his nation, and his own immediate community. There are, then, two important things that work in this field will do for the individual: (1) It will help him to enjoy life and prepare him for duty, and (2) it will give him a desire to participate intelligently in the world's work and to render genuine social service, and what else can the study of society and government give that can in any way compare with the sincere desire to have even a small share in solving some of the problems of civilization?

Dr. Hall[2] maintains that "the one word now written across the very zenith of the educa-

[2] Educational Problems, II, 667.

tional skies, high above all others, is the word service. This is coming to be, as it should be, the supreme goal of all pedagogic endeavor, the standard by which all other values are measured. It includes the highest of all duties. The individual is an end to himself only that and in so far as he may be a means of helping his fellow men. . . . We serve God best by serving mankind. . . . We save our souls most surely by saving our fellow beings to the best that is possible in this life. . . . It is those that do most for the race that will shine as the stars forever and ever. . . . This, indeed, is the new religion of to-day, which lies concealed in the old and is now standing forth revealed. The hope of this new dispensation is the most precious of all the deepest and best aspirations of the present, and its progressive realization is the purpose of all modern reforms. Its beginning in this direction in the field of education is so full of the hope and promise of better things. . . . that we cannot lose heart" in spite of ineffective pedagogic agencies for teaching practical problems in sociology and govern-

ment. "The civilized world is realizing as never before that all who live for themselves live in vain. The very best thing the schools are now beginning to do is to inculcate some knowledge of, and sympathy with, the simple duties of civic virtue, which is the prime requisite of a good social order. But this is a hard lesson and must be begun early and taught late, in season and out of season. The cause of civic righteousness is so vast and all-conditioning, especially in a democracy, that it often makes feeble and untrained minds fanatics who discredit the very cause they would advance; but we are slowly if surely learning temperance and moderation and are finding the broad middle way of permanent progress. We are learning that, whether in history or romance, the names that shine with the fairest and brightest light and last longest are those that have done most service. The great moments in great lives are those when the supreme choice is to be made between self and the welfare of others, and the best criterion of supreme manhood and womanhood is when the latter prevails. More

and more enlightened public opinion is coming to distinguish between those who live for themselves and those who live and die by the gospel of helpfulness. Measured and judged by this criterion, many moral values are being transvalued. Some of the great and rich are revealed as small and mean, while obscure and poor lives shine with new glory. Here we have the basis for a new order of nobility which all may enter by merit. Indeed, without this new spirit, knowledge itself may be a niggardly thing and a more refined form of self-indulgence. It must not be hoarded or stowed away in tombs only, but dispensed and brought to bear where it will do most good.[3]

"Many of our rich men are now diligently and earnestly seeking new modes of public helpfulness and finding new needs. Men and women with leisure, strength, and youth are devoting themselves to social welfare in numbers and with an enthusiasm hitherto unknown, and we need not go to France or Japan, where civic virtue and patriotism have been deliberately

[3] G. S. Hall's Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 672.

made the only religion of the state, to find a large and growing rich literature upon the new duties of man to man. We are now happily demanding more and better things of the family, the school, the state, and the church than they are now doing. . . . Public sentiment is becoming wiser and better. We are testing ourselves as well as our institutions by this new touchstone of service. It is the modern version of the judgment-day function. Its still small voice is now murmuring in the ears of all who can hear and it is asking each, 'What are you doing to help the world, you, here, and now to make those you come in contact with better and happier? . . .'

"The basis of all education for citizenship is to rectify and broaden the group spirit and prevent its degeneration, to which the pathology of the crowd shows it is so prone. Hoodlumism should be set forth and kept down; social, civic, and charitable institutions should be described and visited if possible, as is indeed now done in some places, even with the upper grammar

grades. . . . Muncipal leagues, social service movements, junior republics, school and garden cities, should be at least told of in the school, and boys especially be sympathetically taught how their own municipality is governed, and no longer leave school, in almost utter ignorance of the above things, for the life of the community does not go through the school. . . . Perhaps stress upon the machinery of government, especially that of the nation, should be mainly reserved for the high school, but here at the very latest, this instruction should be stressed and, if possible, be made the work of the best teacher, perhaps the specialty of the principal. Here, too, the work of good government clubs, civic leagues, and their national federation, the ethics of taxation, the obligation and responsibilities of wealth, the duties of the ballot, something about public works, epoch-making bills, arbitration, conservation, public lands, administration, economy, basal principles of thrift, personal, domestic, city and national, should be emphasized. Indeed, these things

should now be taught with almost religious, if not pentecostal fervor."[4]

"Our schools were established to give an intelligent basis to government of, by and for the people, and in civics we are restoring the school to its prime original function, the need of which has greatly increased by reason of the growing complexity of governmental machinery." Our voting public is changing continually, due to the great forces existing in our modern cities. Our boys and girls must be fitted for service in this complex life. "The civic movement would make every school and university a solidarity of mutual helpfulness, would arouse and capture the very greatest power for good

[4] G. S. Hall's Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 678.

Nicholas M. Butler, President of Columbia University in his book The Meaning of Education, p. 91 (Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1904), makes this significant statement: "In a democracy at least an education is a failure that does not relate itself to the duties and opportunities of citizenship. . . . In society as it exists to-day the dominant note running through all of our struggles and problems, is economic, what the old Greeks might have called political. Yet it is a constant fight to get any proper teaching from the economic and social point of view put before high-school and college students."

that exists in the world, which is the enthusiasm of youth. Civics is a virile subject and appeals most to boys and should always be taught by public-spirited men. It should re-enlist the interests of boys at the age when most now leave school, in continuing it. Some contend that themes of burning present zest should be excluded from the school because their lessons cannot be given without partisanship; while others maintain that both sides of every public question might be stated impartially. It has been found practical sometimes to have representatives of both sides present their views to high school students. Surely the school cannot be a place where nothing of vital present concern is taught. Citizenship is the only profession which all young men should be trained for. Teachers have frequently of late entered the arena of politics for their own interests, why should they not do so for those of their pupils?"[5]

Since social, economic, and political interests

[5] G. S. Hall's Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 677.

now occupy the center of the stage [6] would the state which supports the high school, ask too much if it demanded that every high school graduate know something of all, if not all of any one, of such topics as the referendum, the recall of officials, the primaries, the caucus, direct nominations, court procedure; delays; juries; free legal as well as medical and religious advice for the poor; public utilities and movements; the tariff, free food, and raw material; compulsion by warrants of all able-bodied citizens to go to the polls to vote; the infamy of getting everything possible from, and giving nothing to the community; the expenses of elections; gerrymandering versus laying political districts by engineers; government by commission; taxation, its forms, land, direct, income, etc.; city, home rule; parcels post, currency and banking, trusts, stocks and bonds; public health, hygiene and its legislation, disease, child labor; habeas corpus; a bureau for the purchase of state supplies; creation of judges; garbage; pawn, junk and rag shops; sweating; bill-

[6] G. G. Hall's Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 677.

boards, and disfigurement by posters and 'ads'; immigration and its regulation, property and contracts; the problems of transportation; municipal research, police systems; fire, accident, life and other forms of insurance? Here we have a list of subjects which might be extended indefinitely. Since ignorance of such themes makes voting hardly better than illiteracy itself, may we not rightly ask: Are the high schools giving the hundreds of thousands of boys under their charge, whose education will go no farther, a square deal if they contribute nothing to make them better citizens and do not touch this highest domain of applied morality? This time of civic awakening constitutes a pedagogic opportunity too valuable to be lost. There is a new social consciousness abroad, the sentiment of which is: each for all and all for each.[7]

"The time will come when every unmarried young lady of leisure will be ashamed to devote all her time to the vanities of fashionable society and selfish amusements, but will feel it

[7] G. S. Hall's Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 678.

incumbent upon her to do something for others, to perhaps be a big sister to some one or more young girls who need her ministrations. Women's clubs, that now have in this country over 700,000 members, will instruct themselves in such topics as front door and window gardening among the poor, better housing, etc. We shall have many a 1915 or 1920 movement and shall multiply social settlements. Good citizens would be ashamed where there are city slums, filthy back yards, cesspools or plague spots, physical or moral, and will feel it a function not only of the boards of trade, but of all business leaders and other concerns to improve the civic conditions. The leaders of industry and commercial organizations are realizing that if a city is to be great in business, it must be great civically, as Pittsburg has realized in the no less than fourteen new agencies that have been established there to this end. This is the new standpoint of the citizen of the twentieth century, and intelligent public opinion and expert service must carry on the work."[8]

[8] G. S. Hall's Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 679.

"Conscience, current custom, and law often constitute three very different standards hard to harmonize on such problems unless it is profoundly realized that the public welfare is the supreme criterion.[9] . . . If we understand how most of the evils of our day come, not because the people do not mean well and wish the best, but because they are densely ignorant and do not know it; if we realize that we live in a civic renaissance when a new humanity and a wider philanthropy are abroad; if we recognize how flexible men and women must now be up to the very end of their lives in order to keep up with the times; if we would educate the whole boy; then we must not allow him to leave the high school uninoculated with at least an attenuated culture of such things, many if not most of them, and must give him a little of the orientation that hints can often implant forever at this plastic age. Teachers could cull from popular magazines a series of inspiring stories of the many cities which in recent years have arisen in their might to sweep

[9] G. S. Hall's Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 280.

away abuses, to clean up morally and physically, could tell of some of the magnificent concerted efforts which some large municipalities have made to control and direct their own further development along well-considered and unitary plans that look toward architectural, transportational, aesthetic and ethical harmony by rallying together of good men."[10]

"The school is the training ship for the ship of state and is freighted, like it, with all our hopes and fears, and on the fate of one we hang no less breathlessly than on the other. It is chartered by the people and plies between the river of childhood and the open sea of adult life. It should not be idly moored in shallow waters in some sheltered nook, but hoist anchor, spread sail, and boldly venture out where the tide and current buffet each other. It should teach not mere ship discipline, but the art and craft of sailing and this it cannot do without braving at least some of the slighter dangers of navigation in open seas. If the timorous counsels of safeness constitute our only wisdom,

[10] G. S. Hall's Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 681.

then every topic on which there are vital differences of opinion must be tabooed, and the school loses its vitality. . . . Civics in the above large sense must be the new religion of the secular schools. The old religion gave but the motive that created and, for centuries dominated, education through all its grades. . . . In the new civics, however, we have the best substitute, a philanthropic social religion. . . . We seem to be at the dawn of a new dispensation, imminent rather than transcendent." [11]

A Committee of the N. E. A. which made a report relating to the social studies [12] believes that the training of youth for citizenship must include instruction in economic questions that lie at the foundation of civic life. Emphasis is given to economic topics in the outline for "community civics" (see circular No. 5) and

[11] G. S. Hall's Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 682.

[12] U. S. Bureau of Education, Civic Education, Series No. 6, Civic Education in Secondary Schools (Abstract of Report of N. E. A. Committee on Social Studies continued from Civic Education Series, No. 5). Survey of Vocations and Economics.

opportunity is presented for much more than is directly suggested in the outline. The committee favors something of specific vocational bearing in the first year of the high school, and suggests a "survey of vocations."

"The committee has in mind (1) That the economic well-being of the individual and of the community is fundamental to good civic life, and that the youth needs help in finding a vocation for which he is fitted and by which he can render a maximum of service. (2) That, since every youth has an interest in the choice of his vocation, it serves as an effective avenue of approach to a study of the broader civic relations, many of which are clearly illustrated in industrial or economic life.[13]

In the fourth year the committee suggests a course to unfold the broader principles of economics further and more systematically than can be done in earlier courses. The committee is not ready to make precise recommendations as to its organization, or as to its

[13] Abstract of Report of N. E. A. Committee on the Social Studies.

articulation with the "advanced civics" of the same year and with the other social studies. The articulation should be as close and the study as concrete as possible, with special emphasis upon the divisions of consumption and production. H. R. Burch of the Manual Training High School of Philadelphia, and a member of the committee says:

"The high school work in economics should center around concrete problems. For instance, a discussion of the consumption of wealth can readily be focused upon the cost of the necessaries of life; the relation between wages and such costs; the standard of living of groups of people in the immediate neighborhood. Pupils can analyze expenditures of their own families to show the proportion devoted to food, rent, clothing, etc. They may formulate the expenditure of $1500 a year for a family containing. four children.

"On the side of production the best concrete material is that which relates to labor. Pupils can observe the characteristics of the labor in a given section of the city, or in a given indus-

try. In almost any manufacturing center their observations will lead directly into the problems of immigration, which is concrete and as vital as any question connected with the modern industrial system.

"Another subject for concrete analysis is the way in which labor is organized in different industries, the proportion of men who are common laborers, the proportion of those who are skilled, and the relation of these numbers to the number of higher officials. Conservation may be discussed in connection with the use of natural resources. In almost any section of the country pupils can observe the waste in agricultural land and in manufacturing processes. Constructive work may be done by showing how these wastes are utilized through conversion into forms commercially valuable.

"One of the most important developments of the next ten years in the work of the public schools will involve the closer correlation of school work and the industrial and commercial work of the districts in which the schools are located. Newspaper and magazine reading will

enable the students to take up some of the larger phases of economic life. The trusts can be studied; the tariff discussed. Labor legislation, pure food laws, and other forms of legislative control of industry can be emphasized. The social movements of the day form valuable topics for class discussion."

CHAPTER VI

REQUIRED SUBJECTS: (CONTINUED)—ENGLISH

Our efforts in regard to how to study and how to teach English "reminds us of the condition of many Christians described by Dante who strove by prayers to get nearer to God, when in fact with every petition they were departing farther from Him." According to G. Stanley Hall, the present degeneration in the command of the English language is due to four causes, namely: (1) too much time is devoted to foreign languages, (2) the study of literature and content is too often subordinated to language study and mere form, (3) reading and writing are too early substituted for hearing and speaking, (4) the growing preponderance of concrete words for designating things of sense and physical acts over and against

higher elements of language which deal with concepts, with ideals, and non-material things. In this chapter we shall consider the first three points.

First: One of the main reasons for poor English in high school is because of the excessive time given to other languages just at the psychological period of greatest linguistic plasticity and capacity for growth. Dr. Hall aptly says, "Very grave is the danger that the idiomatic use of the mother tongue will be destroyed by 'translation English.'" A boy pieces together into an English sentence, which is as weird as it is literal, a series of definitions, and tolerance of this style impairs his sentence sense and fine feeling for his mother tongue. He never learns to fuse the sense of it in a crucible of his own intelligence and to recast it in the most effective way which the genius of his own tongue makes possible. It is a psychological impossibility to pass through the apprenticeship stage of learning foreign languages at the age when the vernacular is setting without crippling it.

"There is little educational value—and perhaps it is de-educational—to learn to tell the time of day or name a spade in several different tongues or to learn to say the Lord's Prayer in many different languages, any one of which the Lord only can understand. Some declare it a shame for a boy to excel in Latin composition and in the high schools of Sweden and Norway it has been practically abandoned. Prime regard is had for what pupils will need as self-supporting, self-respecting, and efficient members of society. As a result illiteracy is, in Norway, a vanishing fraction of 1 per cent. The extremes are the youth in ancient Greece studying his own language only and the modern high school boy dabbling in three or four languages."

Although Dr. Hall is opposed to Latin as a required study in high school, nevertheless, he believes profoundly in it both as a university specialty and for all students who even approach mastery. It is for the vast numbers who stop studying the subject in the early stages of proficiency that he speaks; to these it

is disastrous to the vernacular. The psychology of translation shows that it gives the novice a consciousness of etymologies which rather impedes than helps the free movement of the mind. Dr. Jowett is of the same opinion. He said in substance that it is almost impossible to render either of the great dead languages into English without compromise, and this tends to injure the idiomatic mastery of one's own tongue, which can be got only by much hard experience in uttering our thoughts before trying to shape the dead thoughts of others in our language. We realize that this argument is sound if we compare the evils of 'translation English' which not even the most competent and laborious teaching can wholly prevent and which careless mechanical instruction directly fosters, with the vigorous fresh productions of a boy or girl writing or speaking of something of vital present interest.

Often the question is asked, "Has not Latin value merely as a 'linguistic discipline?'" In answering this question Dr. Conradi [1] says that

[1] See article on Latin in the Ped. Sem. for March, 1905,

Latin is a linguistic discipline is true, any language is, but whether it is the best, the most fruitful linguistic discipline for the high school student who knows only his mother tongue and who will drop Latin as soon as, or before, his high school course is ended, is a question that should be seriously considered.

Says C. W. Eliot, "It is a waste to society and an outrage upon the individual to make the boy spend the years when he is most teachable in a discipline the end of which he can never reach when he might have spent them in a different discipline, which would have been rewarded by achievement.[2] Our literatures the world over . . . are so rich, so full of thought, feeling, and action, that there is no time to waste . . . upon lifeless material, when we may be occupying ourselves in those exercises and for the same purpose of discipline, with material that enriches the human mind and refines and touches the human heart. Modern

by Dr. Edward Conradi, now President of Florida State College.

[2] C. W. Eliot, Educational Reform, p. 117, The Century Co., 1901.

education in its adjustment is bringing the child into its literary inheritance in a new spirit."

"The modern world has developed a culture of its own. . . . The first question," says Dr. N. M. Butler, "to be asked of any course of study is, 'Does it lead to a knowledge of our contemporary civilization?' If not, it is neither efficient nor liberal." "Culture," said O. W. Holmes, "in the form of fruitless knowledge, I utterly abhor."

One of the chief reasons advanced for giving Latin such a prominent place in the high school is that the English vocabulary is so largely derived from Latin. We have, it is true, many words from the Latin directly, or through the French. An exact estimate of the foreign element in our language is impossible, but roughly speaking, about two-fifths, according to one authority[3] of the words found in the English dictionary are derived from Latin. The contributions of the Latin language to the English are next in importance and amount to those of

[3] Dr. C. D. Staples, A Critique of High School Latin. Ped. Sem., Dec., 1912.

the Anglo-Saxon. It is interesting to note here that 96 per cent of the words of Chapters, I, IV, and XVII of the Gospel according to John, and 87 per cent of the words used by Longfellow in writing Miles Standish are Anglo-Saxon.

When we consider the number of words derived from Latin we naturally assume that the study of Latin is very important to the high school student, but when we learn that the "2000 Latin words studied in the high school do not at all fairly represent the Latin element in English speech," and especially when we learn that "only 99 words out of the entire 2000 Latin words studied in the complete four-year high school course are worth studying because they throw light and information upon English words," [4] do we not modify our views in regard to the importance of Latin as a required study in high school.

We are coining and borrowing words every day from foreign languages, but with all of its borrowings English has remained true to itself and no amount of study of Latin grammar can

[4] Dr. C. D. Staples, A Critique of High School Latin, Ped. Sem., Dec., 1912.

give us the force of living English idiom. The structure of English is English. Latin and Greek are "incidents or accidents, not necessities" of our mother tongue, in fact "no language is a model for another." For the ordinary boy or girl the inflections and conjugations of the foreign languages are "simply a millstone around the neck." Not "fossil grammar, but living speech is a matter for education." "Latin has no more shaped the English tongue than Rome has built the Saxon heart or made the Saxon arm. English grammar is soundly Anglo-Saxon run through the sieve of the mind that never had a Latin bent." [5]

A few years' study of Latin in the high school does not necessarily give one a command of an English vocabulary. "Statistical studies show that five hours a week for a year give command of but a few hundred words, that two years do not double this number, and that the command of the language and its resources in the original is almost never attained, but that it is abandoned not only by the increasing per-

[5] Dr. Alexander F. Chamberlain.

centage who do not go to college, but also by the increasing percentage who drop it forever at the college door."[6] Latin is a language so different from ours that it presents baffling difficulties to the young beginner. Paulsen thinks this difference is an obstacle which can be overcome only by an exclusive sojourn for many years in the world of antiquity.

Speaking of "the acquisition of a competent knowledge of English" Dr. C. W. Eliot says: "Indeed there is no subject in which competent guidance and systematic instruction are of greater value." He believes, however, that the study of Latin is not an effective way to acquire a "competent knowledge of English."[7]

Dr. Conradi[8] contends that we ought to let the high school student study the English words in their natural habitat as they live among other words, in poetry and in prose, instead of worshiping their ancestors. The history of

[6] Youth, p. 242.

[7] C. W. Eliot, Educational Reform, pp. 99-100, Century Co., 1901.

[8] Ped. Sem., March, 1905.

a word has little meaning for him until he knows the word in its present use, then and then only can derivation have value. Suppose a pupil knows the etymology of a word; suppose he does know the Latin meaning of *res* and *publica;* does that give him the meaning of the word "republican" as used to-day?

Moreover, says Dr. Conradi, must the student worry through all the intricacies of Latin grammar with its innumerable rules and countless exceptions in order to know a little about the meaning that the Romans attached to the word virtue? Some of the noblest interpretations of such words have been given by men and women who never wrestled once, neither with a Latin ablative nor with a Latin subjunctive. Is it not of more importance that the pupils should know the force of a word in current use?

The roots that the student finds by the long and wearisome Latin road are often not appreciated because of the company in which they are found. Moreover, language did not begin with Latin nor was it created in any other

period of the past. It is being created now as well as in the past ages. It is ever changing; and this living, ever-creating activity is of vital importance and not the burnt cinders of ages past. Whatever value they may have, they do not represent our language.

"Language as used on the platform, and in the pulpit, by the common laborer, and by the press, as used by the writers and singers of this age . . . when intellect is at white heat, and passion in its every throe . . . that represents the language of to-day. Such language studied in the height of its activity gives the true meaning of words. Whether the word was borrowed from Latin, from Greek, from Hebrew, or Choctaw, it now is English, and as English we study it; the etymology is a secondary matter. This idea was recognized by the makers of the Standard Dictionary when they placed the etymology after the definition."[9]

Second: Another reason for poor results in English is that too often literature and content are subordinated to language work. The

[9] Dr. A. F. Chamberlain.

teachers of English are often critical rather than creative, Dr. Hall asserts. They prefer the minute and careful reading of a few masterpieces to a wide general knowledge, whereas the way to teach language, he contends, is to focus the mind upon story, history, oratory, drama, Bible, for their esthetic, mental and above all their moral content. And it is this wide, sympathetic, general knowledge that the youthful mind chiefly seeks.

"Oral and written vents for interests so intense that they must be told and shared, are what teach us how to command the resources of our mother tongue. The prescriptions and corrections and consciousness of the manifold ways of error are never so peculiarly likely to hinder rather than to help as in early adolescence, when the soul has a new content, and a new sense for it, and so abhors and is so incapable of precision and propriety of diction."[10]

"We see its results in the ultra-fastidious effusions of many writers for college journals, whose art culminates in the over-refined elabor-

[10] Youth, p. 245.

ation of some petty trifle, all form and no content.[11] . . . Some want everything done in a minute and exact way. How different all this from the standpoint of those who believe in consulting human nature and needs.[12] . . . The graces of speech and reading aloud and story telling are too often subordinated."[13]

Teachers must guide, incite, provide, prescribe, allure by story, reading lists, display of books, and by reading aloud, says Dr. Hall. Moreover, he declares, "The current detailed study of a few standard texts I believe to be often pernicious. To be intensive, reading must be extensive and rapid enough to sustain interest to the end. There should always be a glow and heat about it. Form is best impressed by eager zest in the subject matter which should always lead. Reading for philological or rhetorical study of texts is for pretty mature men and women and not for youth and still less for children."

[11] G. S. Hall, School Review, Dec., 1901, p. 658.
[12] Ibid., p. 658.
[13] Ibid., p. 659.

"School pressure should not suppress the instinct of omnivorous reading, which at this age sometimes prompts the resolve to read encyclopedias, and even libraries, or to sample everything to be found in books at home. Along with, but never suppressing it, there should be some stated reading, but this should lay down only kinds of reading or offer a goodly number of alternative groups of books and authors and permit wide liberty of choice to both teacher and pupil. Few triumphs of the uniformitarians, who sacrifice individual needs to mechanical convenience in dealing with youth in masses, have been so sad as marking off and standardizing a definite quantum of knowledge in this great field. The wide acceptance of requirement books and authors mark a pedagogic decadence as one of the most disastrous triumphs of mechanism and convenience over mental needs." [14]

When the public high school really becomes, as it surely will, the people's college, permeated with ideals of fitting for life, which is very

[14] G. S. Hall, School Review, Dec., 1901, p. 660.

different from fitting for college, then secondary education will become truly democratic; it will have plenty of local color and fitting for college will become, as Dr. Jordan well says it should be, a mere incident. The public high school will say to the college, 'Fitting is not our chief business; you are not our pacemaker; our business is to do the best we can for the youth at this stage; take our finished product or leave it, but if either of us bend, it must be the college.'

"Reading for style or even with chief attention to it is for young students an affectation. I would have at least half a dozen plays of Shakespeare in the same time now usually devoted to one. To study Ivanhoe, instead of passing on to the other of Scott's novels after having once read it, is working with dulled tools. Did this critical study of one of anyone's works ever prompt the student to read another by the same author?"

The time for critical reading has not yet come, and that for philology is still farther ahead. The best thing youth gets from literature is not linguistic and is not examinable; content

should be forever uppermost, for only then can the other culture effects here sought be attained.

"The psycho-genetic theory gives a new and higher psychology and pedagogy of reading not yet worked out in detail, but the outlines of which can already be roughly indicated somewhat as follows: Its supreme function is not utilitarian, or to help us in all vocational bread-winning activities in life, important as this is, but it is humanistic, cultural, liberal. It should aim to give vent to all possibilities of the soul, most of which otherwise slumber through life and perhaps atrophy.[15] . . . A book, or sometimes an article, at the right moment has often changed the current of a whole lifetime."[16]

"The chief thing and the best I got from my college course," says Dr. Hall, "was due to a series of reading fevers, stimulated by a group of nine classmates called the Junto, who met weekly to pool the results of their reading. There was almost no class of English literature that we did not sample . . . and the farther we

[15] Educational Problems, II, p. 482.
[16] Ibid., p. 483.

got from the curriculum the better work we did and the more we knew. . . . I never could pass an examination on any one of all these works as examinations now go, nor scores and perhaps hundreds of others that have flown lightly through my mind as diversions any more than I could on all the plays I have seen in the theater, but I would not exchange this habit of desultory reading in a field outside my specialty for the schoolbred habit of accurate and painstaking familiarity with a few things such as professors of literature inculcate, for this would greatly slow down my pace and cool my ardor."

Dr. C. W. Eliot says, "From the total training during childhood there should result in the child a taste for interesting and improving reading, which should direct and inspire its subsequent intellectual life. . . . Guided and animated by this impulse to acquire knowledge, the individual will continue to educate himself all through life. Without that deep-rooted impulsion he will soon cease to draw on the accumulated wisdom of the past and the new resources of the present; and as he grows older,

he will live in a mental atmosphere which is always growing thinner and emptier. . . . Do we not all know many people who seem to live in a mental vacuum—to whom, indeed, we have great difficulty in attributing immortality, because they apparently have so little life except that of the body? The uplifting of the democratic masses depends on this implanting at school of the taste for good reading."

The pupils should write themes occasionally, but they should never be compelled to say anything unless they have something to say. In order to write well, they must have something definite in mind that presses for utterance: ideas to set forth, knowledge to impart, feelings to utter, convictions to state, experiences to describe, facts or thoughts to put down, otherwise literary efforts are but verbiage. Whenever children speak and especially write without a very real and urgent content, they are demoralized and their education is anti-social. The habit of utterance without having something that presses for expression undermines

the foundation of honesty between man and man, and loosens the social bond.[17]

"If the pupils read, it must be what absorbs and carries them along, be what their curiosity burns to know. They must be impelled by some strong interests and impulses characteristic of youth. If there are plenty of these things the big P's of the rhetorics—purity, precision and propriety—come of themselves untaught or are inculcated by the method that suffices for genius, whether in teacher or taught —viz., that of hints. Some familiarity with the best contemporary writers whose pages burn with the problems of the present and that strike home by their inherent appeal and to approach which it is not necessary to waste half of the energies of the teacher in getting and keeping up interest, gives a culture which is not a sickly cellar plant and which does not desiccate when school is abandoned."[18]

In his "Educational Problems" Dr. Hall makes a strong plea for the study of contem-

[17] G. S. Hall.
[18] Ibid.

porary writers and modes of expression. He says, "As for Burke, Macaulay, Addison, now so often required, their language and style would not be tolerated in Congress, in a modern historical society, nor in a history journal. . . . Youth has its own lingua franca, crispy, condensed, pointed, picturesque, staccato, and its nature and needs fit the ponderous Latin style of the above English authors as Saul's armor fitted young David. As for Scott, he should be read rapidly as romance and not studied in a detailed way as literature."

Dr. David Snedden is of the same opinion as Dr. Hall for he says in a recent contribution, "Certainly the possibilities of literature teaching are very great. Should not the teachers see that the material chosen and the methods of presentation are such as will bring the children to a better appreciation of the literature and reading by which they will be surrounded later in life and leave them in a condition to demand the slightly better rather than the slightly worse? Should not the teacher deal much with the best of our current magazines

and newspapers? Should he hold aloof from the current fiction, in view of the certainty that it will form the staple reading after these boys and girls leave school? This is no defense of the poor and cheap in literature or art; it is simply a statement of the now accepted pedagogical truth that education proceeds most effectively by utilizing the best materials of the environment, in such a way as best to fit the pupil for the environment in which he will spend his adult life."

One of the most important of all educational services of the near future is to re-write and re-edit [19] all the world's great literatures upon all themes; for the student is to-day confronted by a mass of literature and must read for dear life or he is swamped. . . . For the most alert, the function of judicious epitomes, reviews, year-books, etc., is increasingly necessary. Every scientific journal should stress the development of résumés of both books and articles, and indeed owes a duty if not its very *raison d'être* largely in this direction. As it is, there

[19] Genetic Philosophy of Education, p. 233.

is much wastage of work done over and over again by those who did not know that others before them had covered their ground and reached their own conclusions.[20] In Germany "many careful digests of great standard works have been made embodying salient phrases and quotations from the original, epic and lyric poetry, exploration, adventure, biography, and even jests and humorous tales, which must be read as part of the course in literature with a little of it studied in detail and memorized —all this marks a new and important step toward the practical solution of the great problem of language and literature in secondary education." [21]

Third: We might get better results in our English work if reading and writing were not too early substituted for hearing and speaking. "It is hard and, in the history of the race, a late change to receive language through the eye which reads instead of through the ear which hears.[22] . . . The invention of letters is a

[20] Educational Problems, II, pp. 486-487.
[21] G. S. Hall, Ped. Sem., Mar., 1902, p. 101.
[22] Youth, p. 246.

novelty in the history of the race that spoke for countless ages before it wrote. . . . The book is dead and more or less impersonal, best apprehended in solitude, its matter more intellectualized; it deals in remoter second-hand knowledge so that Plato reproached Aristotle as a reader, one removed from the first spontaneous source of original impression and ideas; the doughty medieval knights scorned reading as a mere clerk's trick, not wishing to muddle their wits with other people's ideas when their own were good enough for them. . . ."

"The printed page must not be too suddenly or too early thrust between the child and life. The plea is for more oral and objective work, more stories, narratives, and even vivid readings, as is now done statedly in more than a dozen of the public libraries of the country, not so often by teachers as by librarians, all to the end that the ear, the chief receptacle of language, be maintained in its dominance, that the fine sense of sound, rhythm, cadence, pronunciation, and speech-music generally be not

atrophied, that the eye which normally ranges freely from far to near be not injured by the confined treadmill and zig-zag of the printed page." [23]

"Closely connected with this, and perhaps psychologically worse, is the substitution of the pen and the scribbling fingers for the mouth and tongue. Speech is directly to and from the soul. Writing, the deliberation of which fits age better than youth, slows down its impetuosity many fold, and is in every way farther removed from vocal utterance than is the eye from the ear. Never have there been so many pencils, and such excessive scribbling as in the calamopapyrus [24] pedagogy of to-day and in this country. Not only has the daily theme spread as an infection, but the daily lesson is now extracted through the point of a pencil instead of from the mouth." [25]

"Of course the pupils must write, and write well, just as they must read, and read much;

[23] G. S. Hall, Youth, p. 247.
[24] Pen-paper.
[25] G. S. Hall, Youth, p. 247.

but English suffers from insisting upon this double long circuit too early and cultivating it to excess; it devitalizes school language and makes it a little unreal, like other affectations of adult ways, so that on escaping from its thraldom the child and youth slump back to the language of the street as never before.'' [26]

''This is a false application of the principle of learning to do by doing. The young do not learn to write by writing, but by reading and hearing. For the young the spoken should have constant precedence over written words. Language does its social function best in free conversation between pupils and teacher, provided, only the topics and methods are well chosen, and the teacher's mind is full to overflowing. Nothing so sharpens the mind and quickens thought as seeking and finding facts and truths in common. To become a good writer one must read, feel, think, experience, until he has something to say that others want to hear. The golden age of French Literature, as Gaston Deschamps and Brunetière have

[26] Cf. G. S. Hall, School Review, Dec., 1901, p. 659.

lately told us, was that of the salon, when conversation dominated letters, set fashions, and made the charm of French style. Its lowest ebb was when bookishness led and people began to talk as they wrote. The best literature is fashioned on the best conversation, while if talk becomes bookish, it loses vitality."[27]

[27] G. S. Hall.

CHAPTER VII

REQUIRED SUBJECTS: (CONTINUED)—HISTORY

WHY should all students be required to study at least some phases of history from prehistoric times to the present? What is the value or the purpose of history? What can and should it do for the student? What phases of history should be emphasized and, finally, what methods should be employed in teaching the subject? We shall discuss these questions in the order stated.

I. THE VALUE OF HISTORY

The study of history is valuable because of the knowledge gained, and especially so if the essential facts of selected subjects are emphasized. And this some contend is the funda-

mental purpose. We are told that in addition to getting a general view of universal history we ought to emphasize certain "mountain peaks"—we ought to form, if possible, an adequate conception of the most notable things done by the human race. But "what for" it may be asked. Surely the study of history is not merely to know what has happened and what man has accomplished in all fields of human endeavor, although this is highly desirable. Truth for truth's sake, or history for history's sake is important. We get considerable pleasure just in knowing facts and knowing that we know. But we cannot stop here. Knowledge must be applied.

Educators who believe in the new pedagogy contend, and you have heard the statement over and over again, that the study of the past helps us to sympathize with, to explain and to appreciate the present, and aids in solving contemporary problems pertaining to sociology, economics, and government. By learning of the successes and triumphs of the past in these fields of knowledge, we may profit by them, and

by learning of the mistakes and failures, we may avoid them. Dr. Jordan tells a story in one of his books[1] about a "Chinese emperor who decreed that he was to be first; that all history was to begin with him, and that nothing was to be before him. But we cannot enforce such a decree." For, says Dr. Jordan, "We are not emperors of China. The world's work and the world's experience does not begin with us. We must know the paths our predecessors have trodden, if we would tread them farther; we must stand upon their shoulders—dwarfs upon the shoulders of giants—if we would look farther into the future than they. . . . Science, philosophy, statesmanship, cannot for a moment let go of the past. The present we know, but we can know it thoroughly only in the light of the past. What has been must determine what is, and the present is bound to the past by unchanging law."

"Assuming that good citizenship and patriotism are the religion of the public school, should it not be our prime object to make in-

[1] D. S. Jordan, Care and Culture of Men, pp. 4-5.

telligent citizen voters, and lay the first stress upon duties to the state and society?"[2] Can this not be done through the study of history? The view that history should prepare students for citizenship "is greatly emphasized by the modern interest in sociology and the need of amelioration and reform and immensely re-enforced by the needs of modern political and social life."[3]

"Granted that history should give a growing self knowledge in the present living progressive age, can we truly fit for this except by living through all the important stages of the past and repeating each significant step by which the present was reached? . . . Indeed, is not fitting for life in the present, the best way of fitting for life in the ever larger future?"

But this is not all. Besides giving the student knowledge of facts and aiding him to see the value of the past in explaining the present, and helping him to solve the contemporary problems, thus making him a better citizen, his-

[2] G. S. Hall, Educational Problems, II, p. 285.
[3] Ibid. p. 285.

tory teaches the student "to think historically and helps him to acquire the habit of seeing all events in temporal perspective [4] as products of growth and development." [5] It shows him how the law of cause and effect works in human affairs. Even if the student is unable to remember many historical facts, he nevertheless "comes to see that one thing leads to another; he begins quite unconsciously to see that events do not simply succeed each other in time, but that one grows out of another, or rather out of a combination of many others. He thus acquires some power of seeing relationships and detecting analogies." [6]

Again, courses in history tend to establish habits of correct thinking and sound methods of study. And this is just as important as the accumulation of information. "In the ordinary class room, both in science and mathematics, there is little opportunity for discussion, for

[4] Cf. Professor Leroy F. Jackson's article, "A Single Aim in History Teaching" in History Teacher's Magazine, Oct., 1914.

[5] G. S. Hall, Educational Problems, II, p. 285.

[6] Report of Committee of Seven, pp. 21-22.

differences of opinion, for balancing of probabilities; and yet in every day life we do not deal with mathematical demonstrations, or concern ourselves with scientific observations; we reach conclusions, some of them in apparent conflict with one another, and none of them susceptible of exact measurement and determination."[7]

Courses in history not only "give training in acquiring facts, but in arranging and systematizing them and putting them forth as an individual product. . . . By means of the ordinary oral recitation if properly conducted, the student may be taught to express himself in well chosen words. In the study of foreign language, he learns words and sees distinctions in their meanings; in the study of science, he learns to speak with technical exactness and care; in the study of history, while he must speak truthfully and accurately, he must seek to find apt words of his own with which to describe past conditions and to clothe his ideas in a broad field of work which has no tech-

[7] Report of Committee of Seven, p. 22.

nical method of expression and no peculiar phraseology."[8]

All recognize the fact that the ability to gather "information is important, and this ability the study of history cultivates," but the ability to use information "is of greater importance," and this ability too is developed by historical work. If a student is taught "to get ideas and facts from various books, and to put these ideas and facts together into a new form, his ability to make use of knowledge is increased and strengthened. . . . He develops capacity for effective work, not capacity for absorption alone. History is also helpful in developing what is sometimes called the scientific habit of mind and thought. In a sense this may mean the habit of thorough investigation for one's self of all sources of information before one reaches conclusions or expresses decided opinions."[9] Although the student must accept the work of others, the scientific spirit gained through the study of history will lead

[8] Report of the Committee of Seven, p. 26.
[9] Ibid., p. 23.

him to study and examine many accounts and cause him to think long and hard on the subject under consideration before he positively asserts. In connection with this, a suggestion to the teacher might be added. He should point out the advantage of approaching every question without prejudice, and he should have the student learn that "open mindedness, candor, honesty, are requisites" for the attainment of exact knowledge.[10]

In view of these facts, a few authorities maintain, and I believe they are right, that history supplies a kind of intellectual training that can be secured in but few other ways. In accumulating ideas, facts and illustrations from history, by reading good collateral books and by constant efforts to re-create the real past and make it live again, the student enlarges his mind, cultivates his perception, stimulates and exercises his imagination, strengthens his memory, and trains his judgment. The student must weigh evidence, draw inferences, make comparisons, invent solutions, and form judg-

[10] Report of the Committee of Seven, p. 24.

ments.[11] He is thus trained in logical and philosophical reasoning.

Again the study of history trains in the use of books. It aids the student in learning how and where to find information. There is, perhaps, no study which offers such opportunities as history does for gaining facility in using books and in securing desired material, and this is a highly important result of historical study, for no man can be considered educated unless he knows how and where to find information. In fact, "the inability to discover what a book contains or where information may be found, is one of the common failings of the unschooled and untrained man."[12]

Furthermore, history, if presented in the right way, will inspire the student. He will

[11] If this be the value of history, much responsibility rests upon the teacher. The problem is to get the student "to weigh evidence, draw accurate inferences, make fair comparisons, invent solutions and form judgments;" this is the serious problem in teaching history as it is in all education for efficiency according to Dr. Eliot. (C. W. Eliot's Education for Efficiency and the New Definition of the Cultivated Man, p. 18, Houghton Mifflin Co., New York, 1909.)

[12] Report of the Committee of Seven, p. 25.

desire to go farther—to see and explore new fields; thus the habit of research and a taste for good reading will be cultivated. This aim, however, is not fulfilled at present, for too much time is devoted to "lesson setting and hearing" and there is "too much examination of the memory which always makes learning superficial. . . . Precious time is lost in hearing recitations which should be given to inspiring and suggesting."[13] If the student is compelled to make a minute analysis of the text and required to memorize much of it, he has little time for supplementary reading. Even when this method is not followed and when the student has time for collateral reading, often it is not suited to his interests and capacities. Books on the lives of great men and women should be studied diligently. If we are to establish the habit of research and cultivate a taste for good reading, we must allow the student more freedom in selecting his collateral reading and encourage him to relate the events

[13] G. E. Partridge, Genetic Philosophy of Education, p. 270.

in the classroom that appeal to him. The student will be stimulated to read more if he is permitted to tell of the things that are interesting, unusual, striking, and impressive.

Finally, history, when taught as it should be, instills in the mind of the student high ideals, gives a sense of appreciation, teaches morality by stimulating thought and interest in the moral behavior of men and races, develops a healthy philosophy of life, and thus aids in the formation and development of character. This is the point most emphasized by Dr. Hall in his discussion of the subject. He says that "there must be one dominant aim (in teaching history) to which all others, while not eliminated should be subordinated." If the high school teacher will "take his cue from the nature and needs of youth, the highest criterion of all educational value . . . the moral aim will be found fittest to be made supreme. This conclusion is not based chiefly on the fact that in every land the percentage of juvenile crime is both increasing and becoming more precocious, significant as this indication is of the general

need, but on the fact that ethical purposes by their very nature can best include and harmonize while they also overtop all others." [14]

"Especially at adolescence the moral purpose of history should never be lost from sight. It should determine every choice, both of method, and subject matter" in the history courses in high school. "History should so impress intelligence and will as to inspire to the greatest degree ideals of social service and unselfishness." [15]

"Does not history fill all, and must it not especially for the young suggest as its supreme lesson the power in man and nature that makes for righteousness, and is it not this that the progress of events from age to age reveals ever more clearly?" [16] Bunsen spoke of God in History.[17] Few would define history as Gibbon did when he called it a "record of crime, folly, and calamity. For Luther as for Salzmann, it was a thesaurus of inspiring ethical examples to

[14] G. S. Hall, Educational Problems, II, p. 286.
[15] Genetic Philosophy of Education, p. 267.
[16] G. S. Hall, Educational Problems, II, p. 296.
[17] Ibid., p. 296.

show how all got their deserts in the end. For Schmidt it was to illustrate God's ways in the world. For Thomas Arnold it demonstrated the power working for righteousness, and was to give a practical philosophy of life. For Droysen, it warns by showing the blindness, temptation and folly of men, and inspires them by contagion to the emulation of the greatest deeds of the greatest and best men of the past."[18] For Chas. W. Eliot, "History shows the young the springs of public honor and dishonor; sets before them the national failings, weaknesses and sins; warns them against future dangers by exhibiting the losses and sufferings of the past; enshrines in their hearts the national heroes and strengthens in them the precious love of country."[19]

Summary

There are several good reasons why all should study history:

First: This study is valuable because of the

[18] G. S. Hall, Educational Problems, Vol. II, p. 296.
[19] C. W. Eliot, Educational Reform, p. 105.

knowledge gained, and especially so if the essential facts of selected subjects are emphasized.

Second: It helps one to understand and to appreciate the present and aids in solving contemporary problems pertaining to sociology, economics, and government.

Third: History teaches the student to think historically and helps him to acquire the habit of seeing all events in temporal perspective, as the products of growth and development.

Fourth: It aids the student in establishing habits of correct thinking and sound methods of study, and supplies a most fruitful kind of intellectual training, which is fully as important as the accumulation of information.

Fifth: The study of history trains the student in the use of books, and this is a highly important reason for studying history, for no man is considered educated to-day who does not know how and where to find information.

Sixth: History, if presented in the right way, will inspire the student. He will desire to go farther—to see and explore new fields, and thus

the habit of research and a taste for good reading will be cultivated.

Seventh: It instills in the mind of the student high ideals, gives a sense of appreciation, teaches morality by stimulating thought and interest in moral behavior of men and races, develops a healthy philosophy of life, and thus aids in the formation and development of character.

II. METHOD IN HISTORY

Since the teacher should think more of quality than of quantity of work, and since quality and quantity of work rarely go together, the question naturally arises, what events and phases of history should be emphasized? There are so many facts to consider that the teacher has time only for the essentials. Events great in their consequences, it is generally conceded, should be selected and emphasized. Just facts that are characteristic should be stressed.

If we accept this, the next question to be answered is: From what field shall we select most

of the characteristic facts—from political history or from the history of civilization? Historians are beginning to agree that the former should not be emphasized as much as the latter. However, they do not contend that political history or that part of history dealing with wars, dynasties, and political parties should be eliminated, but that the history of civilization should receive far more attention than it has in the past; and, that the time devoted to political history should be greatly reduced.

Any fact of supreme importance in whatever field found should be selected and emphasized, for one should form, if possible, an adequate conception of the most notable things that have happened, and of what man has accomplished in all fields of human endeavor. Much time should be devoted to biography and social history. In the past the ordinary text-books, and consequently the schools, have stressed principally military history and politics. At present the concensus of educational opinion seems to be that our future courses should deal not merely with wars, politics and rulers, but rather

with the arts and occupations of peace, with science, morals, architecture, sculpture, painting, language, literature, religious ideas and institutions, commerce and industry, social and economic conditions, modern imperialism, social life and general culture, the humanitarian movements, education and philanthropy.

To-day, writers on the pedagogy of history are practically unanimous in asserting that wars especially have, in the past, received too much attention. Take the history of our own country, for example. "There was a time," according to a well-known authority,[20] "when textbooks indicated that the Revolution, the Mexican War, and the Civil War with a few connecting paragraphs, were about all that were necessary to record. Such treatment now seems ridiculous in the light of the splendid achievements of peace." The following statement taken from the preface of a recent textbook[21] indicates the present tendency of his-

[20] Professor Edmund S. Meany, Suggestions to Teachers in his United States History for Schools, Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1912.

[21] Hall, Smither and Ousley, Student's History of Our Country, Southern Publishing Co., Dallas, Texas, 1912.

torical writing: "Short biographical sketches of many of our great countrymen are given because the lives of leaders typify the people they lead. Deeds of heroism and human interest have been related as space would allow. The labors of peace no less than the strife of conflict show forth the spirit, the character, and the growth of a people, and particular stress is laid upon social and economic history as revealing the most potential forces in the evolution of a nation and the most important factors in the prosperity and happiness of its people."

Professors Hart and Channing maintain that there is no general method suited to all ages or circumstances or minds, or even to all parts of the subject. Perhaps the most fruitful method for pupils of the grammar school age and above is the "topical"—the assignment of very limited subjects on which pupils are to prepare themselves with special care, using a variety of material. The advantages of such a system are obvious: it breaks up the servile adherence to the limited text of a single book; it trains in the use of books, in the selection

of pertinent facts out of a mass of material; it leads to the comparison of authors, the explanation of discrepancies, the weighing of authorities; it adds life and interest to the work.

Dr. Hall emphasizes the importance of a text-book when he says: "While pleading for more and better oral narrative teaching we should surely always have a good text-book to anchor to;" [22] and in regard to the lecture method he maintains that "it is not so much the abolition of the lecture method that is wanted in the high school as the transformation from monologue to dialogue or a kind of active teaching that involves constant response and is punctuated with question and answer."

In most high schools, Dr. Hall thinks precious time is lost in hearing recitations which should be given to inspiring and suggesting. "Note taking with some dictation, if careful and judicious, is a grateful variant for the pupil and gives the teacher by simple inspection perhaps the best of all tests for promotion. The library,

[22] Educational Problems, II, p. 293.

collateral reading, with co-operative methods and efforts, learning to work together and to work for the common good, suggest also a much larger collection of books and a comparative use of them in every school and may mark a new epoch in the habits of study.'' [23]

''Too many maps, even large ones from the government, too incessant reference to geography, and especially too many pictures, lantern slides, perhaps games with historical cards, it seems to me, some authorities to the contrary notwithstanding, we can hardly have. Colored chronological charts of both universal history and that of special countries, genealogical schemes of dynasties and reigning families, statistical diagrams from the census department, curves of financial, industrial, and vital data, the cycle and spiral method—seems to be too little favored by The Committee of Seven.'' [24]

''Are not both the unit block and the intensive method involving any high degree of ac-

[23] Educational Problems, II, p. 293.
[24] Ibid., p. 293.

curacy and detail too academic and should the high school teacher have to think much of satisfying college entrance examinations? Is that teacher not a poor devil, in the printer's sense at least, who brings into much prominence the collecting of, and class work upon, old entrance examination papers?[25] Should he not sow a great deal of seed upon the waters which he never expects to see again in recitation or examination, and trust something to the intuitive apperceptive powers of the young?[26] Does not the examination type of memory often tend to keep things near the surface and in the merely cognitive stage that should sink deeper and at once affect conduct and character?"[27]

Although Dr. Hall is opposed to the examination type of memory, he nevertheless believes in the accumulation of significant facts. However, he contends it is not always necessary to arrange these facts in logical order, for he says that "some teachers have come to fear that the

[25] Educational Problems, II, p. 293.
[26] Ibid., p. 294.
[27] Ibid., p. 294.

pupil in the high school is actually in danger of accumulating a mass of undigested, unsystematized knowledge and perhaps to fancy that this peril is awful and ever impending. But have any of us ever seen a dangerous mass of knowledge in any youthful mind unless in the memory of a freak, and even then are we so oblivious to the laws of mental work and growth as to think that such a mass of erudition could exist in the mind without being assimilated in the child's manner, or that even if it were a floating plankton, our petty artificial devices of correlating, associating, linking can have any other possible effect than to prevent it from sinking deep into the soul and keeping it on the surface against the day of examination?" [28]

"History is a story to be told, not crammed." [29] "There should not be too much accuracy and detail in teaching, for this hampers the larger view. If the teacher follows this suggestion he should not be afraid of the charge

[28] Educational Problems, II, p. 295.
[29] Ibid., p. 300.

of being unsystematic and superficial, provided he can thus better convey his message" and approximately fulfill the aims of historical study. There is a place for superficiality, Dr. Hall thinks, which is not sufficiently recognized by high school teachers of history. "Connectedness, completeness and unity are not needed in the history work up to the time of college. Rather the striking, the impressive, that which may have the deepest moral effect, must be selected, and the dullness of sequences and casual chains avoided. The child must be affected, must absorb and imbibe, and there must not be too much learning of facts, nor training of the judgment and reason. . . . History must be made to impart the power that makes for righteousness. . . . The difference, at the greatest, is between learning a few dates and facts and having the mind filled with moral lessons and ideals which will remain as living forces throughout life, influencing conduct in fields very remote from all the lessons set or taught." [80]

[80] The Genetic Philosophy of Education, p. 269-71.

The assignments in history should be given in such a way that the students will know exactly what they are expected to learn. Aside from assigning a very few pages in the text, the teacher should point out some of the most important things for the students to stress in their collateral reading. He ought to give them something definite to do—a question to answer, a topic to discuss, an outline to make, a problem to solve. (Often half the recitation period should be devoted to debating some important historical question.) If the teacher assigns well-chosen topics, questions, and problems that are adapted to the capacity of the pupils and by requiring them to gather their information from various books, papers, and magazines the pupils are trained to collect historical material, to arrange it, and to put it forth. This practice, we repeat, develops capacity for effective work, not capacity for absorption alone.[31]

This thought cannot be repeated too often: The library, collateral reading, with co-operative methods and efforts, learning to work to-

[31] Report of the Committee of Seven, p. 23.

gether and to work for the common good, suggest also a much larger collection of books and a comparative use of them in every school. In assigning collateral reading, the teacher should ask the students to read books suited to their interests and capabilities, and those phases of history which have the deepest moral effect, as just mentioned, should be stressed. For this purpose the lives of great men and women should be studied in high school far more than they are at present.

"The use of the note-book to supplement and occasionally replace the former straight text-book course is largely an outgrowth of, or at least a close analogy to, the laboratory method of science. It grows out of an effort to make knowledge concrete and definite, first hand, and authoritative. The note-book has small use if notes are based entirely upon the text." When notes include a few extracts from "source and parallel reading, illustrations, and corrective and supplementary comments by teacher, with best of all some reflections and comparisons by the student himself, the kinship with the labora-

tory method becomes apparent. If it were practicable to go farther and require students to draw sketches showing and comparing elements of architecture, illustrating costumes and geography, representing plants and animals, weapons and tools, and other things of historical importance which might be studied in museums, pictures, stereopticon views, buildings, etc., these sketches, with the notes, would approach the laboratory method even more closely. If this were done wisely, history teaching would be much more effective," but it cannot be done to any extent because it takes too much time. However, if the students were given a day or two "off" occasionally from their studies, the time could be profitably spent.

If the sources of history study are drawn from a wide range of readings and illustrations, the note-book becomes a necessity. Some of the work should be written with care, so that, it may be preserved in later life with justifiable pride. In practice the note-book may be of more importance than the text-book.[32]

[32] J. E. Pearce, "The Use of the Note Book," in the Texas History Teacher's Bulletin, Nov. 15, 1913.

"Notes should be taken upon some of the assigned and other supplementary reading. The advantages are obvious. It places the garnered information in definite and effective relation with the organized course; it enables the teacher to check up assigned reading and lastly, it forces the student to reproduce in written form the gist of his reading and to sift and pass judgment upon it. Student made outlines based upon the text and written into the notes are, I think, always more helpful than even the best printed ones. If a student organizes the subject matter himself, he is compelled to seek and find relations. This is always worth while, even if done clumsily. These outlines may often be a part of a good general epitome." [33]

Finally, the main advantage of the note-book may be summarized as follows: It forces the student into habits of accuracy particularly if his notes are examined by someone else. Examination of the note-book and the correction of errors is essential. It may be done by the

[33] J. E. Pearce, "The Use of the Note Book," in the Texas History Teacher's Bulletin, Nov. 15, 1913.

students themselves and will be a valuable exercise. There is no difficulty involved. Let the students exchange books, make corrections and return to the teacher, and the teacher will have a fair indication of the accuracy and character of the notes with little effort. The student, on the other hand, has benefited by the criticism, in that he has discovered what is correct, and what is incorrect. Even outlines should generally be thrown into the form of clear and definite sentences for the sake of correct habits of expression.[34]

The views expressed in the last few paragraphs present perhaps the best theory in regard to the history note-book and supplementary reading, but difficult indeed to put in actual practice because the student generally has three other courses in addition to history.

The instructor in history should be careful not to insist on too much work and should not expect the same amount from every member of the class, for to some students history is exceedingly difficult to learn. Work should be

[34] J. E. Pearce, "The Use of the Note Book," in the Texas History Teacher's Bulletin, Nov. 15, 1913.

done according to ability, all of us realize; but, whether it is difficult or not, all students should gain some important knowledge of selected subjects even if it has to be secured by special written reports. If the student has the desire to learn and the ability to think long and hard on the subject, the aims of historical study will be fulfilled approximately, and much good will be accomplished. It will, I repeat, instill in the mind of the student high ideals, will give a sense of appreciation, will develop a healthy philosophy of life, and will aid in the formation and development of character. It will help to establish sound methods of study, and will supply excellent intellectual training. The accuracy of conception and statement required, the mastery of principles, the solution of problems—all these develop habits of mind of the most healthful and useful kind. There is hardly any business in which the processes employed in studying history are not in constant use, and there can be no position in life in which the mental discipline gained is valueless; while the

facts learned are almost indispensable to every cultured man and woman.

III. HISTORY RECITATION SOCIALIZED

I. The Aims of the Plan:[1]

1. To do away with passivity in the classroom.
2. To stimulate initiative and originality.
3. To correct wrong impressions.
4. To train the pupil in expression.
5. To enlarge the pupil's experience.
6. To help the pupil overcome individual weaknesses.
7. To enable the pupil to form the habit of concentrated effort and attention.
8. To build up in an orderly, logical way, a definite store of information.

[1] W. T. Whitney in his monograph, The Socialized Recitation (A. S. Barnes Co., New York City), gives some of the aims stated above under the heading "Purpose of the Socialized Recitation" but most of them are given as "Objects" of the recitation; i. e., the ordinary recitation. It seems to me that all may be presented as the "Aims of the Socialized Recitation."

9. To enable the pupil to express his own individuality and to receive a modifying influence from the class.

10. To give opportunity for the student *to do* and *to be* rather than merely *to know,* by thinking, reasoning, judging, and making decisions.

II. How My Classes in History Are Conducted

Often the assignment is given in the form of a problem with references, but if no suitable problem can be found in the lesson for the day, the assignment is made as follows:

The lesson is divided into two or three parts and a leader is assigned for each part. The duty of each leader is to outline his part of the lesson, prepare questions and gather outside information pertaining to every subdivision of his outline and bearing on all the questions he has prepared.

In the recitation, from such an assignment, the leaders who have made special preparation (as given in the preceding paragraph) are re-

quested to question the class just as the teacher would. Volunteers are not called upon until two other pupils have attempted to answer the question. If the two students do not satisfy the leader and the other students, volunteers are called upon to correct any errors or to give additional information.

The members of the class are allowed to ask any questions not previously made clear or they may present new questions. Then volunteers present new material based on collateral reading. The leader finally offers his additional information. In case all the important points are not brought out clearly, the teacher asks his questions in order to emphasize those essentials.

The new plan tends to make the students active, happy, earnest, hard-working, enthusiastic, and democratic.

The Socialized Recitation is "an example of true democracy, development of all, through all, under the leadership of the best students" and the teacher.[2]

[2] Report to the Seattle High School History Teachers.

Conversations and discussions are transferred to the class circle. Discussions, questions, criticisms are between pupils with the teacher only occasionally drawn in. There is quite a contrast between this plan and the old, when the recitation was always between teacher and some pupil.

The teacher is a guide and does not do the reciting for the class. He encourages both freedom and desire to offer additional facts or to make inquiry concerning points discussed. Most of the corrections are noticed and discussed by the pupils. In this phase of the work, the students are advised to make constructive, rather than destructive criticisms.

If the students allow misstatements of facts to go unchallenged, or if they permit unsupported expression of personal opinion to escape, the teacher's work is evident: He corrects errors, criticises, and supplements the work of the students. However, he takes part only when necessary. Generally the teacher merely directs the work, counsels with the pupils, advises

and leads, without dominating and suppressing the physical and mental life within the room.

It has been said that the new plan takes time. "Yes, training, development, growth, always take time. A fence can be built around a school in one day by a large force of men, but if a hedge is to be grown, it may require years. Mushrooms attain their full power in a night, oaks require decades."[3]

In nearly every class there are at least a few students having initiative who show good judgment and ability in analyzing subject-matter, general principles and their organic relations and who express thought in a clear and convincing manner. One of such qualifications is appointed secretary. After each discussion on an important topic the secretary is requested to present the essentials and to state the main conclusions, or announce the desirability of further investigation.

Often, when some important question arises which cannot be settled by the students at the

[3] J. P. Zimmers, Teaching Boys and Girls How to Study. The Parker Educational Co., Madison, Wisconsin. 1918.

time, the class is given a few days—sometimes longer—for study and research. Last year, for example, in discussing the government of England one boy said that he had heard that the English government is more democratic than our own. The members of the class immediately took sides in a discussion which followed. As they were unable to convince each other, they decided to have a debate on the question. Nearly every member of the class spent a half-hour or so about every day for two weeks studying in order to get "evidence" to prove or disprove that the American government is more democratic than the English government. And if the study of government is important, who will say that the time was not profitably spent in investigating the working of two of the most democratic governments in the world?

III. The Problem Method and the Socialized Recitation[4]

Dr. William T. Bawden of the United States Bureau of Education suggested that a state-

[4] By a High School Student—Miss Marian Tworoger.

ment of the types of problems selected for discussion by the students, be presented together with an analysis of one or two problems with statements as to just how the students handled the parts assigned to them. The following will, it is hoped, fulfill these requests. The problems given below are just a few of the many studied in the history course.

1. Prove that James I tried to hinder the growth of Democracy.

2. Prove that the Constitution provides for careful and deliberate legislation.

3. Prove that Arbitration has already been of great value in settling disputes.

4. Prove that the time from 1783 to 1789 was the "Critical Period" in American history.

5. Prove that the American government is more democratic than the English government.

6. Prove that the Versailles peace conference (1919) was more progressive than the Congress of Vienna (1814-1815).

The problem selected for analysis was studied in connection with the making of the Constitution.

Text: Muzzey's "American History." Chapter VI, Pages 159-183.

Collateral Reading:

John Fiske, The Critical Period in American History.

Bassett, a Short History of the United States.

McLaughlin, The Confederation and the Constitution.

Roosevelt, Winning of the West, and other references given at the end of the chapter.

Our class spent three days in considering the problem: "Prove that the National Convention of 1787 solved the difficulties existing under the Articles of Confederation by giving the people of the United States the Constitution." When the problem was assigned, the class discussed it and found that it could be divided into five parts, namely, 1—old conditions, 2—defects of the confederation, 3—the problem, what to do, 4—the solution, what happened, 5—favorable results. Each of these points was assigned to one or more of the students, who made a special study of it, and in the recitation the following day, each in turn took the floor and questioned

the class upon his point, and acted as leader during the ensuing discussion, and finally, presented to the class the material gained through his collateral reading.

Under the first point—old conditions—we discussed the conditions which made the colonists attempt some form of union, the early attempts at union, and the confederation. In considering the second part—the defects of the confederation—it was brought out that under the Articles of Confederation, Congress consisted of only one house, in which all the states had an equal number of votes. The students further emphasized the idea that this congress was based on the representation of the states rather than the people; the government had no executive or judicial departments; and the Congress had little executive power; e.g., it could make treaties but could not compel the states to obey them; could apportion taxes, but could not collect them. "Congress could advise, request and implore, but could not command." We showed that as the Articles of Confederation could be amended only by a unanimous

vote of the states, it was impossible to remedy these defects, so we took up the third point, the problem—what to do. Under this heading we discussed the problems which confronted the makers of the Constitution:

The Virginia and New Jersey plans, the slavery question, the question of taxes, the representation of negroes, the control of commerce, and the other difficulties which had to be solved by the Constitutional Convention. Fourth, the solution—what happened, was a discussion of the constitution as finally adopted, bringing out particularly the compromises reached between the various factions, such as those concerning the representation of large and small states, the representation of negroes, the abolition of the slave trade, and the control of commerce.

We showed that:

1. (a) Small states were afraid of being overpowered by large ones. This difficulty was overcome by giving them equal representation in the Senate.

(b) In the Continental Congress only the

states, not the people, had been represented. The rights of the people were now provided for in the House of Representatives, and to pacify the large states, representation was to be according to population.

2. (a) In apportioning taxation and deciding representation, five negroes were to be counted as equal to three white people.

3. (a) Commercial questions were to be decided in Congress by majority vote instead of two-thirds vote. (This was a concession to the North.)

(b) The slave trade was to continue without interference for twenty years. (This was a concession to the South.)

Under the fifth heading—favorable results, we showed that the Constitution did solve the difficulties existing under the Confederation, because it provided the necessary centralization lacking in the Confederation, thereby giving us a real national government, rather than a mere confederation of states. It created executive and judicial departments, and gave Congress

definite powers, with proper authority to exercise them.

It gave a Congress made up of two houses, the Senate, representing the States, and the House of Representatives, the people.

It gave Congress full power of taxation, power to regulate trade, control foreign commerce, and levy duties.

It gave equal rights to all citizens in all the states. The convention of 1787 created a constitution which has stood successfully the test of a century, and is still the supreme law of one of the most civilized nations of the world.

By taking the problem up in this manner each member of the class is required to do considerable outside research work, and by pooling the information thus obtained, the pupils gain a much wider knowledge of the subject than would be possible if each attempted to cover the entire field for himself.

IV. An Example of a Project in Modern History[5]

Problem: Prove that the Renaissance was a period of tremendous change in Europe from the middle of the fourteenth century to the end of the sixteenth in all the realms of human activity, especially in painting, sculpture, architecture, language, literature, science, invention, discovery, education, and religion.

Time: We devoted eight days to this problem.

Texts: 1. West's Modern World (Pages 310-324).

2. Webster's Early European History (Pages 589-642).

References:

1. Hayes, Modern Europe, Vol. I.
2. Field, Study of the Renaissance.
3. Hulme, Renaissance and Reformation.
4. Hudson, Story of the Renaissance.
5. Burckhart, Civilization of the Renaissance.
6. Encyclopedia: Brittanica or International.

[5] By two high school students—Miriam Luten and Adelaide Brown.

7. Further References see end of Chapter V of Hayes, Modern Europe, Vol. I, pp. 201-203.

In the study and discussion of early modern history many problems arise of interest to the pupils. The period of the Renaissance, since it influenced later history to such a great extent, is very important.

The problem on this period of history as given to the class to develop was: Prove that the Renaissance was a period of tremendous change in Europe from the middle of the fourteenth century to the end of the sixteenth, in all realms of human activity.

In discussing the problem the class agreed that the important changes of the period appeared in painting, sculpture, architecture, language, literature, science, invention, discovery, education, and religion.

We were given time to consider the possibilities of each subject and then choose the one that was best suited to our own interests. Besides the general references given on the preceding page each student used special references dealing with his particular problem.

The class discussion of the problem extended over eight lessons. The problem of the first lesson was: Prove that there was a revival of painting during the Renaissance. In doing this we contrasted the painting of the Middle Ages with that of the Renaissance. Throughout the lesson, we followed this outline of the problem: 1—Old Conditions, 2—Defects of Old Conditions, 3—Problem to be solved, 4—Events, or what happened, 5—Favorable or Unfavorable Results.

In the recitation, Laura *first* told about the Art of the Middle Ages. She stated that nearly all the paintings were frescoes done directly on the plaster walls, and that primarily, their purpose was not beauty, but rather to help save the soul of the beholder.[6] Florence developed the *second point, the defects.* She explained that these early paintings were imitations of Byzantine mosaics and enamels; that they were all highly conventionalized and with strict adherence to tradition; that they showed little knowledge of anatomy, proportion, perspective,

[6] E. M. Hulme, Renaissance and Reformation, p. 116.

or distance. Harold volunteered information on their symbolic character, how a clasped hand, two raised fingers, the color of the garments, a bunch of keys, a sword, all had a specific part in making the meaning of the picture evident at a glance. John dealt with the third part, the *problem to be solved.* He showed the class how the old narrow conception of painting was at variance with the new humanistic movement which was springing up. He pointed out how the new interest in classic literature, architecture, and sculpture, could not help but extend to painters and make them try to raise their art with the other arts. Nearly all the pupils contributed facts about the fourth point, the *events, or rather work accomplished.* Louise named Giotto as the first artist to cast aside the old binding traditions and to infuse life into his paintings and to give them an air of reality. She told how he utilized arrangement, scenery, buildings and gesture to bring this about. Other students made contributions pertaining to the chief characteristics of the works of one or more of the famous

painters: Leonardo Da Vinci, Michael Angelo, Raphael, Titian, Del Sarto, Holbein, Rubens, Van Dyck, and Rembrandt, and suggested how they contributed to the Renaissance. At the close of the period, Adelaide spoke on the fifth division, *the results,* and summed up the value of these painters to the world as founders of our principles and examples of the highest art.

In a similar way we handled the problems of all of the lessons.

The problem of the second lesson was: Prove that there was a revival of sculpture during the Renaissance. In developing the problem we compared the sculpture of the Renaissance with that of the Middle Ages. We showed that the great sculptors of the later period, Pisano, Ghiberti, Brunelleschi, Donatello, Della Robbia, Sansovina and Michael Angelo contributed much to the Renaissance.

In the third lesson we proved that there was a revival of architecture during the Renaissance period. We proved by referring to the works of Pisano, Brunelleschi, Alberti, Bramante, Michael Angelo, and Palladio that the architec-

ture was distinctly different from the Gothic style of the previous period.

To prove that there was a revival of language and literature during the Renaissance was the problem of the fourth lesson. The remarkable change from the literature of the Middle Ages we showed began with Dante (1265-1321) and included the work of Petrarch, Boccaccio, Langland, Froissart, Chaucer, Chrysoloras, Valla, Reuchlin, Colet, Erasmus, Machiavelli, Von Hutten, Montaigne, Cervantes, Francis Bacon and Shakespeare. In literature we showed the reversion from the study of the dull writings of the schoolmen to the brilliant productions of the Greek and Roman authors. The class devoted much time to the consideration of the development of the modern languages and literature.

We proved in the fifth lesson that there was a revival of science and invention during the Renaissance. That much progress was made in science was shown by discussing the work of such men as Roger Bacon, Gutenberg, Lorentius Valla, Behaim, Copernicus, Servetus,

Francis Bacon, Galileo, Kepler, Harvey, and Newton. We also showed how valuable the contributions of these men were to later history. The members of the class were especially interested in the inventions: printing, gunpowder, the compass, and the telescope and their effect on civilization.

The problem of the sixth lesson was: Prove that the Renaissance was an age of discovery and exploration. We pointed out the importance of the discoveries and explorations of such men as Marco Polo, Prince Henry the Navigator, Diaz, Da Gama, Columbus, Cabot, Vespuccius, Pizzaro, Balboa, Magellan, Cortez, Cartier, Hudson, Raleigh, Champlain, De Soto, Ponce De Leon, telling of the influence of the Renaissance period and why discoveries were not made before this time.

Prove that there was a revival of education during the Renaissance, was the problem of the seventh lesson. We contrasted the education of the Middle Ages with that of the Renaissance period. In doing so, we emphasized especially the views and accomplishments of

Chrysoloras, Reuchlin, Erasmus, Colet, Sturm, Ascham, Luther, Melanchthon, Zwingli, Calvin, Loyola, Rabelais, Mulcaster, Montaigne, and Francis Bacon.

In the last lesson we proved that a revival of religion occurred during the Renaissance. We discussed men whose writings and doctrines contributed to the Reformation; among those considered were John Wyclif, John Tauler, John Huss, Thomas à Kempis, John Goch, John Wessel, Savonarola, Lorentius Valla, Erasmus, John Colet, Sir Thomas More, William Tyndale, Martin Luther, Ulrich Zwingli, Ignatius Loyola, John Calvin, Thomas Cranmer and John Knox.

Every lesson was discussed very enthusiastically by all the members of the class.

V. The Socialized Recitation from the Students' Standpoint[1]

We are beginning to-day a new era. Freedom has become the motto of the world; free-

[1] By a High School Student—Miss Violet Harrison.

dom from old tyrannies, freedom of thought, in fact true freedom.

Surely when new and efficient methods are replacing the old in so many things a change in school methods which would encourage greater freedom of thought on the part of the pupil deserves earnest consideration.

The socialized recitation gives to the student freedom of thought and requires from him greater efficiency. It also stimulates his initiative and originality.

In my class in modern history a critic is appointed to preside. The chairman works with the teacher to see that all errors are corrected and all important facts are emphasized.

In the assignment the lesson is divided into two or three parts, and a leader is assigned by the teacher for each part. The duty of the leader is to outline his part of the lesson, prepare questions, and to gather outside information pertaining to his subject.

When the class meets the following day the leaders are called to question the class in their order. Two pupils are appointed by the leader

to answer every question. If they fail, or the pupils are not satisfied, volunteers are called to correct any errors or give additional information.

As a student, the socialized recitation appeals to me because the former dullness and dryness of the period is eliminated and it becomes a period of mental activity. This change comes from the fact that the pupils are interested in their work rather than in the grade they will receive.

By the question and answer method little real interest in the subject was aroused in the pupils. It was too monotonous. A class conducted according to our plan is not monotonous, because each day something new and interesting is brought to the pupils' attention.

Questions are brought before the class and often problems arise from them for the students to discuss.

Class discussion converts the recitation period into one of hard and quick thinking, in which the student does his best studying under the stimulus of his fellow students and teacher.

The text-book serves as an outline of topics to be considered.

The pupils, to prove their points, must necessarily read outside information, and this they are willing to do because they have the proper incentive. Questions or suggestions put the student into action. The teacher is there to formulate problems, not to supply answers before the questions have been raised within the learner's mind.

Where there is no interest in a subject; where there is no question in the student's mind, there can be no searching for an answer.

Where there is no problem there is no occasion for the mind to think hard. The problems we discuss are not only those given by the teacher, but those coming from the pupils and therefore interesting to them.

The student's viewpoint is broadened; the teacher and the text-books are not the only authorities. Through class discussions the opinions of the other students are heard and the pupils learn by experience to form opin-

ions of their own, regarding the problems brought up.

The socialized recitation is one of expression rather than repression. The student is given the opportunity to express himself without the restraint usually felt in classes.

The socialized recitation is more democratic than the old method as the students help in governing, not depending on one person, the teacher.

As the class must work together to gain the desired results, co-operation becomes a part of the training. Instead of each pupil working solely for his own benefit each works for the benefit of the whole class.

Because the students feel that the responsibility rests on them rather than the teacher, they become more self-assured and this encourages democratic control and management.

Progress is made by considering new ideas. A student under the socialized recitation must make progress not only in the subject, but also along other lines.

The student's interests are widened, new

paths of knowledge open for him. He is started thinking along new lines and awakened to better things.

The business world of to-day is looking for men and women with initiative and originality. The socialized recitation stimulates both of these qualities in the students.

It is interesting to note what the pupils think of the new plan of recitation. The following comments were selected from J. P. Zimmer's monograph, Teaching Boys and Girls How to Study:

"It makes us use our minds during the recitation."

"It makes me study more."

"It teaches me to think for myself."

"I get more out of my lesson."

"We learn to ask questions that have some meaning."

"Pupils find out things for themselves."

"It teaches me to find the most important things."

"I like to hear the things others have read in other books."

"It helps me to be accurate."

"It makes me use all the time I have."

"I learn to use good English."

"I am glad to hear things that others get out of a lesson that I did not get."

"This method teaches me to think, to use my brain, to answer and to ask questions."

"This method of teaching is very good, as it makes me think or learn how to study and also to talk to the class. It will not be so hard to learn next year's work."

"I like this system of teaching because the lessons are more interesting and I learn many more things from the questions the other pupils ask, and every child gets an equal chance."

"This method of teaching has taught me to think and reason for myself. The children's questions can get at certain parts of the studies that learned people do not always think of."

"It makes us think and reason. I cannot criticise our new way and I hope they keep it. The old way we had kept the bright children busy, while the others sat there and naturally had low reports. I think some children do not

understand what they read, but get the meaning by our new method."

"If you do not know what anything means you have to ask questions in order to learn the answer. If a pupil is asked a question, he must think very hard to answer it. If you do not know what the word means you have to look it up in the dictionary or ask the class. I think it helps me a great deal."

"The following statement was written by a boy who had been in the local schools only one week."[8]

"I like this method of recitation because it gives every pupil a chance to say something. It helps me when I am reciting because I would much rather have the pupils correct me than the teacher, and it shows me my mistakes. I have been in nine different schools besides this one and had many different methods, but this is the best. I have had poorer deportment than here as a result of the teachers' asking and correcting everything."

[8] J. P. Zimmers, Teaching Boys and Girls How to Study, pp. 51-52.

VI. What Are the Advantages of the Socialized Recitation?

To think, to become responsible, to be interested, to be aroused, to want to put forth effort, to do something for others, to feel their part in the recitation—this social consciousness is stimulated by the new plan of recitation.[9] Many students tell me that "it does away with the old monotony." "It makes the schoolroom real, life-like and natural. The students become members of a working community which adopt the principles of character and good citizenship as the standard of living and working."[10]

It is simply a way of giving the self-reliance and initiative within a group the maximum opportunity to develop. This form of recitation arouses more interest, more sense of cooperation between the students and between the teacher and the students and a wider freedom of self-expression than does the ordinary recitation. Responsibility and leadership become

[9] William Whitney, The Socialized Recitation.
[10] Ibid.

pleasurable realities in boys and girls who feel themselves expanding under its burdens. The spirit of the group is more friendly and earnest. But the greatest of all the advantages is the training given the student in how to study, how to think, and how to express thought.[11] It gives a chance for analysis, for comparison, for logical reasoning, for reflective judgment, and for oral expression.[12]

Frank Herbert Palmer says that the plan and its details are so full of interest, so dynamic, so fruitful of good to the average pupil, so fascinating as a method of teaching that every instructor will find it worthy of serious consideration. This method of recitation makes the pupil think for himself. Instead of being required to listen most of the time to the teacher and to remember what he has expressed, the pupil himself becomes an investigator, and having found out for himself, expresses his thoughts in the recitation. He is cross-ques-

[11] A. S. Beatman, The Social Recitation. Published by "The Independent."

[12] Report to the Seattle High School History Teachers.

tioned by the class and made to defend his position. The doing of these things makes him careful and accurate. It cultivates habits of expression. It makes him confident. It develops leadership. Graduates of elementary schools where this method is followed usually get all the best honors and class leadership offices in the high schools which they afterward enter.[13] The plan solves the question of order and discipline. Disorder is usually the result of idleness and inattention. These do not exist where the socialized recitation plan is followed.

After reviewing the answers to a questionnaire pertaining to methods employed by teachers of history, civics, and economics in Seattle High Schools, Superintendent Frank B. Cooper stated that the teachers agree that "the method is necessary to arouse interest and to encourage intelligent thinking, an essential for citizenship in a democracy; to develop initiative and fair-mindedness; to teach the American way of arriving at a conclusion; to get a clear under-

[13] Editor Frank H. Palmer in "Education" for January, 1919.

standing of problems; to cultivate a sense of truth and a realization of the need of it; to establish the habit of consulting authorities and of speaking the truth; to cultivate a sense of knowing different views in arriving at conclusions based on a broad knowledge; because pupils learn not to swallow blindly one authority; because the test of authority is investigation; because the teacher is not in a class to impose personal opinions; because wrong personal views are corrected; because hearsay evidence is discredited."

Superintendent Cooper said further: "It tends to induce the thinking habit, to encourage the weighing of opinions, and a comparison of facts before decision. It aims to blaze the way to just conclusions, rather than to arrive at conclusions, for there are numerous problems studied as to which satisfactory conclusions have not yet been reached. My only comment upon these returns is that this city is highly fortunate in being served by a body of teachers which shows the intelligence, wisdom and fine spirit of service and patriotism that are dis-

closed in the answers to these questions." The report was adopted.

Dr. William T. Whitney in his mongraph entitled the Socialized Recitation,[14] maintains that "the recitation period should be devoted to training the student, rather than instructing the student. The student will get the instruction of necessity, if the material or content of instruction is placed at his disposal in such a way that he may, as a worker, use it in practicing good speech, good manners, thinking, doing, co-operating and building up habits that become right moral action."

"Morality does not consist of abstract thoughts. Good citizenship does not consist of talk about ideals. The highest morality and best citizenship is in doing an honest piece of work with a sincere motive and purpose.

"For the mechanic, for the student, morality and citizenship mean doing effectively and efficiently, with right motives the thing that should be done. This may be termed a working

[14] W. T. Whitney, The Socialized Recitation, A. S. Barnes Co., N. Y.

morality, but it is the type of moral training most needed to-day.

"No opportunity is provided in the ordinary recitation for the student to receive that training in thought, in courtesy, in manners and practical morals, in language and power of adaptability, which constitutes the valuable part of the recitation. The Socialized Recitation admits of all these elements which are imperative if the student is to be educated.

"The ordinary recitation means an artificial and unnatural way of mentally digesting information and subject-matter. The question and answer method as well as the so-called development method seldom touches the student's real interest. It is evident also that in the ordinary recitation no plan or preparation is made for the student to take a conversational interest in the work. He is confined and restricted to the few thoughts that the teacher may have in mind which may or may not be the student's viewpoint and which may in no sense be educational so far as the student is concerned."

Under the old plan of recitation the students relied too much upon the teacher. They depended on him. Was there anything to be done? Was there any responsibility to be assumed? Was there any disorder to be suppressed? Was there any unfavorable conditions to be attended to? The teacher was the one to look after all such matters. The pupils felt no responsibility resting upon them. The only part the pupils played was to repeat the facts learned, to rehearse the lesson.

"The Socialized Recitation gives a better opportunity for the teacher to study and know the individual pupil. The recitation period becomes an active period of pupil responsibility, and no longer a listening period. The student becomes a doer and not a passive listener. The class is the active part of the recitation, not the teacher. If there are cases of discipline, the pride and honor of the class will help settle these. If there are members of the class whose conduct, speech, actions and manners, are detrimental to good citizenship, the honor and respect of the class will do much to remedy that.

"The Socialized Recitation avoids the artificial conditions of the classroom and recitation. The subject-matter is a means for the expression of the student's own ideas and to develop his power. The subject-matter of a given lesson is so planned by the teacher that it becomes material to be used by the student in creating experiences, and in giving and receiving impressions. Thus to a very large degree drill is eliminated, but the facts are nevertheless fixed, because of the concrete situation in which the student uses them."

After commenting on an article pertaining to the Socialized Recitation by Lotta A. Clark entitled "A Good Way to Teach History" (School Review, April, 1909) Dr. Colvin A. Scott makes this cogent statement: "Such an organization of work consists in something much more than a mere change of method. Methods are only means for carrying out a given plan or aim. What is proposed here is to allow the public, and particularly that part of it the school is directly in contact with, i.e., the pupils, to help to shape the content of the course of study in

harmony with their most lively and productive interests. This will not exclude the full impingement of the best of the teacher's contribution. He will probably find a greater opportunity than ever before to impress his best ideas upon his pupils. They become more willing to hear and to co-operate with him when he has already shown his willingness to co-operate with them."[15]

Questions on Social Phases of the Recitation.

1. Do the students do most of the talking?

2. Do the students ask questions of each other?

3. Are the students arranged during the recitation period so as to be able to see each other?

4. Is it a habit of the student to speak to all the members of the group, rather than to the teacher?

5. Are the questions which the teacher and the students ask, such as to stimulate discussion among the pupils?

6. Do the students feel that it is worth while

[15] C. H. Johnson, Modern High School, pp. 240-244.

to help each other and do they commonly feel responsible for the progress of the class?

7. Do the students answer questions which are put by the teacher or by the other students after careful thought, and are they still willing to defend their positions against the suggestions of doubt which may be expressed by the other pupils?

References[16]

Some of G. S. Hall's Writings

1. Adolescence: Its Psychology and Its Relations to Physiology, Anthropology, Sociology, Sex, Crime, Religion and Education. Two monumental and epoch-making volumes. D. Appleton & Company, 1904.

2. Educational Problems. In this work, con-

[16] Note: A complete bibliography of Dr. Hall's Writings may be found in L. N. Wilson's Life of G. Stanley Hall, G. E. Stechert & Co., N. Y., 1914 (pp. 119-144). G. E. Partridge's Genetic Philosophy of Education (pp. 383-394), contains a bibliography of G. S. Hall's Writings to 1912.

sisting of two ponderous and comprehensive volumes, Dr. Hall discusses educational problems from the point of view of genetic psychology and the needs of society. D. Appleton, 1911.

3. Youth: Its Education, Regimen and Hygiene. Selections from "Adolescence." "Youth," contains besides other valuable discussions, chapters on sports, games, and plays, the education of girls, and biographies of adolescents. D. Appleton, 1904.

4. Aspects of Child Life and Education. This book of 326 pages deals with the contents of children's minds, day dreams, curiosity, dolls, collecting, ownership, fetishism, boy life forty years ago, and other topics. Ginn & Co., Boston, 1907.

5. The Ideal School as Based on Child Study. The Forum, Sept., 1901, Vol. XXXII, pp. 24-39. Also Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1901, pp. 475-488. See Dr. Hall's Introduction to P. W. Search's book, "An Ideal School." D. Appleton, 1901.

6. How Far is the Present High School and Early College Training Adapted to the Nature and Needs of Adolescents? Official Report of the 16th Annual Meeting of the N. E. Ass'n of Colleges and Secondary Schools, pp. 72-104. Also in School Review, Dec., 1901.

7. The High School as the People's College. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, Chicago, Feb. 27, 1902. Cf. The High School as the People's College Versus the Fitting School. Ped. Sem., March, 1902, Vol. IX, pp. 63-73.

8. Some Criticisms of High School Physics and Manual Training and Mechanic Arts High Schools with Suggested Correlations. Ped. Sem., June, 1902, Vol. IX, pp. 193-204. See also Adolescents and High School English, Latin and Algebra. Ped. Sem., March, 1902, Vol. IX, pp. 92-105.

9. The Genetic Philosophy of Education. This is the only summary of G. Stanley Hall's pedagogic doctrine. In this work Dr. Partridge attempted to epitomize President Hall's books

and about 300 of his magazine articles. He has done an enviable piece of work. This book is of inestimable value to every teacher. Sturgis & Walton Company, 1912. 400 pages.

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF BOOKS AND ARTICLES BY OTHER AUTHORITIES

1. Andrews, F. F. The New Citizenship. Proceedings, National Education Association, 1915, pp. 702-705.
2. Anderson, R. E. A Preliminary Study of the Reading Tastes of High School Pupils. Ped. Sem., Dec., 1912, Vol, XIX, pp. 438-460.
3. Angell, J. R. New Requirements for Entrance and Graduation at the University of Chicago. School Review, Sept., 1911, Vol. XIX, No. 7, pp. 489-497.
4. Avery, L. B. The Future High School. Proc. N. E. A., 1915, pp. 748-753.
5. Bagley, W. C. The Professional Training of High School Teachers. Proc. N. E. A., 1912, pp. 686-691.
6. Bagley, W. C. The Determination of Minimum Essentials in Elementary Geography and History. Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago, 1915, pp. 131-146.
7. Baldwin, J. M. Mental Development in the Child and the Race. Macmillan Co., 1910.
8. Balliet, T. M. Discussion of the Report of the Committee on Economy of Time in Elementary Education. Proc. N. E. A., 1915, pp. 410-415.

9. Banks, L. A. Youth of Famous Americans. Methodist Book Company, 150 Fifth Avenue, New York.

10. Barnes, M. S. Studies in Historical Method. D. C. Heath & Co., 1904.

11. Bate, W. G. An Experiment in Teaching a Course in Elementary Sociology. School Review, May, 1915, Vol. XXIII, pp. 331-340. (An outline of the course is given.)

12. Betts, G. H. The Recitation. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1910, New York.

13. Blackmar, F. Elements of Sociology, Macmillan Co., 1906.

14. Blairsdell, T. C. Should Colleges Admit High School Graduates without Regard to Subjects Studied in the High School? School and Society, March 11, 1916, Vol. III, No. 63, pp. 366-370. (In this article the author maintains that "ability to do college work can be attained during four years of study in high school without regard to the subjects pursued.")

15. Bloomfield, M. Youth, School and Vocation. Houghton Mifflin Co., New York, 1915.

16. Bolton, F. E. Principles of Education. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1910. 790 pages. The facts in this book have been admirably well selected, carefully organized, and forcibly stated by Dr. Bolton, who discusses pedagogy from the biological and psychological points of view.

17. Bolton, F. E. Facts and Fictions Concerning Educational Values. School Review, Feb., 1904, Vol. XII, p. 170-189.

18. Bolton, F. E. What is the True Function of the Free Public High School. Published by the Northwestern University, 1913. Proceedings of National Conference of Secondary Education.

19. Bostwick, A. E. The Twenty-seventh Annual Conference of Academies and High Schools in Relation with the University of Chicago. School Review, June, 1915, Vol. XXIII, pp. 394-405.

20. Bowers, F. T. What Constitutes Preparation for College; a Layman's View. Education, Sept., 1911, Vol. XXXII, pp. 16-19.

21. Bourne, H. E. The Teaching of History and Civics in the Elementary and Secondary School. Longmans, Green & Co., New York, 1903.

22. Briggs, T. H. Secondary Education. Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1915, pp. 113-130.

23. Brooks, S. D. School Document, No. 10, 1910, Boston Public Schools.

24. Brooks, S. D. School Document, No. 11, 1911, Boston Public Schools.

25. Brown, E. E. The Making of Our Middle Schools. Longmans, Green & Co., 1910. (A comprehensive treatment of the history of secondary education.)

26. Brown, J. F. The Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools. Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1911.

27. Brown, J. F. The American High School. Macmillan Co., 1909, N. Y., 462 pages. (An excellent textbook to use in teaching secondary education.)

28. Brown, J. S. Future Outlook and Possibilities of Secondary Education. Proc. N. E. A., 1915, pp. 616-621.

29. Brown, S. W. Some Experiments in Elementary School Organization. Proc. N. E. A., 1913, pp. 458-463.

30. Bryce, James. The Hindrances to Good Government. Yale University Press.

31. Bunker, F. F. Reorganization of the Public School System, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C. Bulletin, No. 8, 1916, 186 pages.

32. Bunker, F. F. The Reorganization of the Schools of Berkeley. A Plan. Report to the Board of Education of Berkeley, California, Nov. 30, 1909.

33. Bunker, F. F. The Better Articulation of the Parts of the Public School System. Educational Review, March, 1914, Vol. XLVII, pp. 249-269.

34. Bunker, F. F. The Plan to Secure a Functional Articulation of the Parts of the Public School System in Effect at Berkeley. (Chapter of a book in preparation.)

35. Burnham, W. H. The Study of Adolescence. Ped. Sem., 1891, June, Vol. I, No. 2, pp. 174-196.

36. Burnham, W. H. Child Study as the Basis of Pedagogy. Proc. N. E. A., 1893, pp. 718-720.

37. Burnham, W. H. Education from the Genetic Point of View. Proc. N. E. A., 1905, pp. 727-734.

38. Burnham, W. H. The Group as a Stimulus to Mental Activity. Science N. S., Vol. XIII, pp. 761-766,

May 20, 1910. See quotation in Irving King's Education for Social Efficiency, p. 235. In another work, Social Aspects of Education (Macmillan Co., 1912), Dr. King quotes several pages of Professor Burnham's article (pp. 358-363).

39. BURNHAM, W. H. Hygiene of Adolescence. A Cyclopedia of Education edited by Paul Monroe with the assistance of Departmental editors, Vol. I, pp. 44-46, New York, 1911. (Dr. Burnham is Departmental Editor of Hygiene.)

40. BURNHAM, W. H. Suggestions from the Psychology of Adolescence. Report of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools. School Review, Dec., 1897, Vol. V, pp. 652-666. (An explicit and forcible presentation of the spirit of the new education.)

41. BURNHAM, S. History in the Schools: A study of 100 replies of students as to how they were taught history. Educational Review, May, 1904, Vol. XXVII, pp. 521-528.

42. BURR, G. L. What History Shall We Teach? History Teacher's Magazine, Nov., 1914, pp. 283-287.

43. BURR, G. L. Definition of the Field of Secondary History. History Teacher's Magazine, June, 1916, Vol. VII, pp. 201-202. (Papers by H. D. Foster, H. E. Bourne, M. McGill, E. M. Violette, J. Sullivan, C. Harford, J. E. Berringer, J. R. Sutton, appear in the same issue.)

44. BURR, H. M. Studies in Adolescent Boyhood. Seminar Publishing Co., Springfield, Mass., 1910.

45. Butler, N. M. The Meaning of Education with Other Essays and Addresses. Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1905. 230 pages.

46. Caldwell, O. W. The Influence of Prolonged and Carefully Directed Work. Proc. N. E. A., 1912, pp. 691-700.

47. Capen, S. P. Higher Education. (See Entrance Requirements) Report of the Commissioner of Education, Department of the Interior, 1915, pp. 131-167.

48. Chambers, W. G. Why Children Play. Proc. N. E. A., 1909, pp. 720-726.

49. Chambers, W. G. The Evolution of Ideals. Ped. Sem., March, 1903, Vol. X, pp. 101-143.

50. Chamberlain, A. F. The Teaching of English. Ped. Sem., June, 1902, Vol. IX, No. 2, pp. 161-170.

51. Chapman, I. T. Obstacles to be Encountered in the Establishment of the Junior High School. Journal of Education (A. E. Winship, editor), May 18, 1916, Vol. LXXXIII, No. 20, pp. 538-541.

52. Claparede. Experimental Pedagogy. Longmans, Green & Co., New York.

53. Clark, L. A. A Good Way to Teach History. School Review, April, 1909, Vol. XVII, pp. 255-266. (The author tells how she "socialized" the recitations in history in one of the Boston high schools.)

54. Claxton, P. P. Report of the Commissioner of Education, Department of Interior, 1915.

55. Claxton, P. P. The Organization of High Schools into Junior and Senior Sections. Proc. N. E. A., 1915, pp. 747-748. (Commissioner Claxton strongly commends the "Six-Three-Three Plan.")

56. Cole, T. R. Learning to Be a Schoolmaster. C. C. Bras, Publisher, Seattle, Wash.

57. Cole, T. R. Segregation at the Broadway High School, Seattle. School Review, Oct., 1915, Vol. XXV, pp. 550-554.

58. Colvin, S. S. Learning Process. Macmillan Co., 1911, N. Y.

59. Committee of Seven. The Study of History in Schools. Report to the American Historical Association. Macmillan Company, 1900, N. Y.

60. Conradi, E. Latin in High School. Ped. Sem., March, 1905, Vol. XII, No. 12, pp. 1-27.

61. Cookson, C. W. The Ethical as the Essential in Training for Efficient Citizenship in a Democracy. High School Quarterly, April, 1916, Vol. IV, No. 3, pp. 209-216.

62. Cooley, E. G. The Part-time School. School and Society, Vol. III, No. 76, pp. 843-847.

63. Cooper, F. B. Report on Methods of Instruction employed by teachers of History, Civics and Economics in Seattle High Schools.

64. Crabtree, J. W. Personality in Supervision. Proc. N. E. A., 1915, pp. 516-519.

65. Crabtree, J. W. Harmonizing Vocational and Cultural Education. Proc. N. E. A., 1914, pp. 384-385.

66. Cubberley, E. P. Changing Conceptions of Education. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1909. (One of the Riverside Educational Monographs, edited by Henry Suzzallo.)

67. CUBBERLEY, E. P., and Others, Does the Present Trend toward Vocational Education Threaten Liberal Culture? School Review, Sept., 1911, Vol. XIX, pp. 454-488.

68. CUBBERLEY, E. P. The Portland Survey. A Textbook on City School Administration Based on a Concrete Study. World Book Co., N. Y., 1915. (Professor Cubberley was assisted by F. B. Dresslar, E. C. Elliot, J. H. Francis, F. E. Spaulding, L. M. Terman, and W. R. Tanner. See Chapter XI, Needed Reorganization and Expansions of the School System, pp. 250-279.)

69. CURTIS, H. S. Education through Play. Macmillan Co., 1915.

70. DAVIS, C. O. Realizable Educational Values in History. History Teacher's Magazine, Vol. VI, pp. 167-178.

71. DAVIS, C. O. High School Courses of Study. A constructive study Applied to New York City. World Book Co., 1914.

72. DAVIS, C. O. Reorganization of Secondary Education. Educational Review, Oct., 1911, Vol. XLII, pp. 270-300.

73. DAVIS, C. O. Guide to Methods and Observation in History Studies in High School Observation. Rand, McNally & Co., 1914.

74. DAVIS, C. O. Continuation Work in the High School. A chapter in Johnson and Others, The Modern High School, pp. 546-591. Charles Scribner's Sons, N. Y.

75. Davis, C. O. Principles and Plans for Reorganizing Secondary Education. A chapter in Johnson and Others, High School Education, pp. 67-106. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1912.

76. Davison, C. The Education of Charles Darwin. Educational Review, Feb., 1912, Vol. XLIII, No. 2, pp. 125-133.

77. Dealey, W. L. The Theoretical Gary. Ped. Sem., June, 1916, Vol. XXIII, No. 2, pp. 269-282. "This study is a digest of the Gary literature."

78. Dewey, J. Democracy and Education. Macmillan Co., 1916, New York.

79. Dewey, J. Schools of To-morrow. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, 1915. "Almost every chapter gives descriptions of socialized school work."

80. Dewey, J. Interest and Effort in Education. Houghton Mifflin Co., New York.

81. Dewey, J. The School and Society. N. Y. McClure, Phillips & Co., 1900.

82. Dewey, J. The School and Society. (Revised Edition), 1915. The University of Chicago Press. 164 pages.

83. Dole, C. The American Citizen. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. (This work "teaches civics, elementary economics, patriotism, and social responsibility.")

84. Dunn, A. W. The Community and the Citizen. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1910.

85. Dutton, S. T. Social Phases of Education in the School and the Home, Macmillan Co., New York, 1899, pp. 257.

86. Dutton and Snedden. The Administration of Public Education in the United States. Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1909, pp. 600.

87. Earhart, L. B. Types of Teaching. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1915, New York. Ch. IX, Recitation Exercise, Ch. XI, Socializing Exercises, Ch. XIV, Training Pupils to Study.

88. Eliot, C. W. Educational Reform (Essays and Addresses). The Century Co., New York, 1905, pp. 418.

89. Eliot, C. W. Education for Efficiency and the New Definition of the Cultivated Man. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1910.

90. Eliot, C. W. Present Problems of Education. Educational Review, March, 1914, Vol. XLVII, pp. 237-248.

91. Eliot, C. W. Needed Changes in Secondary Education. U. S. Bureau of Education. Bulletin No. 10, 1910, Washington, D. C.

92. Eliot, C. W. Changes Needed in American Secondary Education. School and Society, March 18, 1916, Vol. III, No. 64, pp. 397-408.

93. Elliot, E. C. Instruction: Its Organization and Control. A chapter in Johnson and Others, High School Education, pp. 106-128. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1914, N. Y.

94. Ellwood, C. A. The Sociological Basis of the Science of Education. Education, Nov., 1911, Vol. XXXII, pp. 133-140.

95. Ellwood, C. A. Sociology and Modern Social Problems. American Book Co., 1911, N. Y.

96. Fenwick, A. M. A Modern City's High School System. School Review, Feb., 1916, Vol. XXIV, pp. 116-129.

97. Fish, E. V. The Boy and Girl; The Period of Adolescence. A. H. Crist Co., Cooperstown, N. Y., 1912.

98. Flexner, A. A Modern School. General Education Board, New York City.

99. Forbush, W. B. The Coming Generation. D. Appleton & Co., N. Y., 1912.

100. Foster, W. T. Reed College. School Review, Feb., 1915, Vol. XXIII, pp. 98-104.

101 Graves, F. P. A Student's History of Education. Macmillan Co., 1915, New York.

102. Graves, F. P. Great Educators of Three Centuries: Their Work and Its Influence on Modern Education. Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1912.

103. Greene, I. K. English in the High Schools, High School Bulletin No. 5, Department of Education, Olympia, Washington.

104. Gregory, B. C. Better Schools. Macmillan, New York, pp. 260, 1912.

105. Griffin, J. T. Pedagogical Leaflets, Edited by J. T. Griffin. New York School of Method, 1800 East New York Avenue, Brooklyn, New York.

106. Guth, W. W. The Latin Entrance Requirement. School and Society, May 13, 1916, Vol. III, No. 72, pp. 701-705.

107. Hanus, P. H. A Modern School. Macmillan Company, New York, 1904, 306 pages.

108. Hanus, P. H. Educational Aims and Educational Values. Macmillan Co., New York, 1899. pp. 211.

109. Hargreaves, R. T. The Possibilities of the High School Library. Proc. N. E. A., 1915, pp. 730-734.

110. Hartwell, E. C. The Teaching of History. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1913. (One of the Riverside Educational Monographs, edited by Dr. Henry Suzzallo.)

111. Heck, W. H. Mental Discipline and Educational Values. John Lane Co., New York, 1909, p. 147. (A summary of the arguments opposed to the dogma of formal discipline.)

112. Hegland, M. The Danish People's High School. U. S. Bureau of Education. Bulletin No. 45, 1915. Washington, D. C.

113. Hichman, W. S. Where the College Fails. Educational Review, June, 1916, Vol. LI, pp. 57-70. (Some of the statements made in this article may be applied to the high school.)

114. Hinsdale, B. A. How to Study and Teach History. D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1894.

115. Holland, E. O. What the Schools Can Do to Meet the Demands of Both Industry and General Science. Proc. N. E. A., 1913, pp. 707-712.

116. Hollister, H. A. Administration of Education in a Democracy. Charles Scribner's Sons, N. Y., 1914.

117. Hollister, H. A. High School Administration, D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1911. 373 pages. (An excellent text-book.)

118. Hollister, H. A. Constants and Variables in the High School Program of Studies. Education, Oct., 1911, Vol. XXXII, pp. 69-74.

119. Hollister, H. A. High School and Class Management. D. C. Heath & Co., 1915. (Chapters on the teaching of English and History.)

120. Holmes, W. H. Plans of Classification in the Public Schools. Ped. Sem., Dec., 1911, Vol. XVIII, No. 4, pp. 475-522.

121. Holmes, W. H. School Organization and the Individual Child. (A book for school executives and teachers, being an exposition of plans that have been evolved to adapt school organization to the needs of the individual.) Davis Press, Worcester, Mass., 1912.

122. Horn, P. W. The Junior High School in Houston, Texas. Elem. School Journal, Oct., 1915, Vol. XVI, pp. 91-95.

123. Horton, D. W. A Plan of Vocational Guidance. School Review, April, 1915, Vol. XXIII, pp. 236-243. (A list of books on vocations is given in this article.)

124. Hosic, J. F. A Summary of the Report of the Committee on English, N. E. A., Commission on Reorganization of High Schools. High School Quarterly, April, 1916, Vol. IV, No. 3, pp. 180-186.

125. Hyde, Wm. De Witt. The Teacher's Philosophy in and out of School. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1910. (Riverside Educational Monographs.)

126. Inglis, A. A Fundamental Problem in the Reorganization of the High School. School Review, May, 1915, Vol. XXIII, pp. 307-318.

127. JACKSON, L. F. A Single Aim in History Teaching. History Teacher's Magazine, Vol. V, pp. 245-248. ("History alone attempts to show matters in their relation to time, to emphasize the importance of sequence in life.")

128. JENKS, P. R. A Manual of Latin Word Formation for Secondary Schools. D. C. Heath & Co.

129. JOHNSON, C. H., and Others. High School Education. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1912.

130. JOHNSON, C. H., and Others. The Modern High School, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1914.

131. JOHNSON, C. H. The "Social Science," Department of Public Administration and Supervision, June, 1916, Vol. II, No. 6, pp. 398-401.

132. JOHNSON, H. Teaching of History. Macmillan Co., 1915, New York.

133. JOHNSON, F. W. Waste in Elementary and Secondary Education. Popular Science Monthly, July, 1914, Vol. LXXXV, pp. 40-55.

134. JOHNSON, G. R. Qualitative Elimination from High Schools. School Review, Dec., 1910, Vol. XVIII, No. 10, pp. 680-694.

135. JORDAN, D. S. The Care and Culture of Men. Whitaker, Ray & Co., San Francisco, 1896, pp. 267.

136. JORDAN, D. S. The Voice of the Scholar.

137. JORDAN, D. S. A Quarter Century of Stanford University. School and Society, July 1, 1916, Vol. IV, No. 79, pp. 1-9.

138. JORDAN, D. S. The High School Course. Popular Science Monthly, July, 1908, Vol. LXXIII, pp. 28-31. Also in the Educational Review, Nov., 1908, Vol. XXXVI, No. 8, pp. 372-376.

139. JUDD, C. H. Psychology of High School Subjects. Ginn & Co., N. Y., 1915.

140. JUDD, C. H. A Seven-year Elementary School. Proc. N. E. A., 1913, pp. 225-234.

141. JUDD, C. H. The Junior High School. School Review, Jan., 1915, Vol. XXIII, pp. 25-33.

142. JUDD, C. H. The Junior High School. School Review, April, 1916, Vol. XXIV, pp. 249-260.

143. JUDD, C. H. Reasons for Modifying Entrance Requirements at University of Chicago. Education, Jan., 1912, Vol. XXXII, No. 5, pp. 266-277.

144. JUDSON, H. P. Waste in Educational Curricula. School Review, Sept., 1912, Vol. XX, pp. 433-441.

145. KELSEY, R. W. The Text-Book Method. (An excellent article upholding the text-book method, in The History Teacher's Magazine, Philadelphia, June, 1914.)

146. KEMP, E. W. Outline of Method in History. Inland Publishing Co., Terre Haute, Ind., 1897, pp. 264-295. "A general discussion of the use of biography in school. Chief emphasis upon moral value."

147. KEITH, J. A. H. The Place and Scope of Sociology. Proc. N. E. A., 1915, pp. 764-766.

148. KENNEDY, J. The Dam is Out! Educational Review, March, 1912, Vol. XLIII, No. 3, pp. 274-281.

149. KERSCHENSTEINER, G. The Idea of the Industrial School. Macmillan Co., New York, 1913.

150. KERSCHENSTEINER, G. The Schools and the Nation. (Contains four illustrations of Continuation Schools.) Macmillan Co., London, 1914.

151. KILPATRICK, V. E. Departmental Teaching in Elementary School. Macmillan Co., New York, 1908, pp. 130.

152. KING, I. The High School Age, Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, 1914.

153. KING, I. Education for Social Efficiency. D. Appleton, 1913.

154. KING, I. Social Aspects of Education, Macmillan Co., 1913, New York. See Dr. Burnham's article, The Group as a Stimulus to Mental Activity, pp. 358-363.

155. KING, I. Psychology of Child Development, Univ. of Chicago Press, 1907. (See chapter on adolescence.)

156. KINGSLEY, C. D. Report of the Committee of Nine on the Articulation of High School and College. Proc. N. E. A., 1911, pp. 559-560.

157. KINGSLEY, C. D. Problems Confronting the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. Proc. N. E. A., 1914, pp. 483-488.

158. KIRKPATRICK, E. A. The Individual in the Making. Houghton Mifflin Co., N. Y., 1911.

159. KIRPATRICK, E. A. Fundamentals of Child Study. "A Discussion of instincts and other factors in human development with practical applications." Macmillan Co., New York, 1903, pp. 377.

160. KUNO, E. E. How a Knowledge of Adolescent Characteristics May Aid One in Directing His Conduct. Ped. Sem., Sept., 1914.

161. LEAVITT, F. M. Examples of Industrial Education. Ginn & Co., Chicago, 1912. (This book gives many different plans of school organization.)

162. LEE, J. Play in Education. Macmillan Co., New York, 1915.

163. LEWIS, H. T. The Social Sciences in Secondary Schools. School Review, Sept., 1915, Vol., XXIII, pp. 455-464.

164. MANN, C. R. Changes in Entrance Requirements at the University of Chicago, School Review, Sept., 1911, Vol. XLII, No. 2, pp. 186-191.

165. MACE, W. H. Method in History. Ginn & Co., Boston.

136. MACE, W. H. Method in History for Teacher and Student. Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago, 1914.

167. MCDOUGALL, W. An Introduction to Social Psychology. John W. Luce & Co., Boston, 1909. Published also by Methuen & Co., 36 Essex St., London. The edition published by Methuen & Co., contains a few more chapters than the edition published by J. W. Luce & Co.

168. MCLAUGHLIN, A. C. The Study of History in Schools. Report of the American Historical Association by the Committee of Seven composed of A. C. McLaughlin, Chairman, H. B. Adams, G. L. Fox, A. B. Hart, C. H. Haskins, L. M. Salmon, H. M. Stephens. Macmillan Co., 1900, New York.

169. McLaughlin, A. C. The Study of History in Schools. Report to the American Historical Association by a Committee of Five. A. C. McLaughlin, Chairman, C. H. Haskins, J. H. Robinson, C. W. Mann, J. Sullivan, Macmillan Co., 1911, New York.

170. McManis, J. T. Vocational Training in Chicago Schools. School Review, March, 1915, Vol. XXIII, pp. 145-158.

171. McMurray, C. A. Special Method in History. Macmillan Co., New York, 1908.

172. Milliman, L. D. Manual of English Prose Composition. Published by the author, University of Washington, Seattle, Wash. (Professor Milliman in the first few pages of his book touches the pedagogy of English.)

173. Monroe, P. Principles of Secondary Education. Written by a number of specialists. Macmillan Co., 1914, New York.

174. Monroe, P. Cyclopedia of Education (Five volumes). Many of the greatest contemporary educators are associated with Dr. Monroe as departmental editors, together with more than one thousand individual contributors. Macmillan Co., New York, 1911-13.

175. Montessori, M. My System of Education. Proc. N. E. A., 1915, pp. 64-73.

176. Moore, E. C. What is Education? Ginn & Co., 1916.

177. Mulford, R. J. College Entrance Requirements. See Outlook, Sept. 6, 1913, p. 49. (The author maintains that too many studies are required.)

178. O'Shea, M. V. Dynamic Factors in Education. Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1906, pp. 299.

179. O'Shea, M. V. Work and Play of Youth, Proc. N. E. A., 1901, pp. 513-523.

180. Parker, S. C. Methods of Teaching in High Schools. Ginn & Co., 1915. (This work contains many valuable suggestions.)

181. Parsons and Shephard. Causes of Leaving Schools. School and Society, May 27, 1916, Vol. III, No. 74, pp. 791-793.

182. Paul, G. F. Human Interest Composition Subjects. C. W. Bardeen, 1916, Syracuse, N. Y., 162 pages.

183. Pearson, F. B. The Vitalized School. Macmillan Co., 1917, Chapters VII and XV.

184. Phelps, W. L. Teaching in School and College. Macmillan Co., 1912, New York. (The author devotes three chapters to the teaching of English.)

185. Phillips, D. E. The Elective System in American Education. Pedagogical Seminary, June, 1900, Vol. VIII, No. 2, pp. 206-231.

186. Phillips, D. E. The Child vs. Promotion Machinery. Journal of Education, pp. 299-300. Boston, Vol. LXXV, March 14, 1912.

187. Potter, M. C. High School Courses. Proc. N. E. A., 1913, pp. 485-488.

188. Preston, J. C., and Others. Harmonizing Vocational and Cultural Education. Proc. N. E. A., 1914, pp. 375-386.

189. Pyle, W. H. Educational Psychology. Baltimore, Warwick & York, 1911. (Discusses many of the most important instincts.)

190. RAPEER, L. W. College Entrance Requirements. School and Society, April 15, 1916, Vol. III, No. 68, pp. 549-556.

191. RAPEER, L. W. College Entrance Requirements—the Judgment of Educators. School and Society, Jan. 8, 1916, Vol. III, No. 54, pp. 45-49.

192. ROBERTSON, W. S. A Brief List of Books on the Social Sciences. Educational Administration and Supervision, June, 1916. Vol. II, No. 6, pp. 371-376.

193. ROBINSON, E. V. D. Reorganization of the Grades and the High School. School Review, Dec., 1912, Vol. XX, No. 10, pp. 665-688.

194. ROBINSON, J. H. The New History. Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1912.

195. ROOSEVELT, T. The High School and the College. Outlook, May, 1913, pp. 66-68.

196. ROOSEVELT, T. History as Literature. American Historical Review, April, 1913, Vol. XVIII, pp. 473-489.

197. ROYCE, J. Herbert Spencer. Fox, Duffield & Co., New York, 1904. (A chapter is devoted to Herbert Spencer's Educational Theories, pp. 121-185.)

198. RUSK, R. R. Introduction to Experimental Education. Longmans, Green & Co., 1912.

199. SABIN, H. Common Sense Didactics. Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago, p. 342.

200. SACHS, J. The American Secondary School, and Some of Its Problems. Macmillan Co., 1912, N. Y.

201. Sanders, F. W. The Reorganization of Our Schools. The Palmer Co., 1915, Boston.

202. Sandwick, R. L. How to Study and What to Study. D. C. Heath & Co., 1915, pp. 170, Boston.

203. Scott, C. A. Social Education, Ginn & Co., New York, 1908.

204. Scott, C. A. Socialized High School Curriculums and Courses of Study. A Chapter in Johnson and Others, The Modern High School, pp. 229-245. Charles Scribner's Sons, N. Y., 1914.

205. Sisson, E. O. The Essentials of Character. Macmillan Co. ("A forceful direct discussion of the subject of character as springing from native impulses and tendencies, which moral education must direct into the service of human ideals.")

206. Smith, W. H. All the Children of all the People. Macmillan Co., 1912, N. Y.

207. Smith, W. R. The Future of Economics and the Social Studies in the High School. Kansas School Magazine, Feb., 1912, Vol. I, pp. 70-80.

208. Smith, W. R. Introduction to Educational Sociology. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1917.

209. Shaw, E. R. School Hygiene. Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1901. 255 pages.

210. Shawkey, M. P. Some New Problems for the Old School. Proc. N. E. A., 1915, pp. 691-694.

211. Siders, W. R. The American High School: Its Relation to the Schools Below. Proc. N. E. A., 1912, pp. 161-168.

212. SLAUGHTER, J. W. The Adolescent. Macmillan Company, 1915.

213. SNEDDEN, D. High Schools, New and Old. School and Society, May 1, 1915. Vol. I, No. 18, pp. 621-626.

214. SNEDDEN, D. What of Liberal Education. Atlantic Monthly, Jan., 1912, Vol. CIX, pp. 111-117.

215. SNEDDEN, D., and DUTTON, S. T. The Administration of Public Education in the United States. Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1909.

216. SNEDDEN, D. The Pros and Cons of the Gary System. Proc. N. E. A., 1915, pp. 363-373.

217. SNEDDEN, D. New Problems in Secondary Education. School Review, March, 1916, Vol. XXIV, pp. 177-187.

218. SNEDDEN, D. The Opportunity of the Small High School. The School Review, Feb., 1912, Vol. XX, No. 2, pp. 98-110.

219. SNEDDEN, D. An Educational Quest. School and Society, June 10, 1916, Vol. III, No. 76, pp. 833-843.

220. SNEDDEN, D. High School Education as a Social Enterprise. A chapter in Johnson and Others, The Modern High School, pp. 20-40. Charles Scribner's Sons, N. Y., 1914.

221. SNEDDEN, D. The Reorganization of Secondary Education. A chapter in Monroe's Principles of Secondary Education. Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1915, pp. 744-745.

222. SNEDDEN, D. Social Opportunities of New York City High Schools. Charities and the Commons, April 25, 1908, Vol. XX, pp. 133-138.

223. SNEDDEN, D. Teaching of History in Secondary Schools. History Teacher's Magazine, Nov., 1914, pp. 277-282. (See G. L. Burr's article in the same issue, pp. 283-287.)

224. SNEDDEN, WEEKS, CUBBERLEY. Vocational Education: Its Theory, Administration and Practice. Houghton Mifflin Co., New York, 1910.

225. SNEDDEN, D. The Character and Extent of Desirable Flexibility as to Courses of Instruction and Training for Youths of 12 to 14 years of Age. Educational Administration and Supervision, April, 1916, Vol. II, pp. 219-234.

226. SPAULDING, F. E. Problems of Vocational Guidance. Proc. N. E. A., 1915, pp. 331-335.

227. SPENCER, H. Education—Intellectual, Moral and Physical. D. Appleton Co., N. Y., 1910.

228. STAPLES, C. L. A Critique of High School Latin. Ped. Sem., Dec., 1912, Vol. XIX, No. 4, pp. 492-509.

229. STARR, L. The Adolescent Period. P. Blakiston's Sons & Co., Philadelphia, Pa., 1915.

230. STOUT, J. E. The High School: Its Function, Organization and Administration. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1914. (See Chapter XI, The Social Studies, and Chapter XIII, English.)

231. STRACHAN, G. C. Future Outlook and Possibilities of Elementary Education. Proc. N. E. A., 1915, pp. 616.

232. STRAYER, G. D. A Brief Course in the Teaching Process. Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1911. (An excellent work.)

233. STRONG, F., and Others. Economy of Time in Education. Proc. N. E. A., 1914, pp. 383-404.

234. SUZZALLO, HENRY. Educational Methods, Cyclopedia of Education. Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1911.

235. SUZZALLO, HENRY, and BURNHAM, W. H. History of Education as a Professional Subject. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1908.

236. SUZZALLO, HENRY. Introductons to the Riverside Educational Monographs. (These monographs are edited by Dr. Suzzallo. Houghton Mifflin Co., New York.)

237. TALKINGTON, H. L. How to Study and Teach History and Civics in the Grades. Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.

238. TANNER, A. E. The Child (Revised Edition) Rand, McNally & Co., New York.

239. TAYLOR, J. S. A Handbook of Vocational Education. Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1914.

240. TEACHER'S COLLEGE RECORD. History Course in the Horace Mann High School, March, 1906, Vol. VII, pp. 51-67. Macmillan Co. (Agents.)

241. TERMAN, L. M. The Hygiene of the School Child. Houghton Mifflin Co., N. Y., 1914.

242. THOMAS, C. S. How to Teach English Classics. ("Principles in Teaching English" with questions on English classics.) Houghton Mifflin Co., 1910, 132 pages.

243. THOMPSON, F. V. Vocational Guidance in Boston. School Review, Feb., 1915, Vol. XXIII, pp. 105-112.

244. THORNDIKE, E. L. Individuality. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1911, New York.

245. THORNDIKE, E. L. Education—A First Book. Macmillan Co., 1912, New York.

246. THORNDIKE, E. L. Elimination of Pupils from School. Washington Gov't. Print. Office, 1908, pp. 63. U. S. Bur. of Educ. Bulletin No. 4, 1907.

247. TRACY, F. and SINCLAIR, S. B. Introductory Educational Psychology. Macmillan Co., of Canada, Toronto, 1912.

248. TRYON, R. M. The Organization of United States History for Teaching Purposes in Grades Seven and Eight. Elem. School Journal, Jan., 1916, Vol. XVI, pp. 247-256.

249. WARD, E. J. The Social Center. D. Appleton & Co., 1913.

250. WAYLAND, J. W. How to Teach American History. Macmillan Co., New York, 1914.

251. WEST, H. S. A Junior High School. School Review, Feb., 1916, Vol. XXIV, pp. 142-151.

252. WHITNEY, W. T. The Socialized Recitation. A. S. Barnes Co., New York City.

253. WHEELER, G. The Six Year High School. School Review, April, 1913.

254. WHIPPLE, G. M. How to Study Effectively. Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.

255. WHIPPLE, G. M. Psychology and Hygiene of Adolescence. A chapter in Paul Monroe's Principles of Secondary Education, pp. 246-312. Macmillan Co., 1914.

256. Wilson, G. M., and H. B. The Motivation of School Work. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916, Boston.

257. Wilson, H. B. Report of Committee on Economy of Time in Elementary Education. Proc. N. E. A., 1915, pp. 402-410.

258. Wilson, Woodrow. Mere Literature and Other Essays, 1896, pp. 161-186. Houghton Mifflin Co., N. Y., 1900.

259. Wheatley, W. A. Vocational Information for Pupils in a Small City. School Review, March, 1915, Vol. XXIII, pp. 175-180.

260. Winship, A. E. Standards—Wise and Otherwise. Proc. N. E. A., 1915, pp. 528-533.

261. Zimmers, J. P. Teaching Boys and Girls How to Study. Parker Educational Co., Madison, Wisconsin, 1918.

INDEX