Application of the Herbartian formal steps to instruction to the teaching of elementary grammar

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THE APPLICATION
of the
HERBARTIAN FORMAL STEPS OF INSTRUCTION
to the
TEACHING OF ELEMENTARY GRAMMAR

A Thesis
submitted to the
Graduate Faculty of the State University of Iowa
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the
Degree of Master of Arts
in the
Department of Education.

by
Eva May Luse

Iowa City, Iowa
1910
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INTRODUCTION

No part of Herbartian pedagogy has been more widely accepted than the inductive-deductive method of instruction based on an analysis of the act of learning into the formal steps. The movement is from individual experiences to general notions which are in turn applied to new particular cases. It is the purpose of this paper to illustrate the application of this method of instruction to elementary grammar.

In order to give a setting for the topic here presented the Herbartian movement is outlined briefly as to its principal features. The meaning of the Neo-Herbartian terms of Preparation, Presentation, Elaboration and Application are explained. The formal steps are here simply applied. There is no attempt to present in detail Herbartian psychology or philosophy.

The course of study in the elementary school is given rather fully in order to show the relation of the lesson units selected for discussion. Much attention is given to language because it is in the use of language that the principles and terminology of grammar are developed. The formal grammar of the seventh grade is simply a systematic summary of principles presented in the lower
grades. German is begun in the seventh grade and Latin in the eighth. Because of the effect upon English grammar they are discussed.

The aim is the development of the pupil's mind through self-activity. With this in view the teacher works through the recitation period thinking of the actual mental processes that are taking place and not any mechanical plan. Illustrative lesson plans show how the formal steps previously described may be applied to lessons taken from the indicated course of study. These lesson plans are the result of practical experience. The course of study is in use in the Training School of the Iowa State Teachers' College and many such lesson plans have been carried out in the class rooms of that department.
THE HERBARTIAN MOVEMENT

1. HISTORY.

Scientific theories which directed attention to the study of the child were first advanced by Locke, furthered by the exaggerations of Rousseau, made concrete in the school room by Pestalozzi and given permanence through the scientific basis provided by Herbart. Herbart’s work was (1) to develop a psychology which could be used in the practical problems of teaching, (2) to make application of this psychology to education by means of the doctrine of apperception and (3) to perfect Pestalozzi’s work by unifying past systems and giving a scientific foundation to what had been purely empirical.

Living in a period of deep, speculative thought Herbart devoted himself to philosophical investigation, untroubled by the political and economic distress and unrest of the time. For fourteen years a professor at Göttingen and for twenty five years at Königsberg he wrote and lectured on philosophy, psychology, and pedagogy. But his pedagogical inspiration came during the three years spent as private tutor of the three boys of Herr von Steiger, the governor of Interlaken. From the five now-existing bi-monthly reports of the conduct and progress of his charges
is seen the interest and earnestness with which he carried on his work. It was this experience that gave the stimulus to the psychological and ethical studies which he used as the means for putting education on a scientific basis. Modern educational psychology thus had its beginning. At Königsberg he established a training school for boys where his decided views could find practical application.

2. PRINCIPAL FEATURES.

Herbart's psychology was based on metaphysics, psycho-physics and experience, a system of thought since greatly modified, especially with regard to the first two points. The influence upon the theory and practice of teaching came from the third aspect of psychology, that founded upon experience, and worked out under the general term apperception. The current psychology of an aggregate of faculties; knowledge, feeling, will and their subdivisions, gave sanction to methods providing for the training of these different faculties; object lessons for the training of observation; fact-collecting for the cultivation of the memory; and the study of mathematics and the classics for the development of the reasoning powers, a course that led to the extreme notion of formal discipline and transference
of power. Herbart asserted that the soul is a unity with no inborn faculties, possessed only of the capacity for development through experience. If the mind develops through ideas resulting from its own experience, then education which determines what these experiences shall be becomes an all-important matter. The subjects of the curriculum, therefore, must be studied in relation to the pupil's needs, capacity and interests and in their relation to one another.

One important result of the work of Comenius, Rousseau and Pestalozzi was the emphasis placed on observation and the founding of elementary education on simple, concrete facts obtained through the use of the senses. Just as Pestalozzi substituted in actual practice sense perception, verification and original research for memory culture so Herbart contended not for sense perception but for apperception, the union of recognition and knowing, of memory and perception. This assimilation of ideas by means of ideas already acquired is the basal principle of Herbart's educational psychology.

1"Every simple or complete perception (or sensa-}

1 Lange: Apperception, page 256.
tion) which enters consciously through the senses acts upon the ideas present as a stimulus. When a fusion of the new perception (sensation) takes place with those ideas reproduced anew and standing high in consciousness, the latter assert or maintain superiority. The new perception is made an acquisition of the older series of ideas..... It is that psychical activity by which individual perceptions, ideas or idea-complexes are brought into relation to our previous intellectual and emotional life, assimilated with it, and thus raised to greater clearness, activity and significance".

DeGarmo says that the primary function of the teacher is to impart knowledge in such a way that it can be most rapidly, securely and profitably assimilated. The teacher must know something of the child's previous interests in order to utilize them; he must select his materials of instruction with reference to ultimate purposes and the pupil's powers of comprehension; he must arrange the subject-matter, not only with respect to the pupil's acquired experiences, but with respect to that which he is going to acquire, i. e., the subjects must be brought into the best co-ordinate relation to one another and he must adapt his teaching processes so as to secure the quickest
apprehension and longest retention of the matter taught. All this has to do with the acquisition of new experiences on the basis of that already acquired.

Through apperception also, Herbart arrives at the end of all education, - ethical development. Ideas are imparted through the common school subjects in such a way as to secure their proper apperception. This gives rise to desires which are satisfied through acts. Instruction in non-moral subjects must tend to the formation of moral character and accomplish the Herbartian ideal of "Erziehender Unterricht".

"Many-sided interest" is a general term for that kind of varied mental activity which it is the business of instruction to incite. In order to achieve this many-sided interest the teacher must consider the subject-matter which furnishes presentations so that they will be in harmony with the child's development.

More than any other man Herbart has given certainty to the procedure of instruction in showing how ideas shall be supplied, arranged and related. "In order to keep the mind in balance we prescribe the general rule; emphasize equally clearness of the individual perception, association of the manifold, co-ordination of the associated
and progress through exercise according to this co-ordination! Upon these conditions depends the charm which should rule in everything that is learned. Since every concrete lesson unit may be thus treated independent of the material, the procedure has been outlined in the so-called formal steps of instruction.

3. FOLLOWERS.

Herbert's own teaching was confined to tutoring so that the practical application of his belief to school room practice was left to his followers who elaborated the principles which the great philosopher had stated. Karl Volkmar Stoy and his followers adhered to the original theories of Herbert. Dr. Stoy applied the system to the elementary schools and Dr. Otto Frick to the secondary schools or gymnasia. Dr. Stoy was succeeded by Dr. Rein who has made the pedagogical seminary at Jena the most noted of its kind, not so much in the advancement of new theories as in the practical application of important, yet untried, old ones. He follows Ziller's interpretation of Herbart. Tuiskon Ziller founded at Leipsic a seminary modelled after that of Herbart at Königsberg. His less conservative application of Herbartian principles brought them into prominent notice. He worked out a selection of
subject-matter based on the theory of the concentration of studies and the culture epochs. He treated fully the method of instruction as outlined in the formal steps. Clearness as defined by Herbart was separated into Preparation (analysis) and Presentation (synthesis) followed by Association, System and Application.

The Herbart Club in America was organized at the Saratoga meeting of the National Educational Association in 1892 and consisted for the most part of educators who had made a special study of Herbartian principles and wished to promote their application in this country.
THE INDUCTIVE-DEDUCTIVE METHOD OF INSTRUCTION

1. THE FORMAL STEPS.

The end in teaching is not the collection of facts by a process of mechanical accretion but the direction of self-activity that will result in growth and development. From the common methods of teaching the children become mere receptacles and at the end of the common school course possess less of initiative, originality and power of independent thinking than they had at the beginning. The great work of the teacher is to adjust subject-matter so that the learning mind can make the proper associations in the most economical way. Good teaching deals with ideas suggested by words and not with the words themselves merely. It is the fitting together, with some problem as a nucleus, new thoughts and emotions with those already in the pupil's possession.

If an accurate, scientific description of the learning process can be secured, it can be followed in the acquisition of all knowledge whether within or without the school room. Whatever the subject to be taught or the age of the pupil the laws of mental activity are the same and must be followed to secure effective results.

Lesson units. Examination of any subject discloses
a framework of principles or general notions about which knowledge is grouped and classified. Instruction is for the purpose of leading to a comprehension of these general truths expressed in the form of definitions, rules, principles, laws or maxims. A general notion forms the central dominating truth of a unit of instruction. Units are often marked out in text-books by chapters and topic headings. Such a "thought unit" or "method whole" often includes more material than can be covered in one recitation period. The material is then divided, according to the skill of the teacher and conditions presented by the subject and class, into lessons. The full teaching process however is kept in mind during the several lessons so that the central truth is clearly grasped by the class.

For a secondary school grammar class the "noun" may prove a suitable unit. For a seventh grade one kind of nouns, for example, "Proper Nouns", is a better topic. For a fifth grade it may be limited to names of people. If the unit will require more than a week's time it will be well to break it up into smaller units.

**Examples before rules.** Since general truths are conclusions obtained from the study of individual instances, these particulars must be presented and discussed
before any conclusion can be drawn. Many text-books are written and many lessons taught in which the rule is given ready made to the class and followed by a few examples. Such committing of rules seems a saving of time and effort but proves to be really the opposite. The rule or definition is nothing but empty words unless its derivation is previously made clear by examples connected with past experience. The memorizing of the conjugation of "to be", for example, is a dreary and fruitless task. The different forms should first be worked out in familiar sentences and then used. Memorizing, as such, will not be needed. Many a pupil has learned pages of "principal parts" without any idea of their use and with no more effective results than the memorizing of so many nonsense syllables.

Preparation. According to the principle of apperception, any new knowledge in order to be appreciated must be interpreted by old ideas that are closely related to it. This involves the recognition of the old in the new. The different case forms of pronouns have been in familiar use and yet children are given a declension to learn without any idea as to its origin and meaning. From such teaching they come to look upon the principles of grammar as something to be studied in school without any connection with
their daily speech.

The preparatory step in instruction consists of recalling, collecting and arranging these past experiences which bear upon the new topic. They are not necessarily those of the previous lesson or of any school work. Teachers need to know the child's resources and environment. If this preparatory step is omitted there is likely to be misunderstanding and misinterpretation of the new material which will necessitate a final going back for review. The interest in that which is already known is carried over into the new problem.

Again, the children have been interested in various occupations in the previous period and the "Preparation" is valuable in creating an atmosphere and getting the members of the class to thinking along the same line. It gives opportunity for the best kind of review. These incidental reviews with summaries at the close of divisions of the work are far superior to any stated periodic repetitions given simply for refreshing the memory. The length of time given to the step varies greatly. Often a few short, sharp, rapid questions bearing on the subject from previous lessons, home life, reading and travel are sufficient.

Aim. A summary of "Preparation" forms the backward
view of the "Aim" which looks forward to the problem that is to be worked out in the lesson unit. The teacher must have a definite object in each recitation. The pupils must also have something to work out and this must be stated in such a way as to arouse interest and unify thinking. Following the suggestions of the teacher they select in the preparatory step facts already known which will aid in the solution of the problem at hand. The handling of the "Aim" requires all the skill that the teacher possesses. The success of the recitation depends on its clearness and attractiveness. A properly stated "Aim" must be concrete, for example, "What are pronouns?" is not a good one, but, "Let us see what words can be used instead of the word, "Lincoln", in the composition you wrote on his birthday" is adequate. In the fable of the "Donkey and the Salt", the teacher's aim is to show that trickery is a poor way to accomplish results, but she says to the class, "Let us see what happened to a lazy donkey". The teacher's object may be to teach the mechanics of written composition but the class has as their aim the writing of a letter to an absent class-mate.

The aim must be definite. The announcement that we are going to study some more about birds or that we shall
learn something about bread is not very inspiring. Why the woodpecker raps on trees or what makes bread rise are more interesting statements. The aim should be short and simple so that it can be understood easily and reproduced readily. A long statement for the aim means that the lesson unit is not well chosen or that the teacher has failed to select essentials.

The form of statement may vary but it must set forth some problem that will be a motive for work. For this reason it must only suggest and not tell the new facts. For example, in a lesson in "Indirect Discourse" we find a subject in the accusative case. Subjects have always been in the nominative case. How can we account for this difference? Here is a real difficulty to be met. But if the teacher states as an aim, "We shall learn that an indirect quotation has its subject in the accusative case and its verb in the infinitive", there is nothing for the class to work out. The aim embodies the central dominating thought of the period and becomes a standard for judging the relevancy of statements and the amount accomplished by the recitation. It prevents the conversational part of the lesson from becoming indefinite, wandering and wasteful. Its importance cannot be over-emphasized.
Presentation. As the preparatory step is an analysis of old ideas relating to the problem of the lesson so the second step, the presentation of new ideas, becomes a synthesis in which old and new are united. The form varies. The children may listen to a story, work out a declension or conjugation, discuss the form of a letter, describe a trip into the country, reproduce or dramatize some story previously told. The child's own questions and suggestions are utilized and wrong notions are corrected. Most lessons can be presented best from the blackboard. As a rule, the class has not yet studied the lesson that is being presented. Occasionally it means a study in class of the material in the text, teaching pupils how to study. But textbooks usually give only generalizations and the subject must be presented through individual examples and abundant details before the pupils are ready to generalize.

The average text-book is like the key to an arithmetic, giving the solutions only. A practice of committing these facts and reciting them employs the memory but does not develop power. Books offer good opportunities for summaries, reviews and the application of principles. The teacher needs a definite aim and a clear logical outline in order to emphasize the essentials in the lesson. Sum-
maries are valuable for gathering up points as the lesson proceeds and give time for a general survey of the field and reflection on what has been accomplished. Some facts, such as new terms, need to be given outright. It is a waste of time to attempt to develop everything. Work for vivid imaging of objects and actions. Approach facts from as many sides as possible. Mere repetition of a point that is not clear is not sufficient. Present it from another standpoint. What helps one pupil may not aid another. Presentation employs discrimination.

1 "To learn about new subject-matter requires, in the first place, a long series of successive acts properly arranged,—acts of sensory observation, of recalling images, of repeating words, of drawing diagrams, of performing experiments, and so on indefinitely. The more successful we are in this, the more skillful we shall be in the perception of relationships between simultaneous facts". There must be free and pointed discussion of such nature that the child can give a good summary in his own words. The length of time given to "Presentation" varies greatly with the grade and the subject since it furnishes

1 Royce: Outlines of Psychology, page 254.
the individual data from which broad generalizations are to be drawn. In teaching the classification of nouns one half of the period might be spent on "Preparation", the remainder and two other periods on "Presentation" and one period on "Elaboration" and "Application" respectively. There is a sub-aim for each day's work when the unit is too long to be presented in one period. A review lesson will have no "Presentation" for there is no new matter.

Elaboration. If the instruction ceases here as it very often does in subjects like Geography and History, there is only a vague conception of the truth. The collection of materials is only the starting point. Individuals must now be compared as to essential characteristics. Comparison depends on a knowledge of the things compared. The extent of the comparison here depends on the data furnished by the previous step. Through the use of types there is an abridgment of complete induction. In teaching adverbs, through such examples as "sing merrily", "weep bitterly" and "fly rapidly" the child concludes that adverbs tell the manner of acting. But there are other adverbs like "early" which express time and still others like "so" and "very" that show degree. They also find that adverbs limit adjectives and other adverbs as well as verbs and they ar-
rive finally at the complete definition of an adverb through the series of comparisons. Such comparison gives definiteness to knowledge. Centering the attention on essentials means that it is abstracted from irrelevant matters. The collecting of these essentials results in a generalization in the form of some conclusion, definition, principle or rule which the children state in their own way at first. There is a temptation in a subject like grammar to memorize rules without any ideas as to their derivation. Taught in this way the definition is forgotten and can be revived only through reference to the book. The properly taught rule can be worked out again from individual cases. The processes of comparison, abstraction and generalization are grouped under elaboration.

**Application.** If knowledge is to be power the general truth must be used. Pestalozzi complains "that the worst thing which an evil genius has presented to this age is knowledge without ability to use it". Mere verbal mastery of rules is not power but only waste material. Actual application is the test of their value. This application of principles to new situations requires self-activity.

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1 Mulliner: Application of Psych. to Educ., p. CXII.
It is not a mechanical repetition. Principles must be modified to suit different cases. Speech requires the constant application of the few simple principles of the English language but so few apply what is learned in the grammar class to their conversational English that the subject is of doubtful value in that particular. Oral and written expression in language lessons because of the actual use of forms has more effect on the correct use of English.

**Summary.** The lesson has one central dominating thought rounded out finally by deductive application to particular cases of the general notion that was gained inductively. This central thought is a problem to be worked out. The concrete data are collected and examined for the purpose of solving the problem. In Preparation facts are recalled which give meaning to the new points of Presentation. The solution of the problem is reached in the general statement of Elaboration which must then be put to use in the step of Application.

It is impossible to classify devices with relation to the steps of teaching apart from the lesson to be taught. The purpose of an exercise determines its place in the plan. For example, the making of a map may belong to Preparation, Presentation or Elaboration according to the method.
of treatment. Again, if an outline is made to get separate new facts before the class it belongs to Presentation. If it means a survey of the field and a classification of facts it is Elaboration. If it is introduced for the purpose of fixing facts it belongs to Application. It might also be Preparation for another lesson.

2. THE USE OF "THE FORMAL STEPS".

The formal steps are not steps. There is a gradual heightening of interest as the lesson proceeds. No naive observer is conscious of the transition from one step to another. The order indicated is an outline of the general trend of thought. Application may come into Preparation or Presentation in testing the value of some child's suggestion. Sometimes the preparatory step may be omitted in order to give more force to the problem presented for solution. All the steps may be used on one point found in anyone of the divisions of the plan. A review lesson has no Presentation. It may be wholly Elaboration or Application. If the children grasp points so quickly that some step seems unnecessary, omit it. The essential thing is the action of the child's mind.

The teacher must have the subject-matter so well in hand that he can concentrate his attention not on any
steps of instruction but on what is taking place in the thinking of the children before him. Variety in subject-matter demands variety of treatment and if properly used this method of instruction can be followed without making lessons mechanical. Skill comes only through practice. Behavior in any art is at first conscious. But the experienced teacher develops a kind of instinct which tells him what the child's thought demands next and guides him through the intricacies of a recitation period. Such a feeling is not to be too much relied upon. Spontaneity and resourcefulness comes from careful planning beforehand, even for the experienced teacher. The fact that occasion may demand a change of plan is no reason for not preparing the plan. The power to interpret and utilize the unexpected depends upon it.

3. PURPOSE OF QUESTIONING.

The most common device of method is the question. It is most often thought of as a means of testing the preparation of the pupil and the recitation resolves itself into a mere quizzing process, a re-citation of facts gathered from a text-book. The real value of the question lies in its stimulating and instructing power. The ability to question well requires much thought and practice, for al-
though the most common of school room devices, it is one of the most difficult to manipulate properly.

Through preliminary questions at the time of the lesson assignment the teacher finds the condition of the pupil's thinking and is able to give helpful suggestions as to study. Logical questions at the proper time during the discussion of the lesson stimulate and guide the pupil's thinking and clear up obscurities; sharp, sensible, direct questions at the end of a discussion serve to fix the points made.

**Statement of questions.** Questions should be stated simply and clearly so that the attention will center itself on the thought and not be hindered by the medium of expression. Ambiguous questions are the cause of careless answers and indifferent thinking. The question must be so worded as to require thought in answering. Except for good reason avoid such questions as may be answered by "Yes" and "No". These questions have a place in developing the perception of error but as often used require little thinking. The ever-recurring "Is it not?" or similar question added to a statement would be less common if teachers realized that they were stating the facts themselves and only asking their pupils if they had spoken the truth. Whole
recitations may pass in which the pupils do nothing more than assent to the teacher's leading questions. "Which" is a pronoun, isn't it? The subject names that of which we are thinking, doesn't it? A transitive verb has voice, hasn't it?"

Neither, as a rule, should a question suggest an alternative, as, Is "early" an adjective or an adverb? Is "Chicago" a proper or class noun? A useless number of words is to be avoided, as, John, I think we shall ask you to tell what the case of "servani" is. The recitation is a discussion by the class, not an exercise between pupil and teacher. It is not a case where the teacher needs to say, "Tell me" or "Give me". Questions should move logically toward some definite end. Disjointed, irrelevant, unconnected questioning as well as too much questioning leaves the subject-matter in a state of confusion. The question should be stated clearly at once without any attempt at remodelling. Such uncertainty on the teacher's part leads to confused thinking on the part of the pupils. Give the question, allow time to think in proportion to its difficulty, then give the name of the pupil who is to answer it. Allowing each question to grow out of the previous answer is a waste of time. Avoid questioning the class in
a definite order. Such minor details seem trivial but care in such points means the attention of the class.

4. THE TEACHER.

His ability to plan. The success of any method of instruction in its particular application depends finally on the teacher who employs it. One of the essentials of a good teacher is the ability to plan well what he means to do. In order to do this the teacher must know thoroughly the subject which he is to teach. He must not only know the outline of facts and the relationships which bind the subject into a coherent whole but he must appreciate its value in the development of the pupil. He must see, beyond the series of exercises, the end to be attained by their use and the part each individual recitation period holds in accomplishing that end so that everything undertaken shall have its purpose and not be aimless conversation or meaningless device. In order to do this he must know the class as individuals in their local environment and home surroundings, and as a unit as to the grade to which it belongs and its place in the course of study, with reference to work that precedes and follows. He must study the general movement of the mind in learning and the specific activities and laws of teaching applicable to the
stage of development of the class before him. He should have an appreciation of the use of devices in general and of the devices and apparatus of value in this particular lesson.

His ability to execute. Ability to plan must be coupled with ability to execute which, though dependent on a teacher's good common sense and force of personality, can be developed greatly by practice. Earnestness, enthusiasm, professional spirit and good personality count for success.
1. THE COURSE OF STUDY.

First, second, third and fourth grades. - Good sentence form taught empirically and by imitation. Reproduction of stories; dramatization; description of familiar objects; simple outlining; letter writing. A few common contractions and abbreviations.

The use of capital letters, the period, question-mark, exclamation point, hyphen, quotation marks, the apostrophe in contractions and the possessive.

Subject, predicate, noun, pronoun, verb, adjective. Possessives. Sentences embodying voice, present, past and future tenses and objective pronoun forms.

Use of the dictionary taught. Written work in fourth grade on such subjects as Robinson Crusoe, John Smith, Odyssey.


Further work on the elements of the sentence - noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, phrase and
clause. Classes of adjectives. Direct and indirect objects.

**Sixth grade.** Oral and written composition work as in the preceding grades. Such stories as the Nibelungen Lied and King Arthur legends.

More systematic grammar study than in lower grades. Study of sentence structure with reference to emphasis, unity and logical arrangement of parts. Classification, tense and voice of verbs. Classification of adverbs. Forms of pronouns. Kinds of sentences according to form. Figurative expressions. Classification dependent on function, the same word a noun, a pronoun or adjective.


German. No text in the beginning work. Conversation using concrete terms. Discussion of objects present in the room and actions performed there. Rhymes, riddles, proverbs, stories and songs. Everyday expressions. Special attention to pronunciation and ear training. Free
oral expression. Imitation and repetition.

The definite and indefinite article, the different pronouns, verb endings, singular and plural nouns, simple tenses and reflexive verbs taught through use.


2. METHOD OF PRESENTING MATERIAL OUTLINED IN THE COURSE OF STUDY.

A study of children and an effort to adapt instruction to their development has shown that the correct use of language is based on imitation and habit and not upon the application of rules. For this reason the technical phases of grammar, the science of language, are postponed until the pupils are old enough to analyze their own thinking and profit by the disciplinary value that comes from such a study.

Aim of language teaching.- The general aim is the training of the mind through the acquisition and expression of ideas. Command of language with some degree of literary appreciation and absorption of ideals is the end to be at-
tained in the lower grades. The elementary course must
give a language sense which will lead to an instinctive
preference for the right form of expression, the reason
for which may be determined later. For the clear, fluent,
spontaneous use of oral language a wide, available vocabu-
lary and a sense of sentence structure are needed; for
written language an added knowledge of the mechanics of
expression.

Reason for unsatisfactory results.- Language work
is unsatisfactory for several reasons. (1) Teachers forget
that language training must first come through the ear and
the voice. The hearing of speech and the child's own speech
utterance supplement each other. The utterance objectifies
and tests the auditory images. All early composition should
be oral. A good English style must come from a familiarity
with masterpieces and not from any study of rules. The
child unconsciously absorbs style, phrase and expression
and learns to speak pure English from story, sketch, anec-
dote or description. Every teacher should read Miss Sulli-
van's account of the teaching of Helen Keller.¹ Ideas are
expressed and remodelled and the gap between oral and

¹ Helen Keller: The Story of My Life, pp.296-383.
written work gradually bridged.

(2) Too much written work is expected. Although about one third of the time below the fifth grade should be devoted to language, very little written work should be required. The amount gradually increases from the lower to the higher grades but should at no time equal the oral work in quantity. Teachers do not realize the difficulties confronting a child in preparing a page of fairly well-written English. The strain for mechanical accuracy is great in these early years when muscular development and co-ordination are not equal to the task. There are matters of punctuation, capitalization, indentation, paragraphing, penmanship and spelling, tense forms, possessives, the comparatives of adjectives and adverbs, and abbreviations to be considered besides the thought he is endeavoring to express.

(3) Language work is not busy work. The time is not to be devoted to mechanical blank-filling, diacritical marking, composition for the sake of spelling and penmanship nor general lessons for the sake of information.

(4) Wrong topics are chosen so that the work loses interest and reality. The stimulus of the thought element is needed to prevent perfunctory and artificial work. The
thought determines the expression. If there is something to say and a desire to say it, the form can be adjusted easily. As Dr. Dewey says,\textsuperscript{1} "There is all the difference in the world between having something to say and having to say something". In order to say anything clearly the speaker must think clearly and have vivid mental pictures.

Material. Stories, folklore, myth, legend, history, biography, nature study and narrative give opportunity for expression. There is much composition in every recitation; narration in history, description in geography and science, exposition and argument in arithmetic and history. The conversation and free discussion of every recitation is a part of the training in language. In the elementary history classes the stories of the Jews, Norse, Romans, Greeks, English, and the Colonies give much the same training as the stories of the language class. The teacher tells the story. The children discuss, outline and reproduce it, often dramatizing it in their own way with occasional suggestions from the teacher.

Correction of errors. The statement that every lesson must be a language lesson is to be sensibly inter-

\textsuperscript{1} Dewey: School and Society, Lecture II.
The teacher may substitute without comment the right for the wrong form, but an interruption of the flow of thought is to be avoided. Do not try to correct every mistake. Concentrate on the most glaring errors and gradually by a process of elimination proceed to the less common mistakes. Drills for ear training are valuable especially on the use of the forms of the irregular verbs, of the personal pronouns and such forms as lie and lay, sit and set, like and as. Certain papers in other subjects, even those in which little written work is required, ought to be handed over occasionally to the English teacher for her corrections. They may consist of such topics as a story in History, a characterization of some leader or movement, a description in Geography, a discussion of Latin order, Caesar's invasion of Britain, a German story or a description of an experiment in Physics in the eighth grade.

**Outlines.** Connected discourse should be orderly and logical in arrangement. Because of the difficulty this presents for even the mature student, outlining should be presented in the elementary course beginning with the fourth grade. Children discuss and outline stories told them and selections from other subjects. Careful, moderate use of the outline does not check spontaneity.
Mechanics of written language. The mechanics of capitalization, punctuation and arrangement are taught through use. Taken independently they are of no more educative value than shorthand or the telegraph code. Difficulties are met and conquered one at a time. The teaching of capitalization begins with the writing of the child's name, those of his friends, the names of streets and of the town and the title of the lesson. Punctuation begins with the period and question mark in the first grade. By the time the sixth grade is reached the common forms of punctuation are easily used except the more complicated uses of the comma, colon and semi-colon which do not become familiar until about the middle of the High School course. Copying literature is a help in getting the mechanics of written language in the lower grades. Separate difficulties. Do not attempt to teach the writing of plurals and of possessives at the same time.

Grammar taught inductively through language. The daily lessons should form a steady progression throughout the course, each day's work having its own specific aim but observing what has been taught already. There should be systematic, persistent effort without hurry or attempt at too great thoroughness before leaving a point. Experi-
mental psychology shows that we can use time more economi-
cally through "interrupted repetitions" and that a large
amount of time and energy is saved by not insisting on ab-
solute mastery at one attack.

The language work from the third to seventh grade
leads inductively into a knowledge of the simple elements
of the sentence. In the fifth and sixth years the pupils
begin to examine the sentence forms they have been using
in order to learn the laws of their construction and the
names and mutual relation of the different elements. This
is really a beginning of grammar but it is confined to
language forms and so made real and vital. Grammar as the
science of the sentence should not be begun before the
seventh year. Beginning in the fourth grade with the dis-
tinction between subject and predicate gradually add to
the grammatical knowledge using many examples and much
repetition. Teach nouns and pronouns first as names of fa-
miliar sense-objects, verbs as words needed to make an as-
sertion, adjectives and adverbs (words, phrases and
clauses) as modifiers of the noun, pronoun and verb. Avoid
a contradiction of terms in such expressions as an "adjec-
tive used for a noun". Call it an adjective pronoun. Prepo-
sitions are taught as showing the various relations of time,
place, manner, material, agency, and so forth, by asking for the meaning of the phrase as a whole. Simple tense forms are taught and then verb phrases are built up with attention to the power and use of auxiliaries. Through well-chosen sentences the voices and tenses of the Indicative Mode are mastered. All other assertive verb phrases are classified in the Imperative and Subjunctive modes as variations of the type forms of assertion in the Indicative. It is probably best not to analyze verb phrases into modal auxiliaries and infinitives in the elementary school.

Terminology. Whenever a term is needed the proper one is given. Many sentence exercises in the earlier grades are leading up in a concrete way to conceptions that will be presented later. The teacher must see the purpose of the exercise without forcing the principle upon the class prematurely. For example, for nearly two years the children talk of what things do and what is done to things without any mention of voice.

Definitions. Formal definitions should not be required in the lower grades. The general statements formed by the children should be good as far as they go. The teacher must be satisfied with answers in concrete functional terms. Insisting on abstract definitions is a waste
of time and means artificiality and loss of interest.

Aim of formal grammar. The systematic treatment of formal grammar is postponed until the seventh year. One year will be sufficient for the classification of previous knowledge if the early work has been well done. It is taught as a general means of training in clear thinking. Before this time the pupil does not possess the power of abstractions necessary for the analysis of thought processes.

A word, the symbol of an idea. From the first the emphasis has been upon function as a means of determining the part of speech to which a word belongs. One part of speech passes so readily into another without change of form that children should not be asked to classify a word apart from its context. The same word may be noun, adjective or verb according to its use. In an inflected language the form of the word shows its use and the thought can be determined regardless of order. A Latin sentence must be parsed in order to be read but the English sentence must first be read intelligently. Thought analysis must always precede sentence analysis. Ideas must be classified before words. ¹ "The fundamental difference is not

¹ Dewey: How We Think, page 171.
with the word but with the idea. Canis, hund, chien, dog, it makes no difference what the word is, so long as the meaning is presented". 1 "Language is the expression of thought in conventionalized symbols, a synthesis of external sign and internal significance and the vitalizing part of it is surely the internal significance - the meaning".

The English language possesses two sets of symbols, oral and written. The pupil must be led to distinguish between the idea and its symbol. The idea is commonly expressed in sounds or characters. So in the parts of speech the noun is a name of an object idea. The object may be a sense-object or thought-object. The adjective and adverb express attribute ideas. The conjunction, preposition and copula represent connecting ideas. The verb is the name of a class of words which express asserting-ideas. Teachers must guard constantly against mechanical memorizing. Children must think the ideas of adverb and present active participle and not simply classify them as words ending in -ly and -ing. Over-cultivation of the verbal memory tends to arrest the development of critical attention and reflection. Practice in pointing out the relationship of ideas renders

1 Grant Karr: Address, N. E. A. 1905, p 533.
one skillful in determining the right relationship in involved sentences. The mastery of grammar aids the pupil in becoming an intelligent critic of his own oral and written expression. Early training in the use of language gives him habits of correct speech. Grammar shows him why such forms are correct.

A simple system of diagramming may be useful as an occasional device but it must not become an end in itself. A mechanical facility in diagramming can be obtained easily without any reasonable intelligent analysis.

The work of the elementary school. By the time the pupil has finished the elementary school he should be automatic in the recognition of the sentence and its parts, in simple punctuation, capitalization, margins, indention and spelling of ordinary words, in the use of terms such as noun, verb, participle, and so forth, in the habit of determining parts of speech by function and in applying rules to his own use of language.

Foreign language. German. The study of a foreign language is necessary for the appreciation of the structure and development of the mother tongue. "Wer fremde Sprachen nicht kennt weiss nichts von seiner eignen", as Grimm puts it. It does not seem wise to introduce Latin
below the eighth grade. A modern foreign language in the seventh grade prepares the way for the more difficult language and must be given at least that early if effective results are to be obtained. It lends itself readily to teaching through actual use of the language as a medium of expression. The period for language development is the time when social and objective interests are demanding expression. A little later independent thinking increases and outward expression becomes less necessary. A self-consciousness develops which interferes with full free expression, especially in a foreign tongue. The enlarged power that comes from beginning to think in a foreign language is valuable. The new language gives training in accuracy and in the power of discrimination in sight, hearing and vocalization.

Below the seventh year the course has not offered much variety and a new subject is valuable as a stimulus to effort. The pupil recognizes the growth of power from day to day and catches new inspiration from the progress made. Because of the lack of inflection in English such points as gender, agreement of noun and adjective, subject and verb can comprehended more readily in another language. The ear is the organ through which the appeal must first
be made. It offers the only means of direct contact with language. The interpretation of symbols through the eye comes later. With impression comes expression, first through the vocal organs and later through the hand in writing exercises. There is a systematic increase of vocabulary through class discussion of actions, pictures, stamps, money, weight, measures, weather, clothes, parts of the body, the family, the state, incidents of daily life, and so forth, thus providing for a clear fixed association between the meaning of the experience and the language symbol. The vocabulary is used in a living connection. There is association directly between the foreign term and the idea without the intervention of the mother tongue. Results depend on the intensity, recency and frequency of the stimulus. Instruction at first should be entirely oral. Simple German sentences are used. The children get the thought from the presence of the object, a picture, facial expression, gesture, definition or synonym and not from translation except for an occasional word that presents unusual difficulties. For example, the word "Bienchen" is made clear by a picture or such explanation as "Das Bienchen ist ein Insekt. Es gibt uns Honig". If the pupil asks "Was meint Obst"? the teacher answers, "Obst sind Äpfele, Birnen, und Beeren".
There is much repetition of words in new combinations. Drill on peculiar sounds is necessary. The pupil repeats the sound or combination of sounds before the auditory impression grows dim. Teach phrases as well as words. Always use the article with the noun.

With sound recognition comes the appeal to the eye through some simple text like "Märchen und Erzählungen". The teacher reads while the pupils have the books in their hands. The pupils do much reading in German. A teacher can test the pupil's preparation without requiring translation. Pupils read with correct expression what they understand. They may answer in the German questions on the text and reproduce the thought through dramatization, dialogues, conversation or letters. Reading selections should consist of correct German expressed in connected sentences with sensible meaning. The exercises should be varied and interesting and pass gradually from easy to difficult.

Pupils will soon inquire about inflected forms. As in English the principles of grammar are taught through the use of language. This does not mean neglect of the study of structure. The grammar is a systematized summary of principles illustrated in many sentences. During the first six weeks the present tense of verbs, reflexives,
articles, possessive and demonstrative adjectives are taught inductively through use in question and statement. The time for putting a grammar text into the hands of the pupil varies from the second to the sixth term, terms of three months, according to the skill of the teacher and the kind of text used. The textbook is but a summary of principles which must first be presented through numerous sentences. A "Sprachgefühl" develops through the use of the language so that the pupil unconsciously chooses the right form of expression. The grammar shows him why it is the correct form.

Latin. The Report of the Committee of Fifteen recommended the substitution of Latin for English grammar in the eighth grade. They believed it to be of more value for English grammar than the further study of that subject. Dr. A. F. Nightingale says, "Put Latin into the common schools and the puzzling problem of English grammar will be nearing its solution. It will develop the powers of discrimination, enlarge the vocabulary, enable the student to write a better English essay, use a more terse and tren-

chant style of speech and grasp with greater keenness any promulgated form of thought than if he should spend quintuple the time in the study of English grammar alone”.

Latin seems the best companion language for English (1) because it is the source of many English words, (2) because of the contrast in the use of endings instead of prepositions, (3) it shows the value of grammar in the study of a language, (4) it requires attention to the form and function of words and corrects careless habits, (5) translation may give valuable drill in English composition and (6) it gives a notion of the logical classification of elements which is the basis of all language.

In English there is little syntax. There is no agreement of subject and verb except in the third person singular. The transitive active verb and prepositions govern an objective case form only in pronouns. There is no agreement of adjective modifier and noun. The main object in learning another language is to get a better knowledge of one’s own. The structure and development of the mother tongue is appreciated only when it can be compared with another language and that a highly inflected one. In teaching the emphasis at first is placed on the language instead of on the grammar. Visual concrete terms are first
presented, such as serva, cēna, miles, hasta, equus, canis and domus. The words are only symbols of ideas. The pupil must think in response to the foreign word, a picture, an action or an idea. Insist on this in the first simple words and phrases. If there is no mental image or concept called up by the word it remains merely a sound or character. Much reading aloud is desirable in order to get auditory and kinaesthetic imagery. The context and not the dictionary determines the real meaning of the word. Committing passages gives a supply of words, phrases and idioms. Translation is not a matter of substituting English words for foreign ones with the exercise in poor English that results. Only the student who can get the thought without the use of English words really translates. Expressions differing from the English idiom should receive special attention. For example, in teaching indirect discourse much difficulty is avoided by beginning with simple, typical sentences using the parallel form in English, as, "I declare him to be the greatest among you". Abundant, apt illustrations must precede the teaching of all rules.
Plan writing. In making a plan the first step is the analysis of the new subject-matter. Then the points of contact between new and old are selected and the end to be obtained by the pupils is determined. After these points have been thought out the writing of the plan begins. All the subject-matter must be outlined before taking up the question of method. Teachers need to master the facts of the subject before they can decide on methods of teaching. To avoid confusion of these very different kinds of material they are separated distinctly.

The statements in the left hand column outline the facts of the lesson. The right hand column gives an outline of method, including the questions and statements of the teacher, devices and illustrations. Each of the following plans is made for one unit which may require one or more recitation periods for development. If the plan is divided a sub-aim should be introduced.
Teacher's Aim. - To give opportunity for free oral expression of thought in logical order, with clear accurate imaging.

Matter

I. The shipwreck.

II. Robinson's first home on the island.

III. Supplies brought from the wreck.
   1. Powder.
   2. Ship biscuit. (Hard-tack)
      a. Size.
      b. Hardness.
      c. Tastelessness.

Method

I. Who would like to tell about the shipwreck?

II. Why did Robinson leave his tent and build a hut?

III. 1. What did he bring from the wreck that was of much use in getting food? Where did he put the powder?
   2. What did he bring from the ship that was good to eat? What are ship biscuits like? How do you think Robinson felt when he had been on
IV. Necessities for bread-making.

1. Flour from some kind of grain.

2. Some way of baking.
   a. The Sun.
   b. Hot Stones.
   c. Clay Oven.

(Aim. Forward view.)

(Presentation)

I. The Thunderstorm.

1. Rain, thunder, lightning.

2. How Robinson felt.
   a. Why.

the island almost a year with no bread to eat but ship biscuit?

IV. 1. What would he need in order to make bread? 2. How could he bake it? How did he make the dish for his lamp? Then, what is the one thing that he needs? Is there any way for him to get it? (Children discuss the various conditions.)

I. The island on which Robinson was living was in the Torrid Zone. What kind of weather do they have there? What seasons? One day during the rainy season there was a hard thunderstorm. The rain poured down, the thunder rolled and the lightning
flashed all around Robinson's hut. All at once Robinson thought of the powder. If the lightning should strike the hut the powder would be set on fire and the explosion would destroy the hut and probably kill Robinson. Even if Robinson were not killed he would have no powder left to use in his gun. Without powder he could not protect himself from wild beasts or kill animals for food. How do you think he felt?

II. The Powder.

1. Amount he had.

II. He tried to think of a plan that would prevent all the powder from being destroyed, if it should be struck by lightning. What could he do to save
part of it? He decided to put it in a great many different places so that he would be sure to save some of it. So, as soon as the storm was over Robinson poured the powder into little wooden boxes. Each box was about the size of this crayon box. As Robinson poured the powder into the boxes it looked like shiny black sand. There were two hundred forty pounds of powder. A sack of flour weighs about fifty pounds. Then this powder was as heavy as how many sacks of flour? The boxes into which he poured the powder were so small that he found it would take

2. What he put it in.
   a. Boxes.
      (1) Size.
      (2) Number.
   b. Sacks.
      (1) Where he got the sacks.

3. Where he put the boxes and sacks.
one hundred boxes to hold it. He did not have that many boxes so he had to put part of the powder into something else. What could he use? He finally thought of the grain sacks that had held the grain for the chickens on the ship. There were rats on the ship that had eaten what was left of the grain so when Robinson looked in the sacks he saw nothing but dust and husks. He went to the door of the hut and shook out the sacks and then cut them up into little sacks for the powder. Then what do you think he did with the boxes and sacks? How can he find the pow-
der when he needs it?

After he had marked all
the places where powder
was hidden he felt safe
because he knew that all
the powder would not be
destroyed at once.

III. During the rainy weather Robinson stayed in the hut most of the time. One day when the weather was clear, he was working out of doors and saw some plants growing near the door of his hut beside a rock. They were little green shoots about that high. (Teacher indicates height.) Robinson wondered what they were. It was moist and warm so that the plants grew very fast and when they were

III. The Barley.

1. What it looked like.
   a. At first.
   b. Later

2. Why it grew fast.

3. Number of stalks.

4. How it made Robinson feel.

5. What he did with it.
about that high (two feet) heads like this (Rapid sketch on the blackboard.) came out on the stalks.
What do you think it was that was growing there? Just the same kind of barley that grew at home in England. Robinson wondered how it happened. How do you suppose the barley happened to grow there? Twelve grains of barley had been in the dust in the sacks and here were twelve stalks of barley. How did Robinson feel? Why? Robinson was very glad for now he could make bread and not have to eat ship biscuit. He cut off the heads with his knife when they were ripe.
(Teacher draws line across barley stalk as she says this.) How can he thresh it to get the barley grains? After he had rolled it in his hands and removed the husks, what did he do with the grains? No, he didn't eat any of this barley. How long will it take it to grow? How much barley will he harvest before he can spare any to eat? How will he bake it into bread?

(Elaboration)

An Unexpected Joy.

I. The Thunderstorm.

1. Rain, thunder, lightning.

2. How Robinson felt.
   a. Why.

What will be a good name for today's story? (Teacher writes on the board.)

(Children select one from those the class suggest.)

Now Robinson got bread to
eat. Robinson's Surprise, and so forth.) When we tell about his unexpected joy, what shall we tell first? What shall we say about the thunderstorm? What else? You may tell all about the thunderstorm, Clarence.

II. The Powder.

1. Quantity.
2. What he put it in.
   a. Boxes.
   b. (1) Size.
      (2) Number.
   b. Sacks.
3. Where he put the boxes and sacks.

III. The Barley.

1. How it looked.
   a. At first.
   b. Later
2. Why it grew fast.

What shall we tell next? What shall we tell first about the powder? Then, what? How can he find the powder when he needs it? Tell how he planned to save the powder.

3. Number of stalks. Is there anything we should add now to this outline of the story?
4. How Robinson felt. Who can tell the whole story? Who would tell it differently? (Several children tell the whole story.)
5. What he did with it. (Application)

Telling the story.
Writing the story.

For tomorrow's lesson you may write about this unexpected joy of Robinson's. How many paragraphs will there be? How shall we begin each paragraph?

This story is worked out for a twenty-five minute recitation period and must be abridged if the time is less. It is well to give a series of these stories on such topics as "The Shipwreck", "The Earthquake", "Robinson's Illness", "The Harvest", "Friday", and "The Return Home". These form the chapters in a booklet on, "The Adventures of Robinson Crusoe". Illustrated covers are prepared in the drawing classes and the booklets are made in the manual training.
period. The children also enjoy drawing such objects as the sun-dial, lamp and hut, making baskets and modeling clay dishes as Robinson was obliged to do. The sun-dial is an excellent topic for the "General Lessons" period at some time previous to its mention in the language lesson proper.

The fourth grade is a good place to begin paragraph study, which leads naturally to the outline. The outline is worked out in the recitation period according to the suggestions of the children, and although the teacher must have planned her own, it is not to be forced ready made on the class. There is much freedom and variety of detail in the stories which the children reproduce. If skilfully used the outline does not lead to stiff mechanical results but gives training in thinking and arrangement of ideas that is of great value. The mechanics of capitalization, punctuation, margin, indention and spelling are learned through use.

The same general plan may be followed with a series of stories in the fourth, fifth and sixth grades on such subjects as "Captain John Smith", "Stories of the Trojan War", "Rip Van Winkle", "Abraham Lincoln", "George Washington", "Story of Ulysses", "Nibelungen Lied" and "King Arthur".
Although the aim is somewhat different, a similar method is used in the history work of these grades which consists of "Norse Stories" and "Stories of the Chosen People in the fourth grade, "Stories of the Greeks" and "Stories of American History" in the fifth grade and the "Story of the Romans" in the sixth grade. There is oral presentation by the teacher and free oral discussion and reproduction by the children varying somewhat in detail with the grade and class.
THE SUBJECT

Fourth Grade

Teacher’s Aim. - To teach the meaning of subject.

Matter

(Preparation)

I. Familiar Animals.

1. At home.
2. In the museum.
3. At the circus.
4. In pictures.

II. Facts about Animals.

1. Dog.
2. Squirrel.
3. Hen.
4. Cat.
5. Lion.

Method

I. Today we are going to talk about animals that we know. (Aim) 1. What animals do you see every day?

2. What other animals are there in the museum that you have seen? 3. In what other place have you seen them? 4. What different animals are there in the pictures?

II. 1. How large is your dog? What different things does it do? 2. What color is the squirrel that lives in your yard? What does it eat? Where does the squirrel have its nest? 3. Tell
about your hen's nest.


1. My dog is white.

2. Dogs are sometimes cross.

3. The little red squirrel eats nuts.

4. My hen has a nest in a box.

5. Cats catch mice.

6. Big lions live in the forests.
III. The Subject of a sentence.

1. What it is.

(Elaboration)

I. The Subject.

1. Definition

2. Number of words.

(Application)

1. Bees make honey.

2. Little fishes can

What were we talking about in the first sentence? In the second? In the third? The part of sentence that tells what we are talking about is called the subject of sentence. (Board. Teacher pronounce. Class pronounce.) What is the subject of the first sentence? Of the second? Of the third? How many words in the subject in 2 and 5? In 1, 3, 6? (Take other sentences as needed.)

How can we tell which part of the sentence the subject is? How many words do different subjects have?

Find the subject in each sentence. Think about a goat. Make a sentence
swim.  
3. Turtles live near the water.  
4. Big cross dogs have muzzles.  
5. Monkeys climb and chatter.  
6. The ponies danced at the circus.

What is the subject of your sentence? Why?

This is the outline of a very simple lesson which introduces the grammatical term "subject". In these early sentences the subject is a noun or a noun with other words. Singular and plural nouns make us think of one thing or more than one thing. The predicate shows what is said or asserted of the subject. Through different lessons and many examples in the fourth year's work, the different kinds of predicate are taught; those which tell what things do, what is done to things and what things are. The predicate may be a verb or verb and other words. A verb must not be taught as an action-word. It is the word that asserts. Correct terms should be used from the beginning. The right names are as easily learned as name-word, action-word and quality-word. Children get words easily. The teacher must
see that the words used so glibly stand for ideas. Avoid set definitions. Teach through examples. The lessons are conversational in nature and full of free discussion but not aimless. The teacher has a purpose in everything she does.
THE ADJECTIVE

Fourth Grade

Teacher's Aim. - To teach that an adjective limits a noun or pronoun.

Matter

(Preparation)

1. Sentences on the board
   or in the text.
   1. A merry brown thrush is in the tall tree.
   2. The grand old castle stood on the high hill.
   3. Ulysses had dangerous adventures.
   4. Three children played on the smooth lawn.
   5. They were happy.
   6. Homer wrote beautiful poems.
   7. Penelope was faithful and industrious.
   8. She was patient.

Method

1. Find the nouns in these sentences. 2. The pronouns.
2. How can you tell when a word is a noun? (Name of sense object or thought object)
3. What is a pronoun?
9. The slender branches wave in the strong wind.

10. The warm rain fell gently.

11. The tall branching tree is an oak tree.

12. It is old.

Pupil's Aim. - When we see nouns we think of objects, now we are going to study a new class of words and see if they make any difference in the objects we think of.

Matter

(Presentation)

1. Nouns with adjective modifiers.

I. 1. Teacher writes the noun "horse" on the board. What do you think of when you see this word? Think just how a horse looks. Teacher writes "little" before "horse". How did the picture change when you saw the word "little"? "Old". (Board) Now how does the horse look?
"Wooden". How did this change the image of the horse?

2. Chair. (Board) Big chair. Describe the picture you have now. Red. How has the picture changed? What other words may we add to chair to change the kind of chair we see?

3, 4. Follow the same plan as with 1 and 2.

5. Give a noun. Add words to change its meaning. (Board) What did you see happen when the word red was added? Three? Chattering?

6. Think of water. The water is deep. How did your picture of water change? Think of another
II. The Word Adjective

1. Meaning according to its derivation.

II. 1. We call words like red, little, chattering adjectives. (Teacher writes adjective on the board. Teacher pronounces. Class pronounces. Individuals pronounce.)

"Ad" means "to". (Board) The rest of the word means "added". To what kind of words were the adjectives red, chattering, deep added? These adjectives limit the meaning of the nouns.

(Elaboration)

I. Sentences under Preparation.

I. What words in sentence 1 change the meaning of the nouns? Read the sentence

word that would change the meaning of water.

Make a statement using a pronoun instead of water.
II. Definition. - An adjective is a word that changes the meaning of a noun or pronoun.

(Application)

I. 1. The yellow topaz is a beautiful stone.

II. What parts of speech are thrush, tree, castle? She, they, it? What do the words like merry, grand, patient, branching do?

What is an adjective?

I. Select adjectives and tell what they limit.
2. Dark threatening clouds hung over the distant mountains.

3. It was a famous victory.

4. Penelope was weaving a beautiful web.

5. The crafty Ulysses escaped from the singing sirens.

6. Many purple violets grow in the long grass.

7. They are fragrant.

8. The rude log cabin that Lincoln built was on a lonely farm.

9. It was small and plain.

10. The early colonists were brave and industrious.

Care is taken in the selection of sentences. In 1, 2, and 11 more than one adjective is used to modify the same noun. The choice is not limited to descriptive adjectives. Adjectives are used to modify both nouns and pro-
nouns used as subjects, objects or as the bases of prepositional phrases. They are also used as predicate attributes (1) with noun as subject, (2) with pronoun as subject. The pronoun used in a sentence is given more meaning because of the preceding sentence. Adjectives like early and lonely which might be mistaken for adverbs are introduced. Some adverbs occur in the sentences to show that not all attribute words are adjectives. Adjectives are selected that will definitely change the picture the child is likely to have. Give children time to image. They are familiar with the use of the words in this connection. Avoid monotony. To get the meaning of adjective the pupils must be conscious of the effect on the thought. Increase of vocabulary is the object of introducing such a word as nimble. The teacher must have some reason for each step she takes.
ACTIVE VOICE

Fifth Grade

Teacher's Aim. - To lead to familiarity with forms of the active voice.

Matter

(Preparation)

I. Parts of Speech.

1. Noun.

2. Verb.

II. Parts of a Sentence.

1. Subject.

2. Predicate.

Method

I. 1. Birds, bees and butterflies are flying among the flowers. What are words like birds, bees and butterflies called?

2. Birds sing. Bees make honey. What are words like sing and make called?

II. 1. The carpenter saws. In this sentence what is the subject? The predicate?

The gardener plows. Subject? Predicate? The firefly glows. Subject? Predicate?

What two parts are in each sentence?
Pupil’s Aim. — We know what part of the sentence the predicate is. There are different kinds of predicates. Today we shall study one form of the predicate and find what it tells.

(Presentation)

I. The Library Building.

1. Workmen.
   (1) Carpenter.
   (2) Mason.
   (3) Painter.

2. What each one does.
   (1) The carpenter saws.
   (2) The mason lays brick.
   (3) The plasterer plasters.

II. What various things do.

I. 1. Think of the new library building. Name some of the different kinds of workmen who are helping to build it.

II. Open your books. Page 65. Article 112. (List of nouns in text.) Look at the direction. Tell what the teacher does.
III. Plural Forms of Subject and Predicate.

(Elaboration)

(Sentences of Presentation on the board.)

I. The predicate tells what the carpenter does, what the painter does, and so forth.


I. In this sentence what is the subject? Predicate? What does saws tell about the carpenter? What part of the sentence is it that tells what the carpenter does. Second sentence. Predicate? What does paints tell? What part of the sentence is paints? Then what does the predicate tell? As many sentences as necessary.
II. The predicate tells what the subject does.

II. What part of the sentence is carpenter? Painter? Instead of saying the word carpenter, painter, mason, what can we say? Then what does the predicate tell in all these sentences? What was it we were going to find today? What does this kind of predicate tell?

(Application)

Assignment

Page 65. Exercise 112.

For tomorrow's lesson you may write sentences telling what these things do. What will you leave along the left hand edge of the paper? With what kind of letter will each sentence begin? What shall we put at the end of each statement? What are you to do for tomorrow, Alice?
PASSIVE VOICE

Fifth Grade

Teacher's Aim. - To give familiarity with passive forms of the verb.

Matter
(Preparation)
See application of the preceding lesson.

I. What things do.
1. Teacher.
2. Gardener.
3. Painter.
5. Hunter.

Method
I. 1. Tell what the teacher does. What is the subject?
Predicate? What does the predicate tell in this sentence?

2. Tell what the gardener does. Name the subject.
Predicate. What does "hoes" tell in this sentence? (As many such questions as seem desirable.) What part of the sentence is teacher? Gardener? Then what does the predicate tell? Name the
II. What the predicate tells.

(subjects in these sentences. The predicates.

What does the predicate of each sentence tell?
The predicate tells what the subject does.

(Teacher writes on board.)

Pupil's Aim. - (Backward view of aim is stated in pupil's answer to the last question.) Today we shall find a second form of the predicate and see what this second form of the predicate tells.

I. What is done to things.

1. Boards.
2. Walls.
3. Deer.
4. Bread.

II. What is done to the garden.

1. Ground.
2. Beds.

I. The carpenter saws boards. What is done to the boards? (The boards are sawed.) The painter paints walls. What is done to the walls? Deer? Bread?

II. It will soon be time to make garden. Let us think of what is done to the garden. 1. What is done to the ground? 2. What is
4. Weeds. done to the beds? 3. To the seeds? 4. Soon the weeds grow so fast that the plants are crowded. What is done to the weeds? 5. It grows very warm in the summer and there is not enough rain. What is done to the plants?

III. Article 114.
III. Page 65. Exercise 114.
Tell what is done to the grain. What is linen?
What is done to the linen?
(Finish the exercise or select such questions as may present difficulties.)

(Elaboration)

I. Comparison.
1. Sentences from Preparation. (Board)
   (1) The carpenter saws.
   (2) The gardener

I. 1. Name the subjects in these sentences. Predicates. Look at these sentences. (Group 2) Name the subjects. Predicates.
What two parts are there
in each of these sentences? Then how are all these sentences alike?
Now we shall see if there is any difference. What is the predicate of this sentence 1,(1)? What does it tell of the subject? Predicate of 2,(2)? What does it tell of the subject? What does each of these predicates tell of the subject?

2. Sentences from Presentation. (Board)

(1) The boards are sawed.
(2) The ground is hoed.
(3) The walls are painted.

2(1). In this sentence what is the predicate?
What does it tell about boards? Teacher writes, "The predicate tells what is done to the ——".
What part of the sentence is boards, walls, deer? Then what does the predicate in each of these
II. Kinds of Predicate.

1. The predicate tells what the subject does.
2. The predicate tells what is done to the subject.

(Application)

I. Predicates showing

1. What things do.
2. What is done to things.

II. Assignment.

1. Written.
2. Oral.

sentences tell? In group 1 what do the predicates tell? In 2? How do the predicates in 1 differ from those in 2?

II. How many forms of the predicate have we had? What does each tell?

I. 1. Tell what the blacksmith does. The cook.
   Dairyman. Teacher. Sower.

2. Tell what is done to the nail. The dinner.

   Write the last ten sentences. 2. We shall tell
These lessons show how the teacher's aim varies in statement from that which the pupils have in mind. The children are getting the thought which underlies voice, although the name will not be given for almost two years. It is not a technical teaching of voice but to the children is a discussion of what they know is going on around them. For this reason the subject of the library building is introduced. The children have been interested in its construction, have made problems in the Arithmetic work concerning materials, dimensions and expenses and have drawn it to scale in the Geography classes. The interest of this class in the school garden suggested that topic. The aim is free expression of thought for the children although the teacher has an underlying purpose and plans for it.

In earlier exercises even, the predicates tell what things do and what is done to things without any reference to the term subject. Like exercises are introduced several times before pupils study voice, as such, in the formal grammar of the seventh grade and the simple Latin sentences in the eighth grade. There may seem to be exaggerated de-
tail in questioning, but with children, one statement of a point even if understood must be followed by similar statements giving opportunity for reflection and for seeing the fact from different points of view, if any impression is to be made.

The lesson on Passive Voice follows that for the Active Voice in order to show how the "Application" of one lesson may be the "Preparation" for the next. The pupils of the fifth grade must be taught to use the text-book. The presentation of material in the text-book aids in their later independent study. What the text gives is often only an application of what must be developed orally in the class by the teacher. Often the text contains terms which need explanation for some member of the class. This is given in Presentation unless it is of such a nature that it can be called up in "Preparation".
Teacher's Aim. - To teach the function of the preposition in conveying thought.

Matter: (Preparation)

I. Object-ideas.
II. Attribute-ideas.
III. Connecting ideas.
   1. Copula-idea.
   2. Conjunction-idea.

Method

The red book is heavy.
The birds are flying swiftly. The bees and ants are working busily.

What kind of ideas do the words book, birds, bees and ants express? The words red and heavy Swiftly, busily? Are, is? And? What different classes of ideas have we studied? What kinds of connecting ideas?

(Partition of ideas placed on the board as the question is answered.)

Pupil's Aim. - We are going to find a third kind of connecting idea and see what it connects.
(Presentation)

3. Preposition-idea.
   a. Shows relation of
      (1) Place.

   What is the relation of this book to the table?
   (The book is on the table.)
   Now? (Under the table.)
   Now? (Beside the table.)
   What is the relation of this book to the desk?
   (The book is in the desk.)
   What word expresses the idea of the relation of the book to the table?
   What does the word "on" show? Under? Beside? In?
   What kind of relation do these words show? (Teacher writes "Place" on board.)

   (2) Time.

   The bear sleeps during the winter. The sun rises now at six o'clock. The comet was seen in the evening. What kind of relation do the words dur-
ing, at and in express?
(Use the board.)

(3) Material. A ring of gold was on his hand. A dress of silk is expensive. What word expresses the relation of gold to ring? Of silk to dress? What kind of relation does the word "of" show here? (Board)

(4) Manner. Mary writes with care. The pupil was absent without permission. How does Mary write? What words show the idea of relation in these sentences? What kind of relation does it show? (Board)

The ideas that show these relations are called preposition-ideas. (Board) What different relations do preposition-ideas ex-
b. Connects object-idea to some other idea in the thought.

press? What kind of ideas do the words table, winter, gold, silk, care, permission stand for?

What kind of idea does the preposition-idea connect with other ideas in the thought? With what kind of idea was the object-idea connected in, "A ring of gold was on his hand"? In, "Mary writes with care"? What name shall we give to the word used as the sign of a preposition-idea?

(Elaboration)

Connecting-ideas.

1. Conjunction.
   a. Definition.
   b. Word used.

2. Copula.
   a. Definition.

What is the third kind of connecting-ideas? Name all of them. What does the conjunction-idea connect? What is meant by a copula-idea? What words
3. Preposition.
   a. Comparison with conjunction-idea.
   b. Comparison with copula-idea.
   c. Definition.
   d. Word.

(Generalization)

A preposition-word represents a preposition-idea. A preposition-idea connects an object-idea with some other idea in the thought and shows relation of place, time, manner and material.

It is like the conjunction-idea and copula-idea because it is a connecting idea, but it is unlike the conjunction-idea which connects like ideas and unlike...

express these ideas? Why is a preposition-idea called a connecting-idea? How is it like a conjunction-idea? A copula-idea? How is it different? Who can make a definition for a preposition-idea? What kind of word stands for this idea?

Make a complete statement of the facts you have learned about preposition-ideas.
the copula-idea which asserts and may connect like or unlike ideas.

(Application)

1. The dish ran away with the spoon.
2. Europe lies beyond the ocean.
3. The lark is singing in the sky.
4. The lark sings in the morning.
5. Magellan sailed around the world.
6. Wreaths of daisies crowned the queen.
7. She listens with great delight.
8. Ferns grow among the rocks.

In the seventh grade the child begins to analyze his thinking, to distinguish between the idea and the word as a symbol of the idea. The idea "horse" is the same,
whatever the word that expresses it, equus, Pferd, cheval or horse. The early lessons in seventh grade grammar lead to clear distinctions between; first, the sense perception of the object and the idea of the object; second, between ideas and words, the symbols of ideas; third, between the thought and the expression of that thought in the sentence.

English grammar is the science of the English sentence. It includes the thought which makes necessary some form of expression, and the form which the thought takes on. For this reason there is first a study of thoughts made up of ideas and their expression in sentences composed of words.

Nouns and pronouns represent object-ideas, i.e. ideas of sense objects and thought objects. Adjectives and adverbs express attributes of object-ideas; the first, those which are attributes of object-ideas; the second, attributes of attribute-ideas. Connecting ideas are expressed (1) by verbs which represent asserting-ideas, (2) by conjunctions, (3) by prepositions.

The relation of words in the sentence depends on the relation of ideas in the thought. Sentence analysis must be thought analysis and not juggling with words. Each pupil must analyze the sentence according to his under-
standing of its meaning. If pupils get different meanings, the analyses will be different. With this end in view, the work, especially the first six weeks, emphasizes "the idea" of which the word is an expression.
THE FIRST DECLENSION

Eighth Grade

The pupils have had several weeks' work with Latin sentences in which all the singular case forms of the first declension have gradually appeared. A summary of these is worked out in one lesson under the following heads taking, for purposes of illustration, the words serva and bona.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>'Adjective' in Agreement</th>
<th>English Translation</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Case-meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Serva</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>the good servant</td>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>Subject or Attribute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Servae</td>
<td>bonae</td>
<td>of the good servant</td>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>Possession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Servae</td>
<td>bonae</td>
<td>to or for the good servant</td>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>Indirect Object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Servam</td>
<td>bonam</td>
<td>the good servant</td>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>Direct Object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serva</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>(0) good servant</td>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>Direct Address</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serva</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>from, with or in the good servant</td>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>From, with and in ideas</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teacher's Aim. - To teach Plural forms and the ordinary arrangement of the First Declension.
Matter

(Preparation - The Application of the preceding lesson)

I. Sentences illustrating singular forms of the first declension.

1. Serva bona cenam bonam parat.
2. Cena servae bonae bona est.
3. Domina servae bonae pecuniam dat.
4. Domina servam bonam laudat.
5. Cena, serva bona, bona est.
6. Coqua cum serva bona ambulat.

Method

I. Read sentences in Latin.

Of how many servants are we speaking here? How many cases of the word serva? Which cases have like forms? How can you distinguish them? Meaning of the different forms of serva? Use of each? Case of each? What is true of the adjective bona when it limits the noun serva?

Account for the difference in bona and bonam in the first sentence. Bonae and bona in 3. What is the person and number of parat, dat, laudat, ambulat? Ending?

How shall we say these
II. Sentences using plural forms of the first declension.

1. Servae bonae cenam bonam parant.
2. Cena servarum bonarum bona est.
3. Domina servis bonis pecuniam dat.
4. Domina servas bonas laudat.
5. Cena, servae bonae, bona est.
6. Coqua com servis bonis ambulat.

II. The plural of serva bona is servae bonae. How does the third person singular of these verbs end? If the subject is plural the verb must be plural. The plural ends in nt. Now give the first sentence. (Board)

Case of servae bonae in 2? The plural genitive is servarum bonarum. (Class pronounce.) The subject will still be cena so the verb will not change. Give the second sentence. (Board) Case of servae bonae in 3? The dative plural is servis bonis.

Read the third. Case of
servam bonam? The accusative plural ending is ās. What will the form be? Case of serva bona in 5? Like what other case? The vocative plural is like the nominative plural. Read. Case of servā bonā? The ablative plural is like the dative plural. Read 6.

III. The Stem and Endings. III. What forms of serva bona are found in the first sentences? In the second group? What part of the word remains the same? This is called the stem. What letter is found in all but two forms? All the stems once ended in ā, so we call words of the First Declension ā-stems. Give the
ending for each case in the singular. In the plural, substitute amīca benigna for servā bona in these sentences. Giving the cases and numbers in order is called declining.

IV. Name the cases in order. What is the stem of serva? How are the endings alike in singular and plural? How different? How do the meanings of the singular and plural compare? The use which determines the cases? What is true of the adjectives in the sentences? How does the number of the subject affect the verb? What do we mean by declension? Let us write

(Elaboration)

IV. Comparison of Singular and Plural Forms as to

1. Arrangement of the cases.

2. Stem.

3. Endings.

4. Meaning.

5. Use of each case.

6. Adjective agreement.

7. Verb agreement.
what we know of the
First Declension.

V. Look at the sentences.

Give nominative singular
of serva. Of bona. Geni-
tive singular, dative,
accusative, vocative, ab-
itive. What is the end-
ing for each case? Which
endings are alike? How
can you distinguish these
when you see them in sen-
tences?

What is the nominative
plural? Genitive? Dative?
Accusative? Vocative? Ab-
itive? Endings? Which
forms are alike? Make
complete statements tell-
ing what you know about
the First Declension.

V. First Declension or
words in E-stems. The
declension of the noun ser-
va with the adjective bona
in agreement showing endings.

Singular
Nom. serva bona -a
Gen. servae bonae -ae
Dat. servae bonae -ae
Acc. servam bonam -am
Voc. serva bona -a
Abl. servā bonā -ā

Plural
Nom. servae bonae -ae
Gen. servārum bonārum-ārum
Dat. servīs bonīs -īs
Acc. servās bonās -ās
Voc. servae bonae -ae
Abl. servīs bonīs -īs
(Application)

VI. Latin Sentences.

1. Epistulas ab amicis exspectō.
2. Amicās meas amō.
3. Amīcae meae in silvis sunt.
4. Čūra servārum multarum mihi nōn grata est.
5. Vitā splendia fēminīs multīs grata est.

VI. 1. Fill out outline for nouns in the sentences, according to some such scheme as follows. In the sentence 2, amicās is a noun, plural number, accusative case, used in the sentence as the direct object of amō.

2. Read Latin sentences changing the number of nouns.

3. Write the declension of pecūnia multa.
THE RELATIVE PRONOUN

Eighth Grade

Teacher's Aim. - To teach forms and use of the relative pronoun.

We are going to study the relative pronoun today.

1. The man who called is an agent.
2. The lady who called is an agent.
3. That bell that (or which) is ringing is the "Angelus".

Name the relative pronouns. What is the antecedent of each? Case of who? Why that case? Change the sentence so that the relative will be in the possessive case. Objective case. In the plural. In the same way change 2. Change 3 in the same way.

Give the forms of the
masculine gender in the different cases and numbers. Of the feminine. Of the neuter. What is the number, gender and case of the antecedent in 1? Of the relative pronoun? In 2? In 3? In what ways does a relative pronoun agree with its antecedent?

Let us see if these facts are true of the relative pronoun in Latin.

(Presentation) (Teacher gives sentence orally first. Child repeats Latin sentence.)

Singular
I. Masculine Singular of qui.
   a. Puer impiger est.
   b. Puer hic est.
      1. Puer, qui hic est, impiger est.
      2. Puer, cuius pater hic est, impiger est.

I. What word in 1 is used instead of puer in b?
Then what part of speech is qui? To what word in does qui relate? What kind of pronoun is it?
3. Puer, cuī fāvēs, impiger est.

4. Puer, quem vīdēs, impiger est.

5. Puer, quō lābōrāmus, impiger est.


II. Feminine Singular.

1. Puella, quae hic est, impigra est.

2. Puella, cuīus pater hic est, impigra est.

3. Puella, cuī fāvēs, impigra est.

4. Puella, quam vīdēs, impigra est.

5. Puella, quā lābōrāmus, impigra est.

II. Tell the same things about a girl. Give the first using quae instead of quī. Second. Third. What letter may we expect in the feminine accusative? Use quam. How will the feminine, ablative singular probably end? Give the sentence using quā. Give the different forms of quae. Note carefully these different forms.
### III. Neuter Singular

1. *Bellum, quod h* geritur, perīculosum est.
2. *Bellum, cuius dux* hic est, perīculosum est.
3. *Bellum, cui faves,* perīculosum est.
4. *Bellum, quod vides,* perīculosum est.
5. *Bellum, quo pugnāmus,* perīculosum est.

**Plural**

- **Masculine.**

- **Feminine.**

- **Neuter.**

  *(Elaboration)*

  Declension by cases.

  Comparison of genders as to form. Comparison of numbers.

  Comparison of groups of sen-

### III. Why do we have *quod* instead of *qui* or *quae?*

Case of *cuius?* Of *cui?*

Since *bellum* is neuter what do we expect as to the accusative case. (Like the nominative)

Give sentence using *quod.*

Case of *quo?* Give the different forms of *quod?*

Change sentences in I to the plural. Teacher substitutes the correct form of the relative.


Give the nominative singular in each gender.

Genitive singular, dative, accusative and ablative. Give nominative
tences as to gender, number and case of antecedent and pronouns. Comparison with English relative as to use, case forms and agreement of antecedent.

(Generalizations)

The relative pronoun relates to a preceding word or words called its antecedent. It agrees in its number and gender with its antecedent but its case depends upon its use in the clause.

(Application)

1. Haec schola, - tibi placet, mihi non placet.
2. Puerī, - in via stant, in periculō sunt.
3. Donum, - favēs, pulchrum est.
5. Scholae, - discipulī student, scholae bonae sunt.
6. Puella - laudās mihi non placet.
8. Puellam laudābo, - bene labōrat.
10. Dona - facis pulchra sunt.

Supply the proper relative. Write five complex sentences using different forms of the relative.
Change the antecedents in the sentences from the singular to the plural or from the plural to the singular and give the sentences.
Write the declension by cases. By genders.

This lesson unit is planned for an eighth grade Latin class who had their formal English grammar in the
seventh grade. It seems best to utilize their knowledge of the relative in English though the terms relative, anteecedent, and the rule for agreement may be taught directly from Latin sentences made up of familiar words. Care as to pronunciation and order is used from the first. Use the new forms in as many sentences as possible. There might be a review of the determinative pronoun and a comparison of forms. This lesson unit need not be covered in one recitation period but can be divided into as many lessons as seem best, depending on the length of the recitation period and the ability of the class. An effort is made to get thought directly from the Latin without the English medium. When possible, questions asked in Latin are answered in Latin. The spoken words should come before the written.
CONCLUSION

It is difficult to reduce to definite written form such a vital process as teaching. The more skillful the teacher the less mechanical will the teaching plan be, both in its formulation and its application. The important matter is not the plan, as such, but the mental processes it represents. The "born" teacher works out empirically such a method of procedure. A study of principles shows her why certain lessons are successful. Such an application as is here outlined of the laws of self-activity, absorption and reflection, association, repetition and apperception has been found to give results in an increased power of thought and execution on the part of the pupils.
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