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UNIVERSITY OF LOUISVILLE

CONSIDERATIONS THAT MIGHT

INFLUENCE THE TEACHING

OF

ELEMENTARY SPANISH

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Faculty

Of the Graduate School of the University of Louisville

In Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree

Of Master of Arts

Department of Education

By

Edgar Fernando Hudkins

Year

1947

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TITLE OF THESIS: Considerations that Might

Influence the Teaching of

Elementary Spanish

APPROVED BY THE READING COMMITTEE COMPOSED OF THE
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CHAPTER ONE

CHAPTER ONE

PURPOSE

" A study of the offerings of the Louisville high schools has been in progress for more than a year. The constantly changing world, spiritually, morally, and technologically, requires a frequent review of the educational program to provide for needed adjustments. Much additional work, some of which is now in progress, will contribute to further improvements in the high school program. Its successful achievement will depend upon the degree to which all persons concerned with public high school education make contributions to its improvement."

It is the purpose of the writer to endeavor to make a contribution to the improvement in the high school program of instruction in Spanish. An outline of the course of study in Spanish in the Louisville high schools, similar to the outline of the course of study in English which was recently published, seems to be needed at the present time. This work is intended to suggest at least a part of such an outline. It is hoped that without delay there will be a better understanding on the part of teachers, school administrators, and the general public of the importance of studying the language of so many of the other American republics and of using the most effective methods and materials in teaching this language.

This study is limited to the teaching of Spanish in the senior high schools in the United States since 1928 and its significance for the modern curriculum. The lessons learned from the surveys and experiments of experts during the past two decades in various parts of the nation should form the basis for our local planning for revision of the curriculum and the course of study.

¹ This quotation from Omer Carmichael, Superintendent of the Louisville Public Schools, is a part of the preface to Curriculum Bulletin 5, Louisville Public Schools, 1946.

The first step in the solution of any problem is to realize that the problem exists. The problem with regard to the teaching of Spanish in the high schools is the selection of that which has proved to be best in the time-honored methods and its combination with the best in modern techniques. The year 1928 has been chosen as my starting point because it marks the end of the work of the Modern Language Study which for five years had been compiling data in regard to the history of the teaching of languages in the United States and Canada. The eighteen volumes of the report of this group included graded word lists, newer methods of constructing and applying tests and measurements, psychological experiments, studies of eye movements while reading, and statistics in regard to enrollments in language classes.

A survey of all this work, followed by an examination of the results of later surveys and psychological studies and an observation of what has happened in this field in recent years brings about the formulation of the hypothesis that the old Procrustean methods of forcing conformity to set patterns should be abandoned in favor of a developmental process in Spanish teaching and study. Among the customs and traditions of the teachers of Spanish were many things of value even in this rapidly changing world order, but it is the purpose of this work to show that other procedures were based upon fallacious assumptions and should be replaced by new procedures and approaches to the task which later experiences of teachers and pupils have proved to be more effective. It is not the purpose of this work to tell teachers of Spanish what method to employ, because there will always be as many methods as there are teachers.

It is intended that all teachers of Spanish should be aware of the implications from the social psychology of language and should treat pupils as an end rather than as a means. The new idea of pupil-centered activities in class procedures is to be emphasized in a shift from the old formal approach to the study of Spanish to an approach which may be called psychosemantic — an effort to replace formal grammatical rules and explanations, wherever possible, with insights into the past and present ways of thinking that Spanish-speaking people show in their language.

A review of the history of the decline and recovery of interest in the study of Spanish in the last two decades is to be given as an indication of the effect of world events upon the school life of our boys and girls. It is intended that the modern teacher and pupil should think of the effect upon world events of the studies and attitudes of the young people of our nation. Consideration will be given to the intensive method of teaching Spanish in the Army Specialized Training Program and what may be done in our high schools in imitation of its best features.

A proposed course of study for the high schools of our city demands a study of the present status of the teaching of that subject in these schools, the enrollment in such classes, the objectives in the minds of the teachers, the texts which have been adopted for use, the criteria for establishing the course, and a study of the major needs.

The suggestions and recommendations to be offered in the latter part of this work may not meet the approval of all the local teachers of Spanish, but it is hoped that some parts of the materials offered may prove to be a

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stimulus to their initiative in meeting better the needs and interests of the pupils. Pupils should be given an opportunity to help plan and evaluate their work as well as help choose the activities in which individuals and groups of pupils engage. Teacher and pupil initiative, teacher guidance, psychological order of development, and wide use of both printed and environmental materials and opportunities should be utilized.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY OF SPANISH

The importance of the study of Spanish or some other foreign language is overlooked by many people because it is usually placed among the electives, and many colleges admit students with no credits in foreign language. In December, 1943, appeared the following statement in *Italica*:

Although a matriculant may enter seventy-two per cent of the colleges without foreign language credit, he must study foreign language in eighty-four per cent of the institutions before the A.B. degree will be awarded him. Ninety-two per cent of the privately controlled institutions retain this graduation requirement, but only seventy-eight per cent of the state-controlled institutions insist upon it. Fifty-five per cent of the colleges and universities studied require the students to take specified courses; others require only a reading knowledge.¹

Former service men are given credit for language instruction taken in service schools, although foreign language does not appear as a part of the General Educational Development test of the United States Armed Forces Institute.

The following table shows the minimum requirements for a high school diploma for the veteran. All but four states, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, and Maine, use the General Educational Development tests either entirely or in part as the basis for granting a high-school diploma or its equivalent.

¹Gossman, Juanita I. "What is the 1942 Status of Foreign Language Requirements in College?" *Italica*, 20:205-6. Dec. 1943.

Table 1

Minimum State Requirements for a High School Diploma for the Veteran 1							
State	Number of Units						Total
	Eng.	Math.	Science	Social Studies	Other Units	Electives	
Alabama	2	0	0	2	0	12	16
Arizona	3	1	1	2	0	8	15
Arkansas	4	0	0	1	0	11	16
California	0	0	0	1	0	18	19
*Colorado	3	2	2	2	2	5	16
Connecticut	4	0	0	1	0	11	16
Delaware	4	0	0	2	0	10	16
Florida	3	1	2	3	1 or 2	7	17 or 18
Georgia	3	1	1	3	2	6	16
Idaho	3	0	0	1	0	11	15
Illinois	3	0	1 or 2	1	0	11 or 16	16
Indiana	3	1	1	2	1	8	16
Iowa	3	3½	0	3	1	5½	16
Kansas	3	1	1	3	1	7	16
Kentucky	3	2	1	3	0	7	16
Louisiana	3	2½ or 3	1	2	1	7½ or 7	17
Maine	4	0	0	1	0	11	16
Maryland	4	1	1	2	0	8	16
Massachusetts	4	0	0	1	0	10	15
*Michigan	3	0	0	1½	0	0	0
Minnesota	3	0	0	2	0	7	12
Mississippi	3	0	0	1	0	12	16
Missouri	3	1	1	3	3	6	17
*Montana	3	*2	*2	*3	0	5	15
Nebraska	0	0	0	0	0	0	16
Nevada	3	2	0	1	1	9	16
New Hampshire	4	0	0	1	0	11	16
New Jersey	4	0	0	2	0	10	16
New Mexico	3	1	1	2	0	9	16
New York	4	0	1	2 or 3	1	8 or 7	16
North Carolina	4	1	2	2	1	6	16
North Dakota	3½	1	2	3	1	5½	16
Ohio	3	0	1	2	1	9	16
Oklahoma	4	1	1	1	0	9	16
Oregon	3	2	0	2	1	8	16
*Pennsylvania	2	0	0	2	1	8	13
Rhode Island	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
South Carolina	3	0	0	1	0	12	16
South Dakota	3	1	1	2	0	8	15
Tennessee	4	2	1	1	1	7	16
Texas	3	2	1	2	0	8	16
Utah	3	0	0	3	0	10	16
Vermont	4	1	0	1	0	10	16
Virginia	3	1	1	2	0	9	16
Washington	3	1	1	2	2	7	16
West Virginia	3	1	1	3	1	7	16
Wisconsin	3	2	2	3	0	6	16
Wyoming	3	1	2	2	0	8	16

1 Hess, Walter E. "State Requirements for a High School Diploma for the Veteran," National Association of Secondary-School Principals Bulletin No. 140. October, 1946

* For admission to the University of Colorado. Two units of Foreign Language are required, but credit must be in one language. Each local Board of Education is empowered to set graduation requirements. There are no state requirements.

* Michigan, California, Nebraska, Nevada, and Rhode Island leave the requirements for a high school diploma to the local boards to determine.

* In Montana, if no language is taken, the two units each of Mathematics and Science and the three units of Social Science are required.

* In Pennsylvania the thirteen units listed in the total column are for graduation from the senior high school (grades ten to twelve).

This table shows the great amount of freedom in recent years in the selection of subjects in the average high school curriculum. The fact that Spanish is still being taught in so many schools indicates that there are justifiable reasons for its continuance and that the study of a foreign language is still considered as contributing to worth-while purposes. It is not the purpose of the writer to suggest that the study of Spanish or some other foreign language be made compulsory. A subject suited to one group or individual, but not suited to another group or individual, should be offered only to those to whom it is suited. This suggested outline is not intended as an outline for use in preparing pupils for college entrance only; this course should also appeal to those who do not intend to enter college. It is not necessary that the two groups be separated.

The Louisville Division of Curriculum and Research received suggestions from principals, supervisors, deans, guidance counselors, and teachers in the preparation of the programs. In the bulletin the description of the language courses is given as follows:

Although a knowledge of how to use a language in speaking, reading, and writing are the direct aims of

the foreign language courses, of almost equal importance is the insight gained into the rich heritage and endowments of the French, German and Spanish peoples and the formation of intelligent and sympathetic attitudes toward their cultures. Appreciations are formed of their contributions in the fields of literature, music, art, and science, and an understanding fostered by contact with their history, legends, folk songs, and customs.

The study of a foreign language, especially of a Latin derived language, results in the better understanding of the structure of the English language. Diction is improved by the study of pronunciation, by the focusing of attention upon the nice enunciation of all sounds. Of very practical value is the new appreciation of many foreign words and phrases of common use in the English.

Foreign language courses will prove of great benefit to those planning to enter one of the vocations in which the knowledge of a foreign language is required, and a real asset to those who take advantage of the numerous travel opportunities of today.¹

A similar statement of the values to be gained in language study is made by Staubach as follows:

Practical

Commercial uses—international trade.
Foreign travel.
Diplomatic service.
Court interpreting and social service work.

Cultural

An aid to richer feeling for native language.
An aid to understanding of processes of thought and expression.
An aid to better understanding of foreign psychology.
A means to combat provincialism.
A key to vast stores of great literature.
An absolute necessity to the scientist, teacher, or cultural leader in any field.²

Because of the evident importance of the teaching of the Spanish language in our public high schools it is advisable to examine carefully the objectives to be stressed, the methods and procedures to be employed, and the type of materials needed for effective teaching.

¹The Program of Studies, Louisville, High Schools, Curriculum Bulletin, Number 5, Louisville Public Schools, 1946 Page 75.

²Staubach, Charles N., How to Study Languages, p.1. D. C. Heath and Company, 1937. Page 1.

Chapter Two

CHAPTER TWO

THE TEACHING OF SPANISH IN THE UNITED STATES SINCE 1928

Continuation of Work of Modern Foreign Language
Study by the Committee on Modern Language
Teaching

A date of special importance in the history of the teaching of Spanish in the United States is the year of the beginning of the Modern Language Study, 1923. With funds provided by the Carnegie Corporation and with the American Council on Education as its official sponsor, the Study collected valuable data concerning almost every phase of modern foreign language teaching. It worked in cooperation with the Canadian Committee on Modern Languages for five years and a long and imposing series of professional writings resulted which constitute the most authoritative body of fact yet compiled on modern language teaching.

In 1928 the American Council on Education organized a Committee on Modern Language Teaching to carry on the work of the Study. On the Committee were the following members:

Robert Herndon Fife, Columbia University, Chairman
Algernon Coleman, University of Chicago, Secretary
J. P. W. Crawford, University of Pennsylvania
H. E. Ford, University of Toronto
V. A. C. Hennen, University of Wisconsin
R. K. Hicks, University of Toronto
E. B. deSausé, Director of Foreign Languages,
Board of Education, Cleveland

In 1931 appeared Fife's Summary of Reports on the Modern Foreign Languages Issued by the Modern Foreign Language Study and the Canadian Committee on Modern Languages. It is a running account of the work accomplished by the Modern Language Investigation, with a digest of the contents of the seventeen volumes of reports included in the publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Foreign Languages.

The termination of the Modern Foreign Language Study (1923-1928) did not mean the termination of professional investigation. The Committee on Modern Language Teaching of the American Council on Education issued two publications: An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching, 1927-1932 and Experiments and Studies in Modern Language Teaching, both by Algernon Coleman, which appeared in 1933. This Committee was dissolved in its turn in 1934, and the Council appointed a new Committee on Modern Languages to "maintain contact with the field of modern foreign languages and to carry out limited studies."¹ This Committee provided for the completion and publication of two more studies: Keniston's Spanish Syntax List (1937) and a continuation of the Coleman Bibliography, covering the years 1933-1937.

During this period teachers began to discuss and accept the results of the Study and the later Committees. As an adjunct to languages the text-books began to include more geography, history, and material on the life and current literature of the nations using the language being taught. New-type tests, frequency lists of words, idioms, and syntax, and the determination of new aims of foreign language instruction, increased interest in objective research, and numerous experiments with various methods of procedure were some of the contributions which can be traced to the work of the Modern Language Study and the Committee on Modern Language Teaching.

¹ Handschin, Charles Hart. Modern Language Teaching in the United States. Yonkers, New York: World Book Company, 1940. p. 22

The schools and colleges were put in possession of a great mass of factual material respecting organization and standards in the teaching of Spanish. The use of new types of standardized tests and measurements enabled teachers to evaluate more accurately the results of instruction and to apply for themselves reliable criteria in their search for better materials and improved methods. It is perhaps unfortunate that there were so many different and conflicting methods used by teachers of Spanish in seeking a satisfactory outcome. In a bulletin of the U. S. Office of Education mention is made of thirty-three methods:

Without attempting a complete enumeration of methods and their variations, it is easy to make a long list: grammar, grammar-translation, natural, psychological, series, phonetic, reform, reading, new reading, direct, modified direct, organized, eclectic, laboratory, conversational, descriptive, complete, scientific, discussion, dramatic, heuristic, universal, project, unit, topical, intuitive, empirical, rational, progressive, audio-visual, rotation, oral, and intensive.¹

In the "Coleman Report" were stated five objectives for progressive development:

(1) ability to read books, newspapers, and magazines in the modern language within the scope of the student's interests and intellectual powers; (2) such knowledge of the grammar of the language as is demonstrated to be necessary for reading with comprehension; (3) the ability to pronounce correctly within the limits of class materials; (4) a knowledge of the foreign country, past and present, and a special interest in the life and characteristics of its people; (5) increased knowledge of the derivation and meanings of English words, of the principles and leading facts of English grammar, and of the relationships between the foreign language and English.²

¹ Johnston, Marjorie C. Methods of Teaching a Foreign Language, Washington: U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin No. 9082, May, 1944, 1

² Coleman, Algernon. The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929

Following the publication of the "Coleman Report" arose a controversy as to the most worth-while objective of Spanish teaching. Many instructors decided that since more than eighty per cent of high school pupils studied the language for not more than two years the four basic aims of language study could not all be achieved in so short a time. Reading was then considered to be the most valuable accomplishment for future use. Much simplified and especially constructed material was provided for the pupils and a great deal of reading outside of class was assigned, but as quickly as possible a transition was made to original writings of Spanish and Spanish-American authors. It was argued that a fluent reading ability could furnish a satisfactory foundation for the later development of oral-aural skills.

Opponents of this method have been, and still are, numerous. They argued that the pupil should hear the new words and phrases before he sees them, and that he should say them so many times as to form correct habits of pronunciation and aural comprehension. They claimed that the mere reading of a language made it a dead language and did not develop linguistic skills, and that conversation and singing and other activities in Spanish were the effective avenues of approach to the later development of ability to read and write with facility.

Educational experts during this period were very rapidly converting the teachers to the idea of making the pupil the center of activities and thinking more of the social objectives than of the mere handing out of information. More than ever before was psychology being employed in planning class procedures.

A remarkable shift of emphasis in a short time from the traditional subject-matter topic to the objective or purpose is revealed by the comparison of the following series of steps in the preparation of tests. Rush¹ prepared the first series in 1929, and Tyler² the second in 1934.

1. Drawing up a table of specifications
2. Drafting the items in preliminary form
3. Deciding upon the scope
4. Editing and selecting the final items
5. Rating the items for difficulty
6. Breaking the items into alternative forms
7. Rearranging the items in order of difficulty
8. Preparing the instructions for the tests
9. Making the answer keys or stencils
10. Deciding upon the rules for scoring

Tyler's specifications are centered around the objectives of the course being taught:

1. Formulation of course objectives
2. Definition of each objective in terms of student behavior
3. Collection of situations in which students will reveal presence or absence of each objective
4. Presentation of situations to students
5. Evaluation of student reactions in light of each objective
6. Determination of objectivity of evaluation
7. Improvement of objectivity, when necessary
8. Determination of reliability
9. Improvement of reliability, when necessary
10. Development of more practicable methods of measurement, when necessary

As early as 1930 began the trend away from the mere mastery of subject matter with a view to the preparation for college entrance. It was decided by many educational authorities that the study of grammar should be reduced

¹ Rush, G. M. The Objective, or New-Type Examination. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1929. 2

Tyler, Ralph W. Constructing Achievement Tests. Columbus: Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, 1934. 5-6

to the minimum essentials. A tabulation of grammatical terms found in several English and eight modern-language grammars revealed that there were 260 different ones employed. These were submitted to twelve language professors for rating as to their importance in foreign-language study. As a result terms were classified as follows: those necessary for pupils in elementary foreign-language courses (45 terms), and those necessary for advanced pupils (41 terms). The list of 45 terms necessary for elementary work consists of noun, adjective, verb, pronoun, adverb, conjunction, preposition, singular number, plural number, personal pronoun, possessive, main clause, subordinate clause, predicate, subject, object, phrase, future tense, present tense, modify, agree, appositive, antecedent, first person, second person, third person, negative sentence, interrogative sentence, feminine gender, masculine gender, neuter gender, active voice, passive voice, indirect question, present participle, past participle, auxiliary, compound tense, infinitive, transitive, intransitive, regular verbs, irregular verbs, consonant, and vowel.¹

The direct method began to increase in popularity, as did the natural and psychological methods and many other methods and combinations of procedure. The teachers were at last realizing that they were teaching human beings rather than subjects, and that many of these human beings would never enter college.

¹ Pressey, L. C. and Pressey, S. L. "The Language Concepts Needed by College Freshmen" The Modern Language Journal, 14: 624-630, May, 1930

Decline in Interest in Foreign Language Study 1928-1940

In spite of the efforts of the teachers of modern languages to make them popular and to make interesting and dynamic the class procedures and the work done by pupils outside of class, there was a steady decline in the study of languages in American secondary schools and colleges in the twelve years following the work of the Modern Foreign Language Study. This resulted chiefly from the pressure of social studies upon the curricula. The increase in enrollment in high schools and colleges seemed to call for a very wide range of subjects in a program of "general education" and special training for vocations.¹ In his Annual Report for 1944, Nicholas Murray Butler said:

"It is astonishing that while the decades since the First World War have drawn us into ever-closer communication with foreign peoples and put on us an ever-increasing responsibility in world affairs, they have also been marked by a steady decline in the study of foreign languages."

In response to the attack of educationists upon modern foreign languages which was described by Dr. Carleton Brown in his presidential address to the Modern Language Association of America in 1936, that Association appointed a Committee on Trends in Education Adverse to the Teaching of Modern Languages and Literatures. After its 1937 report, a continuing Commission on Trends in Education was named in 1938 to "take an active part in establishing sound theories of education in these fields."²

¹ Handshin, Charles H. Modern Language Teaching. Yonkers: World Book Company, 1940. 21

² Doyle, Henry Grattan (chairman), "Report of Commission on Trends in Education" New York: Publications of the Modern Language Association of America, 54: 1347, 1939

Wars have been the determining factor in the United States in the increase or decrease in popularity of the various modern foreign languages in the schools and colleges. Following the Franco-Prussian conflict, the German language grew in popularity with great rapidity and held its leadership in America until the First World War. At that time it was dethroned by the French language and was even forbidden by law in many places. The supremacy of French lasted from 1919 to 1939, but came the Second World War and it yielded first place to Spanish.

Following the Spanish-American War, Spanish had been brought to public attention and the prospect of trade and political relations with our new possessions gave great impetus to the study of the language. The position of Spanish was for a time strengthened by the unpopularity of German in 1917 and by a renewed interest in Latin America. By the year 1925, as shown in the following figure, the enrollments had caught up with those in French. The new demand for Spanish in the schools was partially frustrated by a dearth of well-prepared teachers and many disappointments followed an unfortunate over-emphasis on the utilitarian value of Spanish in commerce. With the collapse of German in 1917, the belief gradually became widespread that since German might be omitted from curricula without serious inconvenience -- as had been supposedly demonstrated -- other foreign languages were equally "expendable."¹

¹ Nichols, Madeline Wallis, "The History of Spanish and Portuguese Teaching in the United States," A Handbook on the Teaching of Spanish and Portuguese, Doyle, Henry G. (Editor) Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1945. 107

Figure 1

Percentages Which Enrollments in Individual Foreign Languages Form of Total Enrollment in Schools Offering These Languages. National and Regional Summaries. 1925

	F - French		G - German		S - Spanish		O - Other		
40%									
39%									
38%									
37%									
36%									
35%									
34%									
33%									
32%									
31%									
30%									
29%									
28%									
27%									
26%									
25%									
24%									
23%									
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16%									
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14%									
13%									
12%									
11%									
10%									
9%									
8%									
7%									
6%									
5%									
4%									
3%									
2%									
1%									
Na-	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	
tion-	New	Mid-	South	North	West	South	North	Cal-	
al	Eng.	dle		Cent.	Cent.	-west	-west	ifornia	

Wheeler, G. A. and Others. Enrollment in the Modern Foreign Languages in Secondary Schools and Colleges of the United States. New York: Macmillan Company, 1928. 87

In this summary it was found that the percentages which enrollments in Latin formed of the total enrollments in schools in which it was offered were as follows:

National -----	25%
Region I, New England -----	26%
Region II, Middle States -----	30%
Region III, South -----	33%
Region IV, North Central -----	24%
Region V, West Central -----	23%
Region VI, Southwest -----	20%
Region VII, Northwest -----	22%
Region VIII, California -----	11%

The enrollment in French classes was highest in New England, and only in the Southwest and in California was the enrollment highest in Spanish. The study of Latin was in first place in the remaining five regions. Examination of the chart shows the geographical influence very clearly. Similar evidence will naturally appear in any such chart, regardless of the year in which the summary may be made.

The popularity of Latin was the result of tradition and the prevalent insistence of the colleges that it be offered as a part of the college preparatory courses in the high schools of the nation. The percentages of high-school populations studying Latin were 22% in 1928 and 16% in 1934. The percentages of high-school population studying modern foreign languages were 25.4% in 1928 and 19.7% in 1934.¹

In 1928 Spanish was offered in 2,693 schools with 273,564 pupils registered; in 1934 in 2,945 schools with 273,508 pupils registered.²

¹ Tharp, James B. "Time Allotment for Foreign Language Study," The Modern Language Journal, 25: No.8, 598-608, May, 1941.

² Jessen, Carl A. "Registrations in Languages," School Life, 23: 22-23, Sept., 1937.

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In 1928 Spanish was offered in 2,693 schools with 273,864 pupils registered; in 1934 in 2,945 schools with 273,508 pupils registered.²

¹ Tharp, James B. "Time Allotment for Foreign Language Study," The Modern Language Journal, 25: No. 8, 598-608, May, 1941.

² Jessen, Carl A. "Registrations in Languages," School Life, 23: 22-23, Sept., 1937.

In spite of the increased number of schools that were offering Spanish in 1934, a recession is shown and the average enrollment in Spanish classes per school dropped from about 102 to about 93 pupils. About 34 per cent of the schools offered no Spanish. The number of pupils who were in Spanish classes had reached a peak of 11.3 per cent of the enrollment in schools reporting in 1922. In 1934 this had decreased to 6.1 per cent.

At the meeting of the New England Chapter, American Association of Teachers of Spanish, at Boston University, December 9, 1944, was delivered a paper on "Recent Tendencies in the Teaching of Modern Languages," by José Padín, Modern Language Editor, D. C. Heath and Company. The following sentences, translated from this paper which was read in Spanish, make reference to this decrease in the interest in Spanish:

Spanish has had its vicissitudes. In the period between the two world wars, that is to say from 1919 to 1939, its teaching was often fought. One of its most bitter enemies inquired, "If Spanish is taught, why is not Hottentot also taught?" For this good gentleman, more impassioned than intelligent, the Spaniard and the Hottentot were at the same level.

This type of prejudice and this spirit of isolationism were surprisingly prevalent in the United States and many were there who said that the natives of other countries should study Basic English instead of our studying Spanish. While it is a fact that this system of teaching English proved of value in Americanization classes, night schools, and the teaching of bi-lingual children, it is also true that 850 words are not sufficient for the translation of even some of the simplest of business letters or magazine articles.

This educational insularity of eight years ago seems to us very strange at present in the light of our new global outlook. Describing the situation at that time, Doyle says:

Our ingrained superiority-inferiority complex as a nation, exemplified in the past by such phrases as "Manifest Destiny," and our proneness to refer to our country as "God's Country," with the assumption, as a logical corollary that English (or American) is "God's Language" -- all these offer little encouragement to those who hope for an America of wider horizons, more open minds, more intelligent adjustment to the world we shall have to live in. Even educators who talk enthusiastically about "Education for the Air Age" seem to be blissfully unconscious of the fact that the coming "Air Age" means something more than improvements in aviation technology.

One could never tell, from reading the pamphlet, "What the High Schools Ought to Teach," published by the American Youth Commission in 1940, that its writers were aware that America is part of a larger world, or even that America is not itself the whole world.

Some of the charges made by educationist friends now seem truly incredible. Typical of these fantastic statements were these: "Spanish is an educational gold-brick"; "Spanish is of no more value than Hottentot or Choctaw"; "Latin America has no culture worthy of the name"; "Spain has produced only one writer"; "Spanish is worth while only for strictly commercial purposes, and is of very little value even there"; "Spanish and Spanish-American literature is fundamentally immoral and unfit for Americans to read." The profound ignorance that animated these and similar assertions did not prevent them from receiving wide circulation in educational circles.¹

A great change occurred in the popular idea of the importance of foreign language study upon our entry into the Second World War when there was brought in evidence our appalling deficiency in useful knowledge of foreign languages on the part of the young men called into the service. The measures that were undertaken to meet this emergency will be described in the following pages.

¹Doyle, Henry Grattan. "A Look at the Future," A Handbook on the Teaching of Spanish and Portuguese. Boston: D.C. Heath and Company, 1945. 228-231.

Revival of Interest in the Study of Foreign Languages because of World War Two

When it became evident that the United States could not refuse to take part in the recent world war it also became evident that there should be many things done to implement our Good Neighbor Policy in this hemisphere. Increased activity in the improvement of inter-American relations included an increase in the offering of courses in Spanish to the pupils of our high schools and colleges and an increased emphasis on inter-American studies. The United States Office of Education began to try more than ever to assist in furthering the constructive understanding of inter-American common interests, assuming that through the medium of communication, oral or written, mutual understanding could be developed, misunderstanding eliminated, and friendship fostered. This marked a great change from our previous stock-market diplomacy and reliance on armed marines in Mexico, Panama, Cuba and elsewhere in order to win them over to democracy. A study of 38 nations, compiled from Publications du Bureau International d'Education No.45, Geneva, 1937, by Thon, found the United States at the bottom of the list with respect to number of years of foreign-language study encouraged and number of languages required.¹ Our Federal Security Administration decided to change this.

In 1941 the Office of Education conducted a study for the purpose of ascertaining the extent of inter-American studies that were a part of the curricula. Inquiries were sent to thousands of administrators of school systems. When 2471 replies had been received, they were tabulated and it was found that 21 per cent stated that there was no study

¹ Thon, Fritz, "Some Data on the World Situation in Foreign Language Teaching and the Place of the U.S.A. in the World Picture," The French Review, 15: 224-227, Jan., 1942,

relating to the other American republics in Spanish or in English. Of the schools reporting, 1250 groups indicated that, although they did not offer Spanish, they provided a study of the other Americas in various other courses given in the English language. Twenty-seven per cent stated that Spanish was being taught and gave the enrollment of classes. The following table was then published in Bulletin No. 10, 1941.¹

Table 2

Enrollments in Spanish Classes in Grades 7-12 for the First Semester, 1940-41; Reported by 671 School Systems in the Various Regions of the United States

Region	Number of systems reporting	Total enrollment in grades in which Spanish is offered	Number taking Spanish	Per cent taking Spanish
1	2	3	4	5
W. South Central	125	146,474	31,722	21.7
Mountain	74	66,326	13,065	19.7
Pacific	72	214,899	33,697	15.7
E. South Central	40	39,866	6,085	15.3
South Atlantic	69	88,550	11,042	12.9
Middle Atlantic	121	649,839	72,330	11.1
New England	35	120,700	9,457	7.8
E. North Central	80	394,810	30,497	7.7
W. North Central	55	149,346	10,912	7.3
TOTAL	671	1,867,810	218,807	11.7

In the same bulletin appeared another table showing the percentage of increase in enrollments in introductory Spanish classes in 1940-41 over those in 1939-40. The 22-per cent increase was without doubt due to the world crisis at that time, but contemporaneous reports show a continued decline in the study of German and French.

¹ Carley, V. A. Inter-American Friendship Through the Schools, U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin No. 10, 1941
11-13

Table 3

Number of Pupils Reported Taking Spanish for the First Time in 1939-40 and in 1940-41 in the Various Regions of the United States

Region	Number of pupils taking Spanish for first time		Per cent increase
	1939-40	1940-41	
1	2	3	4
West South Central	10,193	15,875	55.7
West North Central	4,286	6,662	55.4
East South Central	2,432	3,117	28.2
New England	1,889	2,354	24.6
Middle Atlantic	24,349	29,896	22.8
South Atlantic	3,946	4,842	22.7
Pacific	13,741	15,127	10.1
East North Central	13,207	13,695	3.7
Mountain	6,017	6,171	2.6
TOTAL	80,060	97,739	22.1

It is seen that geographical location influences the decision to offer Spanish and the interest taken in the subject by the pupils. From the statistical angle the replies may not be representative, but they show a sampling that is adequate to indicate the trend at that time.

The Army soon saw the need for soldiers who could talk French, Italian, Russian, German, Chinese, Japanese, and other foreign languages. The Army authorities, therefore, set up a program for the intensive study of foreign languages. This met with considerable success and showed how quickly a speaking knowledge of a language can be gained if sufficient time and motivation are given. The officers of the Air Corps were required to attend Spanish classes in which use was made of phonograph records and a book prepared by the Work Projects Administration, entitled "Conversational Spanish for the Army Air Forces of the United States." In the vocabulary of this text

are 696 words of which 90 per cent are found in Buchanan's Graded Spanish Word Book. The 67 words which do not appear in Buchanan's Word Book are, for the most part, technical terms related to aviation. Of the 629 words listed in Buchanan's study, 67 per cent are found within the first 2000 words listed (the 2000 words used most frequently and, therefore, considered basic). Of the 105 idiomatic expressions found in the text, 67 appear in the "Spanish Idiom List" by Hayward Keniston. The average number of new words introduced in each lesson is twelve, excluding cognates which are easily recognisable because of their similarity in spelling to English. The average number of cognates per lesson is ten; the average number of idiomatic expressions is three. This little volume was so popular that in March, 1945, its eleventh printing was necessary.¹

The revival of interest in the study of Spanish in the United States was not due to political expediency and commercial opportunities alone. The school program of instruction in Inter-American Affairs in the last six years has its roots deep in our geography and history classes. There has also been noteworthy extension of Spanish-learning opportunities downward into the grades, as exemplified in the teaching of Spanish in the elementary schools in Texas and other states and in city school systems such as that of Los Angeles.

Reflecting the renewed interest in Latin-American culture is the Institute of Ibero-American Literature, founded in 1938. This organization differs from the American

¹ Lipp, Solomon and Besso, H.V. Conversational Spanish for Army Air Forces of the United States. New York: Hastings House, 1941. Pp. xvii - 166.

Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese in that it is international in character, devotes its attention entirely to Latin-American literature, and recruits its members not only from teachers in the United States but also from writers and scholars of Latin America.¹ Already the largest and most active organization of its kind in the Americas, the Institute publishes the Proceedings of its congresses and a review, the Revista Iberoamericana. The main purpose of the Institute is to bring together teachers, authors, and scholars interested in Ibero-American literature and to intensify the cordial relations between the countries of America by promoting that mutual knowledge and appreciation of culture which must precede any true and lasting esteem. An important additional service has been rendered by the Division of Inter-American Educational Relations of the United States Office of Education, with its staff of specialists in the teaching of Spanish and Portuguese and its service to Spanish club sponsors.

The Army Specialized Training Program

In the spring of 1943, under the Specialists Training Program, the Army opened courses in more than fifty colleges throughout the country and thousands of soldier-students were studying languages for immediate use. The program included the languages of the Near, Middle, and Far East, in addition to those of Europe. It meant, first of all, training in understanding and speaking the language, and required highly intensive training. Selected men spent from eight to ten hours per day on the language. Some thirty hours of individual study supplemented fifteen hours of classroom

¹ Leavitt, Sturgis E. "Instituto Internacional de Literatura Iberoamericana," Hispania, 22: 93, Feb., 1939

instruction per week and an equal number of hours of drill and tutoring under the guidance of a native speaker, or "informant." The work was organized in two or three parts of twelve weeks each, a brief interval of rest following each part. Small classes were under the direction of skilled linguists who placed emphasis on correct pronunciation, ear training, oral practice, rote memory work, and consistent preparation. The objectives were limited but the program was characterized by careful planning and a realistic study of the language as it is used. Phonograph records had an important role in drill work. Records were made with silent intervals during which the trainees repeated the recorded words and phrases. A considerable variety of tape recorders gave an immediate play-back, and proved to be good teaching devices. A telephone conversation, of which only one voice was heard, was a stimulating device also.

The curriculum was known as the Foreign Area and Language Study Curriculum (FALSC) and was based on the experience derived from the Intensive Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies, a civilian training project which at that time had been in operation for two years. The objectives and recommended methodology of the language phase are reproduced below. The directive read, in part, as follows:

Specific Objectives

The objective of the language instruction is to impart to the trainee a command of the colloquial spoken form of the language. This command includes the ability to speak the language fluently, accurately, and with an acceptable approximation to a native pronunciation. It also implies that the student will have a practically perfect auditory comprehension of the language as spoken by natives. Experience has

shown that with the proper methodology the objective can be achieved in six to nine months.

Study of the system of orthography in which a language is normally written is not an objective per se. It is to be undertaken only to implement attainment of the above defined objectives. The time in the course at which written materials in the normal orthography of the language under study can be introduced will vary from language to language. It will be conditioned by the degree to which the system represents a phonemic transcription of the language.

Methodology

War-time requirements necessitate that AST Language instruction be intensive in character. However, this does not imply that the so-called "intensive method" must be used. Any methodology which will achieve the objective outlined above is acceptable. Therefore the following remarks are to be understood as suggestive, not prescriptive. Provision is made in the curriculum for fifteen contact hours of language study. These can be effectively used in accordance with the following plan:

- a. One-hour demonstrations, three days a week by the senior instructor of the course on the structure (pronunciation, grammar, syntax, word-formation, etc.) of the language;

- b. Two-hour drill sessions, six days a week, in the presence of a drill-master who is a colloquial speaker of the language, preferably native-born. Work in drill sessions is under supervision of the senior instructor to assure that it is keyed to demonstrations on structure.

The demonstrations on the structure of the language should be so planned that all the essential structural characteristics of the language will be presented during the course and in the order of difficulty which they constitute for the American learner. The supervised drill sessions should give the trainees intensive practice in the form of conversations which exemplify principles brought out in the immediately preceding demonstration on structure. They should further provide review drill on the material previously covered.

It is of crucial importance that the number of trainees in supervised drill sessions be kept small. In no case should the number exceed ten. In general, an instructional team will consist of:

- a. One senior instructor for each assignment of 80 men;
- b. Four drill-masters for each eighty men.

If the so-called "intensive method" is followed, the time of the senior instructor would be absorbed in offering the three demonstrations a week on structure, and in supervising the drill-masters. Each drill-master would handle the two two-hour sections of ten men each per day. The drill-masters need not be trained teachers; their chief function is to speak their own language. With very brief training, they can be taught to draw

the men out and encourage them to practice on the limited materials with which they work in each session in accordance with the plan of the course. Care must be exercised to prevent the drill-masters from misinterpreting their function and assuming the role of teaching the structure of the language. This is properly taken care of in the demonstrations given by the senior instructor, and the drill sessions should be devoted entirely to practice. Where variants of this method are used, the dominant emphasis should continue to be on the drill sessions.

This system of small, supervised drill sessions will enable institutions to arrange separate sections in accordance with the varying levels of linguistic acuity which will be found among trainees.

As far as practicable, men studying the same language should be housed and messed together and otherwise encouraged to talk the language they are studying.¹

Trainees for the course were selected from non-commissioned men over twenty-two years of age, who had completed their basic military training and who qualified on three counts: (1) the Army General Classification Test, an intelligence and aptitude test; (2) demonstrated proficiency in foreign languages; and (3) completion of at least one year of college work.

Also the Civil Affairs Division of the Provost Marshal General's Office set up Civil Affairs Training Schools. These were designed to give language and area training to officers commissioned from civilian life on the basis of their qualifications for service in the administration and rehabilitation of occupied areas. Many studied under a language curriculum similar to that established by the Army Specialized Training Program. However, their training period was much shorter. Originally three or four months, it was finally reduced in most languages to eight weeks.

¹ Agard, F. B. and Others. A Survey of Language Classes in the ASTP. New York: Commission on Trends in Education, 1944. 3-6

In contrast with the normal pre-war language courses aimed chiefly at the acquisition of reading skill, these courses called for a much higher concentration of the student's time; preoccupation, at least in the initial stages, with the spoken form of the language; contact with native speakers of the language under study; and utilization of new material geared to the new courses.

The results accomplished by the hard, intensive work of the trainees in these courses were quite satisfactory to Army authorities. Reports from the respective areas indicated that men trained under the program rendered valuable service in the field. At the same time many people got the impression that some magical new method had been discovered that materially lessened the time and effort required to master a foreign language. Some people began to say that the schools and colleges should lay aside the old methods and procedures and use the "intensive" method, not taking account of the strong motivation, previous records of the trainees, small teacher-load, exclusion of other subjects, and other factors almost impossible to reproduce in the schools of normal times.

At a meeting of the Commission on Trends in Education of the Modern Language Association of America held in New York City in November, 1943, it was suggested that a group of specialists in foreign language teaching ought to make a survey, through personal visits, of institutions where new-type programs in foreign languages were under way, and report their impressions of these classes, particularly regarding ways in which the procedures followed could be

adapted to the peace-time teaching of foreign languages. The Rockefeller Foundation agreed to make a grant of funds for the support of the project.

The personnel of the survey project consisted of the following:

Director: H. G. Doyle, The George Washington University

Survey Group: Frederick B. Agard, Princeton University
Robert J. Clements, Harvard University
William S. Mendrix, Ohio State University
Elton Mocking, Northwestern University
Stephen L. Pitcher, St. Louis Public Schools
Albert van Eerden, Princeton University

Treasurer: Lyman R. Bradley, Treasurer, Modern Language Association of America

On February 18, 1944, the War Department announced the suspension, effective not later than April 1, 1944, of most of the Army Specialized Training Program. During these six weeks the field workers of the project visited a total of forty-four institutions, nine being visited by two members of the survey group, surveying jointly. The distribution by languages was as follows:¹

Table 4

Language	Number of Institutions	Number of Classes
German	31	106
French	26	89
Italian	19	50
Japanese	7	44
Spanish	14	40
Russian	11	34
Chinese	3	25
Finnish	2	10
Swedish	1	10
Burmese	1	4
Modern Greek	3	3
Turkish	3	3
Malayan	1	2
Bengali	1	2
Hindustani	1	2
Serbo-Croatian	1	2
Arabic	1	1

¹ Agard, F. B. op. cit., 8

This table shows that the study of Spanish was considered very important, being surpassed only by French and the three languages spoken by our enemies. The statements, therefore, made in the report of the Special Committee are to be applied to the teaching of Spanish as well as to the teaching of various other languages. The report had the following to say about the results achieved by the Program:

For the purpose of this report the results of language teaching in the Army Specialized Training Program may be considered fairly only for those trainees who had had no previous recognizable experience in hearing or speaking the foreign language which they were studying.

Regarding the achievements of the trainees on this basis, the survey staff found that for a very considerable number of trainees the results, while by no means miraculous, were definitely good, very satisfactory to the man in charge of the program, and very generally gratifying to the trainees themselves. Wherever the staff found careful and appropriate organization and coordination of teaching procedures, capable senior instructors and drill-masters, adequate supervision and control of the work, and skill and resourcefulness in the construction and adaptation of teaching materials, encouraging and worthwhile results were achieved. In short, a considerable per cent of the trainees did acquire the ability to express themselves with fluency and reasonable accuracy in the foreign language which they were speaking for the first time, including a good pronunciation, and a high level of ability to understand the spoken language as employed by different native speakers under circumstances representing normal speaking conditions.

There is considerable evidence, too, that the consistent and intensive use of the oral approach by no means eliminated the opportunity to acquire reading ability. In view of the great amount and variety of printed materials actually used by the trainees in preparing for oral practice of one kind or another, as well as for extra-curricular and purely recreational purposes, silent reading ability, while it was not an announced objective of the program, undoubtedly was generally acquired to a very appreciable extent.¹

¹ Agard, F. B. op. cit., 25-26

Regional Conferences on the Teaching of Spanish

In 1944 the National Education Association, in co-operation with the Office of Inter-American Affairs, planned and sponsored a series of regional conferences for the purpose of ascertaining the place of languages in Inter-American education and the need for improving language instruction and materials. An effort was made to hold the conferences, wherever possible, in connection with important state-wide or regional meetings of state education associations in collaboration with organized groups of teachers of modern languages, or in connection with regular meetings of organizations of teachers of modern foreign languages, especially local chapters of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, in cooperation with college departments of Education, public school systems, Inter-American centers, and representatives of the general public interested in Inter-American education. In spite of travel restrictions in force at the time and the cancellation of several education association meetings twenty-nine conferences were held between October, 1944, and March, 1945.

The National Education Association sent to these conferences as speakers and discussion leaders outstanding experts in the teaching of Latin-American languages and in Inter-American cultural relations. Discussion at the conferences centered in general around the following problems: the place of language in Inter-American education; objectives to be stressed today in language teaching; methods required to achieve the accepted objectives; the language curriculum; new teaching materials, particularly

audio-visual equipment; lessons learned from the Army Specialized Training Program and other language-teaching programs associated with the war effort; integration of language teaching with other areas of instruction; Spanish in the elementary school; pre-service and in-service training of language teachers; and supervision of language-teaching programs. Some of the most important principles on which there was quite general agreement were:

I The Place of Language in Inter-American Education

The effective learning by many people in the United States of the languages, as well as the cultures, of the Latin American countries is an indispensable part of any intelligent program of Inter-American education. A considerable number of our young people should have a real opportunity to learn well in our schools at least one Latin American language.

II Objectives to be Stressed Today in Language Teaching

The primary objectives of the study of Spanish in our schools should be, first, the acquisition of ability to understand the language when heard and to speak it, not only because these abilities are highly desirable in themselves but also because they are bases for the acquisition of other abilities such as reading and writing; and, second, understanding and appreciation of Latin American cultures.

III Methods Required to Achieve the Accepted Objectives

The audio-oral approach to language study, whereby understanding and speaking are stressed from the beginning, is necessary if the desired facility in the use of the language is to be acquired. Furthermore, there is reason to believe that all of the benefits expected to be derived from the so-called "reading method" quite generally accepted a few years ago as a necessary compromise under the conditions which then existed, can be achieved more readily and effectively if the audio-oral approach is employed.

IV The Language Curriculum

The content of the curriculum must be adapted to procedures whereby the ability to speak the language may be developed as a prime objective and the key to the acquisition of other language abilities, as well as to acquaintance with the

cultures of the Latin American countries and Spain. Courses of study in the early stages of language learning must be centered on aural and oral practice, not on formal grammar, translation, and silent reading.

V

New Language-Teaching Materials

In order to facilitate and supplement the efforts of teachers trained in the newer trends and points of view, we must have books and other textual materials that are in accord with these same trends and points of view. Adequate audio-visual equipment, some of which is already available, must be provided and used if the best results are to be secured. Improvement in such teaching aids is needed, and a wider use should be made of these materials, particularly for ear training and for the teaching of authentic Spanish-American pronunciation. Good maps with Spanish texts, charts, pictures, films, phonograph records, and recorders are essential equipment in any Spanish classroom. The radio undoubtedly offers many possibilities, as yet mostly undeveloped or unexplored.

VI Lessons Learned from the Army Specialized Training Program and Other Language-Teaching Programs Associated with the War Effort

Much of the teaching done in the Army Specialized Training Program and other language-teaching programs associated with the war effort has permanent value for civilian teaching. It would be very difficult, and probably unwise, to attempt to reproduce in wholesale manner all of the conditions under which most of the language classes in these programs were conducted. Nevertheless much can be learned from a judicious examination of this very significant experiment. These programs demonstrated, among other things, that it takes many hours and much hard work, not just a few hours loosely spent, to acquire, even under favorable learning conditions, a genuine command of Spanish or any other foreign language. On the other hand, the experiments demonstrated conclusively that such a command of a foreign language can be acquired by American students, given reasonably satisfactory learning conditions, sufficient time, motivation, and effort. Inter-student activity and practice are tremendously important in any language class, no matter how large. In some of the most successful situations the teacher did little more than devise a set-up in which the trainees themselves conducted the necessary practice through inter-student activities of one kind or another.

Many of the commendable features of the language program in the army training schools can be adapted to civilian teaching under normal conditions. Among these features are the audio-oral approach to the study of Spanish, increased amount of time devoted

to in-school practice in its use; emphasis on the colloquial form of the language dealing with actual life situations; small classes or practice groups supervised by teachers who really speak Spanish; correlation of language and area study; suitable teaching materials; development and use of adequate audio-visual equipment; and utilization of school and community resources to provide the maximum possible use of Spanish during the learning process.

As far as the time factor is concerned, It is possible to increase the number of contact hours now usually devoted to in-school practice in the use of Spanish, or to provide additional laboratory periods, as is done in the case of science and some other subjects. If other factors prevent this increase in time allotted to Spanish, the only alternative is to increase the number of years devoted to it.

It it is not possible to have small classes, the teacher can divide the classes into a number of smaller groups for partly self-motivated activities conducted under his supervision.

VII Integration of Spanish Teaching with Other Areas of Instruction

Much has been done in the direction of combining the study of Spanish with the study of the Spanish-American countries through the use of textbook materials dealing with their geography, history, and civilization. Concerning a planned integration with other subjects regularly studied in the schools much has been said and very little done, except in the areas of art and music.

Integration of the study of Spanish with such other areas of study as English, dramatics, history and geography, as well as with art and music, should be promoted and developed in an organized manner, not left to mere chance or accident. Fortunately, this is already being done in some colleges. It could well be done to a much greater extent in the lower schools.

VIII Spanish in the Elementary School

Some pupils should have an opportunity to begin the study of Spanish at an early age whenever it becomes practical to attempt to teach the language in the lower schools. At a more mature age these pupils could then concentrate on courses with Latin American content, particularly on the literature of Latin America. Wherever Spanish has been taught in the elementary schools with good organization, good teaching, and competent supervision of the teaching, the results have been gratifying. It is apparent that the teaching of Spanish in the elementary schools is increasing very rapidly in some areas.

IX Pre-Service and In-Service Training of Teachers

If the audio-oral approach is to be employed successfully in the teaching of Spanish or id, in other words, the teaching of Spanish is to be improved to any appreciable extent in the United States, more adequate pre-service and in-service training must be provided for and required of teachers. Teachers must show a satisfactory degree of proficiency in understanding and speaking the colloquial form of Spanish. Teacher-training institutions will also have to prepare teachers to employ the methods which must be used if the audio-oral approach is to be applied successfully. That this proficiency may be acquired has been clearly demonstrated in some communities in which well-organized and well-supervised Spanish-teaching programs have been under way for some time. In-service training should be continuous, and school systems and teacher-training institutions must provide opportunities for such training. Summer courses, workshops for teachers of Spanish, and travel tours to near-by Spanish-speaking countries are enabling many teachers to develop proficiency in the use of the language.

X Supervision of Spanish-Teaching Programs

Expert organization and supervision of Spanish teaching is indispensable. This fact was clearly demonstrated in the Army Specialized Training Program. Where there was expert organization and supervision, along with other favorable conditions, the results were splendid; where such organization and supervision were lacking, the results were relatively mediocre. Careful and appropriate organization and coordination of teaching procedures, which can result only from expert direction and supervision, are undoubtedly required if a living language such as Spanish is to be taught successfully.

XI Additional Observations

Another problem is that of orienting parents and the lay public so that they may have a proper understanding of newer trends and methods in the teaching of foreign languages, and so that they do not place obstacles in the way of educational progress. No ready solution of this problem seems to be at hand. However, much can be accomplished through well-written articles in the newspapers and through addresses given before parents' organizations and groups.

It will cost money to improve the teaching of Spanish in our schools, although the increase in cost may not be as great as it would seem to be at first glance. It is believed, however, that the public will gladly approve the additional expense if they realize that it is necessary and if they can feel that they are really getting something for their money.¹

¹ Pitcher, Stephen L. The Teaching of Spanish and Portuguese. Washington, D.C. N.E.A. Aug., 1945 8-13

SUMMARY

In reviewing the history of the teaching of Spanish in the United States, the year 1928 was chosen as a starting point because it marked the end of a five-year study of almost every phase of modern foreign language teaching. This Modern Foreign Language Study had as its official sponsor the American Council on Education and the publication of the eighteen volumes of its findings represent the most authoritative research in the field of modern language study. They formed the basis for the new departure in the scientific planning of the teaching of Spanish and other languages.

Professional research along this line was continued by a new Committee on Modern Language Teaching which was in turn dissolved in 1934, whereupon the Council appointed another Committee on Modern Languages. The work of the Study and the later committees produced a great change in the procedures and objectives of Spanish teaching in this country, the chief result being a new emphasis upon reading rather than the earlier grammar-translation method. During the decade following the appearance of the findings of the Study there was great increase in the use of the direct method in Spanish classes and much controversy as to the most worthwhile objectives in language teaching. The trend was in the direction of objective rather than subjective emphasis. This was shown very clearly in the changes in textbooks and in the testing procedures.

During this same decade there was a decline in interest in Spanish study, chiefly because of the new

pressure of social studies upon the curricula. The languages, like English literature and mathematics, were brought almost to extinction by the demand for courses in general education and in special training for vocations.

It has long been evident that wars have had much to do with the fluctuations in popularity of various foreign languages in the United States. This has, of course, been true in regard to Spanish. Since 1941 there has been a revival of interest in the study of foreign languages and Spanish now leads the field. The Office of Education has done a great deal to promote this new interest in other nations and their languages, and Spanish has been the chief beneficiary.

The training programs of the Army and Navy and the subsequent effects of the lessons learned from the intensive methods employed in teaching service men have brought about many new procedures in Spanish teaching and a conversion to the idea of using the audio-oral approach with great stress upon speaking Spanish in a practical manner and the ability to understand spoken Spanish.

A series of regional conferences sponsored by the National Education Association and conducted in cooperation with the Office of Inter-American Affairs in 1944 and 1945 offered ample evidence that great assistance was being given to teachers of Spanish, teachers in training, school administrators, curriculum-makers, business men interested in Inter-American trade, and others interested in Inter-American affairs by the activities of the government along this line and by the efforts of various educational organizations.

CHAPTER THREE

CHAPTER THREE

THE PRESENT COURSE OF STUDY IN ELEMENTARY SPANISH IN THE LOUISVILLE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS

Present Status of Objectives

The teachers of Spanish in the high schools of Louisville are a group of men and women who represent many different colleges and universities in their training. Most of them have had many years of experience and have visited countries where the language is spoken. Some of them have had experience in teaching army classes during the recent emergency as well as other teaching of adults. Some have had experience as translators of commercial correspondence and other experience of a practical nature. In Louisville there is no teaching of Spanish below the tenth grade and very few schools have more than a two-year course.

Louisville does not have a supervisor of the modern language program, therefore each school has the task and privilege of setting up its own standards and using its own methods. Discussions during meetings of Spanish teachers and their replies to questionnaires reveal a surprising amount of agreement as to objectives and method of approach to the teaching of the subject. The present system of having separate schools for boys and girls and the great rivalry between the duPont Manual Training High School and the Male High School have caused the number of transfers from one school to another to be very small. In the few cases of transfer which have occurred and in the mixed classes held

in the summer sessions it has been found that there is sufficient similarity of the work being done in the various schools to avoid any confusion or hardship for the pupil. All are agreed that one of the most important aims in the teaching of Spanish is the development of genuine understanding of Spanish-speaking peoples, their ideals and achievements. The understanding of peoples presupposes a knowledge of the medium through which their culture is transmitted.

In the past it has probably been true that in the high schools of Louisville there has been too much emphasis on the teaching of languages as a part of the preparation of pupils for college entrance. There has been too much of a tendency toward the elimination from language classes of the pupil who is of low ability or has not been well trained in the use of his own language. The teachers were sometimes criticized as being too conservative. Recently more thought is being given to those pupils who will not attend college, but they are not separated from the college-preparatory groups. The cultural and practical objectives of the courses can be combined. The objective is to combine in the Spanish classes the necessary training in the use of the language as a tool subject and as a means of acquiring literary and social values. Training in commercial correspondence is usually postponed until the third year. In recent years the teachers have turned toward the new methods and materials which new experiments and experiences such as the Army Specialized Training Program showed to be of value.

Following are some direct quotations from various
Louisville teachers of Spanish:

"The selection of teachers is important in any field, but the language field makes special demands upon its devotees. One who teaches a language is required to love everything about it; itself, for reasons of its beauty; its people, for reasons of their unique individuality; its literature, art, music, and civilization. In fact, if one does not possess enthusiasm for it one had better desert the field or the students will."

"I have not seen much of the texts, materials, etc. used in the Army. However, the word "intensive" is a frightening word when one thinks of it in connection with average high school students. Languages are elective subjects and, unlike the Army, we can not select our students. We do not have the motivation of the Army — survival."

"The General Language course in the junior high schools has neither prognostic nor intrinsic value."

"I find that the superior pupil only profits from the use of the direct method."

"Class technique is necessarily based on text used."

"El Camino Real is, I believe, a splendid text for the modern approach."

"I do not believe supervision is necessary at present. However, I think city-wide meetings of Spanish teachers might be stimulating."

"We need a good one-volume, short grammar, combining grammatical drill and direct method. Then we should have more interesting reading material, and read more with more time for conversation, dictation, etc. I am not in favor of these voluminous two-volume grammars and readers."

"I try to have a good amount of dictation practice and abundant illustrative material to make the subject more alive and the classroom more colorful."

"The General Language course in the junior high schools is a waste of time."

LOUISVILLE PUBLIC SCHOOL SURVEY, 1943

A recent survey of the public schools of Louisville
resulted in the following criticisms and recommendations:

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

XI-6

Purposes and Program

Criticisms

There is a lack of any statement of objectives. Apparently the school objective is the mastery of subject matter with a view to preparing pupils for college..... There seems to be a rigidity to the program which hampers both teachers and pupils alike. (358)
Individual differences were ignored apparently. Everyone is expected to pass the same tests. (359)

Recommendations

Present and future goals should be in sharp contrast to those now in use. (359)

Whenever possible, differentiated courses should be offered for pupils who are preparing to go to college and for those who are not and who lack that incentive to profit by the usual college preparatory courses. Every pupil in the high school, whether he is going to continue his studies in college or not, should have the opportunity to enjoy and profit from the study of foreign languages and cultures. (360)

Classroom Procedures

Criticisms

In several classes the amount of time wasted in calling the roll at the beginning of the class and again in calling for the report on the number wrong after the correction of the written exercises would add up to many minutes per week which could be put to more profitable use. There was little evidence of time-saving devices such as seating-charts or slips of paper containing the individual assignments for board work ready to hand out. Throughout the class period there was the most leisurely procedure as if time were no object. (361)

In most classes there were no signs of democratic procedure. Teacher domination was the rule. (361)

No evidence of dictation was found, although this is one of the best kinds of ear-training. (361)

Teaching Equipment and Materials

Criticisms

No foreign language bulletin boards were found with clippings from newspapers and magazines on current events. No showcases to attract attention to exhibits were in evidence. (361)

Commendations

The foreign language teachers are well prepared. Given competent specialized leadership they should be able to do outstanding work. (362)

Recommendations

1. Teachers of foreign languages might well think through and formulate statements describing in concrete form their objectives. These objectives should be such that they indicate the changes desired in pupils. Less time should be given to the mastery of subject matter per se and more should be devoted to preparation for meeting problems of adult life. (362)

Thought should be given to the personal and social development of the individual. (362)

There should be closer integration with other activities in the school curriculum. (362)

The present college preparatory course should be liberalized to conform to the modern college entrance requirements. (362)

2. Present courses are too rigid and restricted to provide the most advantageous program to either the superior or the average pupil. Consideration should be given to a re-organization of the offering. To enrich language work in the junior high schools a modern type general language course should be introduced, preferably in the eighth grade, but at least in the ninth grade. (362)

3. Leadership in the development of the foreign language program is urgently needed. (362)¹

The teachers of Spanish in Louisville, upon reading this report, thought that the criticisms were rather severe and not entirely justified. No group action was taken on the matter, each teacher continuing as before or making individual decisions as to changes in objectives and procedures. There was rather general disagreement with the recommendation that there should be offered differentiated courses for pupils who are preparing to go to college and for those who are not. Many pupils in the high schools of Louisville do not know in advance whether or not they will go to college. The recommendation that a general language course should be introduced in the eighth or ninth grade did not appeal to the Louisville teachers. It was thought better to have the junior high school pupil study one foreign

¹ Works, George A. Louisville Public School Survey, 1943
358-362

language specifically for five or ten months and continue from that point in the senior high school or simply wait until he has reached the tenth grade.

Nothing has been done with regard to the statement in the Works Report that leadership in the development of the foreign language program is urgently needed. It is the belief of the Louisville teachers that teaching is becoming a profession and that a profession largely supervises itself. It is evident, however, from the ideas expressed by the teachers in their meetings that there is now taking place a change in the direction of liberalization of the courses in the various schools and the addition of modern materials and aids.

Enrollment in Spanish Classes in the Louisville
High Schools According to the Files
of the Bureau of Research

Table 5

School	First Year Classes			Second and Third Year Classes			Total		
	1936'	1941'	1945	1936'	1941'	1945	1936'	1941'	1945
Atherton	83'	146'	142	32'	58'	72	115'	204'	214
Girls' High	73'	108'	127	17'	16'	51	90'	124'	178
Male High	187'	275'	205	71'	76'	107	258'	351'	312
Manual	59'	92'	67	52'	22'	21	111'	114'	88
Shawnee	25'	86'	99	19'	17'	44	44'	103'	143
Totals	427'	707'	640	191'	189'	295	618'	896'	935

Central High School had 62 pupils in first year Spanish classes in 1945, making the total 997 for that year.

The above table shows that the enrollment in Spanish classes in Louisville has been following the general national trend. This may be shown more clearly by the following table showing the percentages of total

**Percentages of Total Enrollment of Louisville High
Schools that Appeared in Spanish Classes**

Table 6

School	Per Cent Taking Spanish		
	1936	1941	1945
Atherton	13.3	23.0	26.2
Girls' High	7.4	10.8	19.6
Male High	15.7	28.8	22.4
Manual	9.8	9.4	8.3
Shawnee	4.4	10.4	17.0
Total	10.5	13.5	18.2

In spite of the total increase, there is to be noted a slight decrease in the percentage of enrollment in the high schools for boys. The table shows a steady increase in enrollments in Spanish classes in the high schools for girls. It is difficult to make an estimate of what the effect may be if the Louisville high schools are made co-educational. It is possible that there may be again a general decrease as has happened before after a boom in the study of Spanish. Some other language may become more popular or may be considered more necessary. For instance, the study of the Russian language has in recent years assumed a position of importance in the United States which it had never held before. It can be taken for granted, however, that the study of Spanish will continue to be important even if it loses its present position of leadership. It is not the desire of teachers of Spanish to work against the teaching of other languages. The interests of teachers of languages are served by any interest in the study of any foreign language.

Textbooks Adopted

In the spring of 1945 a selected group of Louisville teachers of Spanish held a series of meetings for the purpose of selecting a new textbook. Several representatives of publishing companies were given opportunity to talk to this committee and the choice was made after due deliberation. The final choice was El Camino Real, a two-volume series published by the Houghton Mifflin Company. The books were written by Edith Moore Jarrett, of the Fillmore High School, Fillmore, California, with Beryl J. M. McManus, of Hollywood High School, Hollywood, California, as co-author of Book One. Book One was copyrighted in 1942 and Book Two in 1943.

The name El Camino Real is derived from the name given to each old trail that led away from the capital of Mexico to the distant colonies of Spain. It is not claimed by the authors that they have produced a royal road to learning Spanish without work. They stated that their ideal was to attempt to build a "royal road to learning" the language, paved smoothly with the culture of the people who speak it and not too steep to take in high gear, yet demanding the steady use of all our power and really leading us somewhere.

Book One is intended for use in first-year Spanish classes in high school and provides a flexible program of reading and conversation as a basis for learning the language. There are thirty-eight chapters, each one being a unit of approximately one week's work, arranged in such a manner as to enable the teacher to use the direct method (featuring conversation), the reading method, the grammatical method, or a combination of all three. The text is so worded that it may be used in junior high schools if it is decided to add Spanish to the junior high school curriculum in Louisville.

In the following table showing the word content of Book One of El Camino Real, the term 1-words is applied to words of highest frequency according to Buchanan's Graded Spanish Word Book. These are found in the first 189. The term 2-words applies to words 190-500 on the list. The term 3-words means 501-1000 and the term 4-words means 1001-1500.

Table 7

Word Content of Book One of El Camino Real

	Basic Vocabulary		Supplementary Vocabulary	Totals
Non-cognates	1-words	266	—	266
	2-words	189	—	189
	3-words	154	—	154
	4-words	—	80	80
	Practical words	140	Others used for plot 104	244
Cognates	1-words	5	—	5
	2-words	22	—	22
	3-words	33	—	33
	4-words	—	23	23
			Others used for plot 133	133
		809	340	1149

In counting words the usual restrictions were observed: only the infinitive of verbs and one form of nouns and adjectives have been counted; changed meanings (comer, comerse) are not included; adverbs ending in -mente have been counted under the adjective form, and words with common suffixes (ito, ísimo, etc.) have been included under the parent form, while two parts of speech with the same form (ese, ése) have been counted only once unless there was a difference of meaning (como, écomo).

The Buchanan list is a study of word frequency in reading matter only, no attempt being made to include conversational words of everyday life. Hence, many practical words are not

found in the list. Of the 244 words (not cognates) not found in Buchanan's first 1500, 140 concern such topics, for example, as household affairs, including cocina, coredor, plato, abuelo, cuchara; clothing, including sombrero, zapato, pañuelo; school, including lápiz, lección, pizarra; foods, including sopa, cena, manzana, leche; animals, including vaca, caballo, gato; and other useful ordinary words, such as hablar, simpático, centavo, reloj, llover, and gracias.

In this first year book are stressed the ways of life that are the common heritage of the New World from old Spain, and effort is made in particular to give the pupil a more intimate understanding of our nearest neighbor, Mexico. There are given in English nine background essays (one with each fourth chapter) covering the history of Spain, the Andalusian background of the conquerors and early colonizers, the conquest of Mexico and Peru, the history of Mexico since the conquest, modern Mexico, Mexican patriotic days, and Spanish culture in our country.

In order to provide pupils with opportunity for learning to read by reading, El Camino Real presents over 21,000 words of graded stories based upon Spanish culture. The cultural contents, listed by chapters, may be described as follows:

Chapter	Page
1. EL BURRO: Typical of most Spanish-speaking countries	1
2. ¡ARRE! ¡BURRO! : Same as Chapter 1	9
3. ¡VÁMONOS!: Same as Chapter 1	15
4. EN EL CAMINO: Spanish-speaking children on the way to market	22
5. COSAS DE LA ESCUELA: School vocabulary and activities	39
6. ¿CUÁNTO SABE USTED? Juanito y el automovil; George Smith y el indio: An American boy in Mexico	45
7. JUEGOS DE MUCHACHOS: School games; Mexican song	52

8. ¿QUIÉN SOY YO? School activities of our country 61
9. ASI ES LA VIDA: The typical small-town plaza of Spain, Mexico, and much of South and Central America 81
10. LA HORA DE LA SIESTA: Typical custom of Mexico, Spain, and much of South and Central America 90
11. EL DÍA DEL SANTO: Typical birthday custom of Spanish-speaking countries 100
12. ¿CUÁNTO SABE USTED? El Santo de Pablito; A birthday party in almost any Spanish-speaking country 111
13. EN EL MERCADO: Market day in a typical small town of almost any Spanish-speaking country 128
14. UNA CARTA DE MI AMIGO: Letter from an American boy in Tepic, Mexico, describing typical social customs 139
15. LA CARTA DEL TÍO PEPE: The typical custom of the public letter-writer 148
16. EL PREMIO CORDO: The typical lottery custom and its superstitions 158
17. LO QUE LLEVA EL ESPAÑOL BIEN VESTIDO: Common dress of Spain; Basque country and Andalusia 178
18. ¿CUÁNTO SABE USTED? Un cuento de la lotería: A story of Mexico which could have happened in any Spanish-speaking country 189
19. LA FIESTA DE LA CUEVA: A traditional fiesta of Guanajuato, Mexico, and the custom connected with it 196
20. EL PATIO: The heart of the typical Spanish-style house 208
21. LOS NOMBRES ESPAÑOLES: The typical custom among Spanish-speaking people 226
22. UN NORTEAMERICANO EN MÉXICO: A boy's stay with friends in Mexico and what they ask him 235
23. TRES FIESTAS TÍPICAS: Fiesta customs for holidays common to many Spanish-speaking countries: San Marcos, Carnival, Day of Guadalupe (Mexico) 246
24. ¿CUÁNTO SABE USTED? El traje de los mexicanos: Clothing of rich and poor of Mexico 260
25. EL PORTAL DE LOS CERVANTES: The Christmas nativity scene as used in Mexico 278
26. EL DÍA DE LOS REYES: Typical Christmas custom of all Spanish-speaking countries 289

27. LOS GITANOS DEL ALBAICÍN: Gypsies of Granada, Spain	299
28. OTRA CARTA DE ALFREDO: Theater and night watchman customs of Mexico, typical of most Spanish-speaking countries	308
29. LA CASA DE LOS NAVARRO: A typical Spanish-speaking upper-class family, their house, and the children's games	329
30. ¿CUÁNTO SABE USTED?: Three cities to identify	339
31. LA HIGUERA ENCANTADA: A legend of Tepic, Mexico	347
32. LAS AVENTURAS DEL ALBANIL: A legend of the Alhambra	358
33. OTRO CUENTO DEL TÍO MANUEL: A story of Spain told by a man who emigrated to Mexico	372
34. DESDE EL BALCÓN: A story of Guanajuato, Mexico, concerning typical courtship customs and popular superstitions	382
35. LAS COMIDAS ESPAÑOLAS; LAS COMIDAS MEXICANAS: Typical foods in Spain and Mexico	396
36. ¿CUÁNTO SABE USTED? El zapatero listo; A story of Mexico	407
37. LA CAJITA DEL MORO: A legend of the Alhambra	422
38. EL ARTE DEL INDIO: The Indian craftsman of Mexico, his philosophy and love of beauty	432

Eight folk songs with music and six dramatizations are included. Many games suitable for classroom use are provided, as well as a selected bibliography of books of interest to pupils and a list of sources of realia, films, and records. Objective tests for each chapter are furnished in a separate pamphlet to each teacher, as well as quarterly and final examinations.

The text as a whole has been written in a friendly style to make the learning of Spanish a pleasant study as well as to create a feeling of sympathy and friendliness toward Spanish-speaking peoples. With this cultural approach, even those pupils who drop out at the end of the first year should gain something in the way of good neighborliness and a respect for a different point of view, which is, after all, as important as learning the language.

Book Two of El Camino Real, intended for second-year high school Spanish classes, features in its reading material our own heritage from Spain in the Southwest, reviewing and supplementing the material given in Book One on Mexico, and continuing on around the Spanish Main and then south through Central America to the Latin-American countries of South America. The stories concern either Latin-American geography, history, legends, or modern conditions, or — in later chapters — are literary, being adaptations of stories by popular modern Latin-American authors.

The word content of Book Two may be described as follows:

Table 8

Word Content of Book Two of El Camino Real

Basic Vocabulary		Supplementary Vocabulary	
1-words (1-100)	260	Low-frequency plot words	
2-words (100-500)	278	used in only one chapter	104
3-words (501-1000)	374		
4-words (1001-1500)	236		
<hr/>			
Total high-frequency	1148	Words of the country	
Keniston idioms ¹	149	(gauche, pampa, etc.)	37
Practical words	104	Low-frequency expressions	82
Practical idioms	27		<hr/> 223
<hr/>			
Required basic materials	1428		
Low-frequency plot words	287	Low-frequency cognates	
Practical working		omitted from vocabulary	354
vocabulary	<hr/> 1655		<hr/> 877

Adding to the practical working vocabulary of 1655 words and expressions the supplementary vocabulary of 223, we find a total of 1878 (not including proper nouns, etc., or the 354 low-frequency cognates omitted from the vocabularies), of which 1061 were used in Book One, leaving a total of 817 new words for Book Two.

¹ Keniston, Hayward. A Spanish Idiom List. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929.

The statements made regarding Table 7 apply also to Table 8, the frequency count being based on Buchanan's Graded Spanish Word Book. Of the practical working vocabulary of 1655, 1297, or 78%, are found among Buchanan's first 1500 words or Keniston's first 200 idioms.

This second-year book consists of thirty-two essential chapters and five optional chapters which may serve to enrich the course for the pupils of highest ability or for plateau reading for the entire class if time permits. The reading material for the minimum course amounts to a total of about 37220 words. The optional reading amounts to about 8700 words.

The committee of Louisville teachers who were asked to make a selection of a text to be used for at least five years had a difficult task, but it is believed that the choice was an excellent one.

SUMMARY

In this statement of the present status of the teaching of Spanish in Louisville, effort has been made to show that the teachers are aware of the changing conditions and objectives of recent years and are not too conservative to try new procedures to meet the altered situation. While they were, in general, not pleased with the statements made by the Works Report of 1943, they were willing to admit the truth of at least some of them and to work for the elimination of faults and the addition of needed materials and efforts.

The continued popularity of Spanish in the Louisville high schools, as shown by Table 5 and Table 6, seems to indicate that progress is being made in setting up worthwhile objectives and working toward them.

The choice of new textbook for elementary work in Spanish

in the Louisville high schools was made with consideration for recent discoveries and trends, as will be observed in the description of the books selected. The teachers wanted a book with a scientifically selected and controlled vocabulary, yet with a large amount of reading material of both practical and cultural value.

The textbooks selected have each chapter divided into parts designed to be used for various purposes, therefore some parts, such as translation of English into Spanish, may be omitted without confusion by the teacher who is not trying to carry out simultaneously four purposes of language instruction. The authors of the books had in mind the development of ability on the part of the pupils to speak, read, write, and understand Spanish, but it has been found that the efforts of the pupils in beginning classes to translate paragraphs of English into Spanish result in a great number of mistakes in spelling, choice of words, and arrangement of words. The resulting discouragement of the pupils is quite harmful. The ability to write correct paragraphs of Spanish should appear as a terminal result after many weeks of classroom work and individual study.

At the present time in the five senior high schools under discussion there are to be found four movie projectors, five phonographs, and one microphone, showing that the Louisville teachers of languages are willing and anxious to adopt new worth-while aids to instruction.

CHAPTER FOUR

CHAPTER FOUR

A PROPOSED OUTLINE OF ELEMENTARY SPANISH SUBJECT
MATTER FOR LOUISVILLE HIGH SCHOOLS

Trends in Teaching Languages in High Schools

With the shift of national interest to the Latin American countries, the recent popular trend in teaching modern foreign languages in our high schools is toward developing ability to speak the languages as well as to read them. This is especially true in Spanish courses, although teachers and writers are not content with making speaking the sole objective. By drawing generously upon the rich treasures of Spanish and Spanish-American civilization they can turn the business of language learning into a colorful and significant experience from which the pupil may draw cultural values and satisfaction. There is a trend in the direction of a combination of the cultural and the practical in the choice of material for conversations and reading.

The teachers of Spanish in high schools who have had many years of experience have seen the arrival and also the departure of fads and fancies in methods of procedure in language teaching, some of them making extravagant claims to ease and perfection. One common feature of these fads has been an attempt to get rid of all instruction in grammar and syntax. The attainment of factual knowledge and the command of specific skills resulting from some types of experiments of this type can not be classed as satisfactory.

Society has developed a set of standards and customs. There is good form to be observed in clothes, in eating, and in social behavior. Similarly, language has developed a set of standards of correct speech. If we all mixed words as we pleased, we should soon have no common language at all, and, therefore

could not make ourselves understood. This set of standards, which must be observed in putting forms into sentences, constitutes grammar. The trend at present is toward reducing the study of formal grammar to the minimum essentials with beginning classes and emphasizing it later only to the extent that it materially aids in the development of the reading ability. The presentation of grammar is more simplified in recent textbooks and classroom procedures than was the custom a few years ago. Nevertheless, sooner or later there must be some explanation of word changes and word arrangement or the pupil will become just a mimic who is able to quote a few sentences by rote with no real ability to make new sentences and no appreciation of literary and cultural values. The present trend is toward the use of a limited amount of inductive grammar study rather than the deductive prescriptive grammar.

While high school teachers have learned many things from the work done in Spanish and other languages in the Army Specialized Training Program, they find it impossible to set up a similar situation in a crowded high school classroom with a maximum time of five hours per week. Assistant teachers whose native language is Spanish are not available, therefore the teacher has to do the best that he can to teach correct pronunciation, in some cases taking further training in phonetics and conversational Spanish.

In recent years the teachers of languages have been giving more consideration to the psychology of the learning process than was done when it was considered just a question of taking a certain number of pages of grammar and reading in a certain number of days, requiring the same achievement of all pupils, and giving the same tasks and tests to all. One difficulty is

the widespread ignorance of the basic educational principle that procedures must be determined by objectives, that methods must develop out of clear, sound, certain aims. Methods are the least important part of the matter with which the language methodologist deals. The vital question is always the aim and the particular devices used to attain it, not generalized plans and philosophies. It can be said that "methods" in the sense of the "Direct Method" or the "Grammar Method" or the "Natural Method" have no real existence. They are like the average Spaniard (an abstraction) who has never been seen on land or sea. Just as Spaniards exist in infinite concrete variations, some large, some small, some intelligent, some unintelligent, so it is with methods. When they become concrete and can be examined they turn out to be this textbook or that.

Sometimes teachers find it convenient to speak of the "Direct Method" or the "Grammar Method" as an abstract classification of certain general procedures. Abstractions, however, since they are generally vague, arouse loyalties and emotions, so that discussion of them is transferred from a field of scientific investigation to a realm of feeling. Sometimes quarrels over methods have divided teachers into hostile camps between which communication and mutual understanding have been almost impossible. Everything is vague and undefined. The professed common aim is usually "to teach Spanish."

The quarrel over methods involves mainly the old question of "speaking knowledge" versus "reading knowledge", the direct methodists emphasizing the first,

the upholders of the various grammar methods, the second. For a time this question was settled to some extent officially by the Henmen and Coleman reports which recommended a skill somewhat vaguely defined as "reading knowledge" as the principal and professed aim of required courses in public schools. This aim could be given precise definition by specifying a certain number of items in the word frequency and idiom lists for a given period of study. As recently as 1945 Huse wrote:

The aims for the language courses should be clear and single for each course. There might be courses in writing and speaking, but the maximum requirements should involve reading knowledge only. Under favorable conditions the accomplishment of this last might be so rapid that present results would look pitiful.

Some writers, e. g., Michael West, maintain that for the majority of students the best means to attain a speaking knowledge is first through reading knowledge. The argument is plausible. When you can read a language with ease you are close to a speaking knowledge. In any case the reading objective is about the only one that can now be countenanced for all students, and it remains for text-book writers and teachers to show how efficiently that aim can be accomplished.¹

The Army Specialized Training Program succeeded, by the use of facilities and methods never available to any educator, in teaching a select group of men to carry on an elementary conversation in a comparatively short space of time. The oral-aural method with intensive training in conversation and hearing of the language spoken by native assistants to the teachers produced considerable results for the temporary and special linguistic assignments intended. This success had much to do with the fact that the speaking objective is currently fashionable, many teachers turning from

¹ Huse, H. R. Reading and Speaking Foreign Languages. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press. 1945. page 83

the formerly authoritative "reading" to the currently fashionable "speaking." In a recent article Kosh says:

Since the reading aim has in practice shown itself to be not so much a realistic objective as a fuzzy method based on uncertainty and compromise and since — all present clamor notwithstanding — a speaking aim is impractical and pedagogically unsound as a general language aim, we are at present still in the unhappy position of having neither an aim nor a method even remotely satisfactory to critical language teachers or to the general educational public.

The way out of this dilemma does not lie in attempting a compromise between speaking and reading. It lies in determining a foreign language objective from which can evolve naturally and easily a method that is organically compatible with the principles and practices of the modern curriculum.

The function of a liberal education in the modern world is to bring some degree of order to minds that have inherited conflicting patterns. It must weave the problems of the modern world into a recognizable pattern by which individuals may take their bearings for a full and responsible life. This means that subjects are valid in the core curriculum of liberal arts only to the degree that they develop all the capacities of each individual in such a way that he can grow into a normal, contented adult and can make the best possible adjustment to the world about him.

The primary functions and instructional patterns of language and literature are essentially determined now by the following functions rather than esthetic objectives: (1) freeing the individual from the tyranny of words, (2) helping the individual clarify, order and amplify his own thoughts and feelings and (3) socializing the individual.¹

The compromise mentioned above is the method now being used by many teachers, the effort being to retain that which is best and eliminate that which is poor. A compromise, however, can easily combine the worst features of the methods considered and omit the best features.

¹ Kosh, Ernst. "Functionalism in Foreign Language Teaching," Modern Language Journal 31: 267-268, May, 1947.

MAJOR NEEDS

If foreign language teachers wish to resolve their present confusion and at the same time take a step that will assure for the foreign languages a prominent and legitimate place in the integrated core curriculum, they must accept the developmental aims and methods that the new curriculum requires of language in general. They must shift their primary accent from specialized linguistic proficiency to personality development. Language must play a more vital role in clarifying and deepening the pupil's perception of himself and guide him in finding, out of the mass of conflicting values, antagonistic notions and practices, a coherent pattern for integrated growth.

One major need for language instruction is the recognition of the fact that learning is more psychological than logical. While it is a fact that many rules of spelling and grammar of the Spanish language are practically without exceptions, a fundamental command of the language can not be gained from practice in memorizing classified categories and fitting them together according to rule, irrespective of the learner's level of insight.

The psychological principle of reference to experience is illustrated by Kaulfers in the following paragraph:

In studying a foreign language the high-school student often finds himself in a position comparable to that in which a five-year-old child might find himself were he to ask his father, "Daddy, what is a cow?" and receive the reply, "A cow is a ruminating, herbivorous, quadruped mammal, in which the lacteal glands are abnormally developed." Such an answer would be scientifically exact, unquestionably true, and in this case, absolutely useless! Not a single key word is within the experience vocabulary of the child in point. Now,

if the father were to follow the precedent set by some teachers, he might berate the mother or the kindergarten teacher for not having taught the child these words. Or, being resigned to their shortcomings, he might stop before answering the question, and teach the child the meaning of ruminating, herbivorous, quadruped, mammal, lacteal, glands, abnormally, and developed — and most likely lose both the cow and the child in the process! If the child did not respond to the procedure, the father might conclude that the child took after its mother, or was simply lacking in intelligence. Obviously, none of these conclusions would be true. Neither would the equally plausible conclusion be justified that a five-year-old child was too young to learn what a cow is. The fault lies in the fact that the medium of instruction does not conform to the principle or reference to experience, and a different approach is desirable.¹

Other common-sense principles of the psychology of learning which need to be applied to the teaching of Spanish are the principles of consideration of different levels of insight, learning to do by doing, transfer of training, and motivation.

The desirability of instruction in General Language courses in junior high schools before the pupils begin the study of Spanish or some other language depends upon the type of course offered and the training of the teacher. Prognostic courses emphasizing the exploratory aims and objectives are courses demanding training on the part of the teacher in at least three foreign languages else the work is likely to be unbalanced in favor of the language in which the teacher has had special training. Some General Language courses are informational rather than exploratory, having the primary purpose of giving the pupil an insight into the general field of language. The latter type is to

¹ Kaulfers, Walter Vincent, Modern Languages for Modern Schools. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1948 17-18

be preferred in the Louisville junior high schools if there is a continuance of the present policy of postponement of the study of Spanish until at least the tenth grade. The Harvard Report says of the so-called "General Language" course:

Its virtue is that it aims frankly and openly at what any study of language in general education should accomplish at this stage: namely, at illuminating English. Its weakness may be that it is too academic, too consciously the fruit of research, for the ninth grade — that it, so to speak, talks down to students by merely offering them information without rousing in turn their own powers of performance, as the study of a single language can do. Meanwhile, the teaching of a single language will remain far the commoner way of giving perspective to English.¹

Greater correlation of Spanish teaching with other parts of the curriculum is generally needed. A course in a modern foreign language offers many opportunities for development of topics from various other classes and for the guidance of the pupils toward better social and moral attitudes. The social studies may easily and profitably be correlated with the conversations and drills in a language class.

The statement in the Works Report that competent specialized leadership in the development of the foreign language program is urgently needed in Louisville is true with regard to the coordination of the work and there is some need of supervision at times. By way of commendation, however, the report states that the Louisville foreign language teachers are well prepared, and, given such leadership, should be able to do outstanding work.

The size of classes should in many instances be reduced in the interest of better results, and the custom of having two or more classes in the same room at the same time should be abolished, even when advanced classes are below the minimum limit of fifteen.

¹ Report of the Harvard Committee, General Education in a Free Society. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 1945. 123-124

USE OF PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING IN THE TEACHING OF SPANISH

One of the chief criteria of the suitability of a subject for school study and the success of any method of teaching it is, "Will the pupil go on studying it after he leaves school?" In many cases he is not equipped to continue study without the assistance of a teacher. If the high school graduate has not learned how to read with a good degree of understanding he will depend upon the radio and the comic magazines for his further cultural progress. This is especially true in the case of a person who has been in a Spanish class for a few months. Unless he has some strong motive or is by accident placed in a position where he will have occasion to use the language, he is very likely to forget nearly all of it.

In the teaching of a course in Spanish, therefore, one great task is to make it such a course as to create an interest in the subject great enough to cause the pupil to wish to continue to study and use it. For high-school boys and girls the content of the reading material and the choice of topics for conversational practice must not be so childish or so difficult that they are not well adapted to the capacities, interests, and abilities of the group.

The first criterion of a course of study is whether or not it is arranged in accordance with the basic principles of learning. In this connection Race says:

Every individual has by original nature and experience certain wants and interests. Original nature furnishes impulses to action, and the environment in which he lives is the source of many of his desires and the means of his gratification. The changes that are made in him depend upon his activities in realizing his wants and interests, and upon the effect on him of his efforts to secure them. He changes or learns

because of his response to the environment.

Basic principles of learning are (1) readiness, (2) effect, and (3) repetition with satisfaction. Learning is (1) making new mental connections, (2) strengthening connections by satisfaction or discarding connections because of dissatisfaction, and (3) strengthening connections by use, or repetition with satisfaction.¹

The material given to high-school pupils must have for them a definite meaning in order to facilitate memorization. Experiments with nonsense syllables have proved that their learning requires ten times as much time as the learning of an equal amount of purely meaningful material. It is much more sensible to tell the pupil that the word "she" is translated into Spanish by the word "ella" than to say, "The third person, singular number, feminine gender, nominative case in the list of personal pronouns is ella." The use of technical nomenclature merely complicates the learning process by adding more unknowns to the situation.

A great amount of emphasis should be included in a course in Spanish upon the study of cognates. The average high-school pupil recognizes about 750 Spanish cognates before starting the study of Spanish. There is a marked tendency toward a directly proportional relationship between ability to recognize cognates and school achievement, and increased command of the vernacular. The proportion of easily recognized cognates diminishes with each successive group of 1000 words in Buchanan's list, while that of the less easily recognized cognates increases.

A high-school Spanish course should be so arranged as to have the highest surrender value possible at whatever point the pupil drops out of the class if something prevents his

¹Race, Henrietta V. The Psychology of Learning Through Experience. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1938. 139

continuing with the work. If the pupil were to spend only a few days in a Spanish class he should learn , for instance, enough about Spanish pronunciation to be able for the rest of his life to say with a reasonable degree of accuracy the Spanish proper names or other words which he may have occasion to use. He should become aware of the fact that there exists a culture among the Spanish-speaking peoples that is different from but not in conflict with our own. He should learn that there exist a Spanish literature and a Spanish-American literature worthy of his further consideration. This is especially important in view of the fact that 85 per cent of pupils who start the study of a foreign language do not continue it for more than two years.

An important criterion for establishing a course in Spanish is the establishment of machinery for continuous re-definition of purposes and goals, for the constant improvement of methods, techniques, and materials of instruction, and for the incessant evaluation of the product.

The course of study must be a workable guide. This would discourage the extensive use of a single text to determine the assignments, recitations and tests.

Without too much emphasis upon the possibilities of employment, there should be some mention made in the course of vocational opportunities for persons with a good knowledge of a foreign language. In some cases this may prove to be a valuable feature of vocational guidance. The following chart shows that Spanish is now in first place in the vocational demands for languages. The pupil should be warned, however, that other qualities and training must be combined with the knowledge of a language or languages in order to avoid disappointments and insure success.

Vocational Demands for Languages in Recent Years

This chart, taking the present status of Vocational demands for Spanish as 100%, can best be interpreted by reading it backwards. It shows Spanish to be almost equal to the other three added together at the end of 1946, after having been a poor second to French in 1936.¹

¹ Public Relations Office, Latin American Institute, "Vocational Emancipation", Latin American Institute News. Vol. 5, No. 3: 10, March, 1947.

SUGGESTED PROCEDURES IN SPANISH

1. Reading is of two kinds, extensive and intensive. The intensive reading is provided by the text as a basis for grammar study, etc. An extensive reading minimum has been set for each semester. Tests for reading, other than translation which is best reduced to a minimum except for clearing obscure or unusual passages, are questions and answers, preferably in Spanish; outlines and summaries, oral and written, in English at first, in Spanish in advanced work; and completion, multiple choice, and matching questions of all kinds. Sight translation gives opportunity for developing speed in grasping thought.
2. Oral work may consist of summaries, oral reading, answers to questions, completion exercises, etc. Any written work should be read and corrected in Spanish as much as possible. Written composition should play a minor role in the first year's work.
3. Dictation is of the utmost value and importance from all points of view. Besides formal written dictation on a prepared text, oral work should include reading of passages by the teacher for the pupils' comprehension, acting upon direction by the pupils, etc. The effort should be, in every phase of the work, to get the pupils to think in Spanish.
4. The whole work of the course goes toward building a strong vocabulary in Spanish. Some teachers may prefer active memory work for learning vocabulary, others may prefer use and a large passive vocabulary. The active vocabulary in a two-year course is necessarily small. Reference should be made to the Spanish Word List by Buchanan.
5. Memory work is essential, not necessarily memorization of poetry and songs, both of which are valuable as pronunciation guides and tests for stimulating interest, but memorization of basic form, simple phrases and sentences, idioms, etc. No pupil

can learn Spanish and avoid work.

6. Testing of reading has been mentioned. Tests for aural comprehension are much the same. The ability to speak Spanish is difficult to judge on a set scale, but there can be prepared or obtained tests on phonetics and pronunciation which will prove to be of great value.

7. Conscious effort should constantly be made by the teacher to throw light on English words and forms, to get the pupil to apply his knowledge of English to the work in hand or vice versa, and to enlarge the pupil's vocabulary in English as well as in Spanish.

8. The cultural content of the course may be handled in various ways, by extensive reading in Spanish, by reports and lectures in English (or in Spanish in advanced classes), by assigned readings in English, tests, records of Spanish music, and by moving pictures. Class discussion occasionally is stimulating and valuable. Realia, consisting of maps, posters, pictures, stamps, coins, dolls, etc., are of great interest and have much to offer as cultural material. Use of realia arouses curiosity about the Spanish-speaking countries and stimulates interest.

9. Narrow-minded adherence to one method of teaching Spanish should be laid aside. If the pupil does nothing but read he will never be able to speak even the simplest of necessary sentences when the opportunity presents itself for him to use the language. If the pupil does nothing but study grammar and de-code Spanish sentences one word at a time he will do very little real reading and will acquire no fluency in expressing himself in Spanish or in understanding spoken Spanish. Those who are taught by the natural or psychological method without

consideration of literary and cultural values in the study of a second language may acquire a certain amount of fluency in the use of a certain set of sentences without attaining any of the other objectives of the course.

10. Each teacher needs to use some elements of all methods to meet the needs of different types of pupils. The aural-oral approach should come first, followed by some practice in accurate spelling and study of the reasons for variations in form of the verbs, nouns, pronouns, and adjectives. Conversations should not be impractical and childish, but, like the reading materials, should include worthwhile content and valuable information. Since methods are merely means to a desired goal, it is the duty of a wide-awake teacher to examine professional journals continually in search of new ideas and fresh inspiration. He should make intelligent selection of combinations of method to fit both the broad aims of Spanish teaching and the specific needs of the actual situation. The common-sense principle of learning to do by doing is as applicable in the foreign language field as elsewhere. Effectiveness in teaching does not depend on any one method; it depends, rather, upon "the intensity and vividness of impressions, on the frequency with which impressions are repeated, on the wealth of firm associations; and last, not least, on the interest, eagerness, and will to conquer which each individual learner brings to the subject."¹

11. Since prognosis tests many times fail to prove reliable it is not fair to the pupil to tell him that he may not enter a Spanish class. He should be allowed to drop the subject if he is one of that very small number who can not profit by such a course, but the teacher should not be eager to get rid of pupils who are not able to make phenomenal progress from the

¹Hagbelát, Peter, "Types of Memory in Language Study," The Modern Language Journal, 16: 590; April, 1932.

very beginning. Rather should the teacher strive to make use of methods that provide adequately for the differences in abilities within the class. For the unusually industrious pupils and those of high ability the course may be enriched by additional material not used by the pupils of less ability.

12. Pupils should be encouraged to continue to use and to study Spanish after having completed the required number of months in the high school course. Only a small number will enter college and take more advanced courses, but correspondence courses are available and more foreign-language books than ever before are being sold in the book-stores. Magazines and bulletins in Spanish are easily obtained and many radio programs, broadcast in Spanish, can be heard daily. Numerous clubs, civic organizations, professional groups, and government agencies are offering opportunities for the study of Spanish and of Latin-American history, economics, life and culture, and international relations. It is partly the fault of the teacher if the pupil wants to sell his book for a few cents as soon as he is sure that he has obtained the credits in Spanish which he needs for graduation or for college entrance.

13. The results of the learning process should include (1) factual information or knowledge; (2) meaning and understanding; (3) abilities to do — knowledge and understanding combined with skill; (4) desirable attitudes — scientific, social, moral, and others; (5) worthy ideals, purposes, appreciations, and interests, and (6) resultant intelligent participation in general life activities.

Both teachers and administrators can find suggestions worthy of consideration in the report on implications for civilian education of armed services educational programs which was recently prepared by Miles and Spain. They said:

1. Multi-sensory instructional materials should be used extensively at all levels of education.
2. Effective use of newer types of instructional materials should be based on systematic and careful studies by educational groups of the functions of such materials in teaching and learning.
3. Multi-sensory instructional materials should be conceived of as aids rather than as self-contained teaching devices.
4. Improvement of instruction through the use of a variety of instructional materials can be effected by local ingenuity and initiative.
5. Multi-sensory instructional materials should be employed in general education as well as technical and vocational training.
6. Multi-sensory instructional materials afford an effective means for extension of vicarious learning.
7. Effective utilization of audio-visual materials necessitates both pre-service and in-service education in the use of such aids.
8. Multi-sensory instructional materials afford a means of capitalizing upon individual differences.
9. Local, regional, and national surveys are needed periodically to determine current uses of available aids, needs for new aids, and methods of facilitating production and distribution of these aids.
10. Distribution of films should be decentralized to assure more adequate utilization.
11. The variety of types and uses of military training aids and the evidence of their effectiveness suggest the need for civilian educators to explore the uses of such materials for both new and old educational purposes.¹

In conclusion, this overview of training-aids programs of the Army and Navy implies that such aids should be considered essential to the development of both that vocational and that social competence which will enable youth to contribute to the maximum in a democratic society.

¹ Miles, John R. and Spain, Charles R., for the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs, Audio-Visual Aids in the Armed Services. Washington: American Council on Education. 1947. 77-93.

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In conclusion, this overview of training-aids programs of the Army and Navy implies that such aids should be considered essential to the achievement of the goals of civilian education — the continual development of both that vocational and that social competence which will enable youth to contribute to the maximum in a democratic society.¹

¹ Miles, John R. and Spain, Charles R., for the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs, Audio-Visual Aids in the Armed Services. Washington: American Council on Education. 1947. 77-93

GENERAL AIMS FOR SPANISH COURSES

To develop ability to read and understand the language with ease and enjoyment.

To develop ability to use and understand the spoken language.

To develop understanding and appreciation of the culture of the countries where Spanish is spoken and their influence in the development of civilization, especially our own.

To create a greater interest in the accurate use of English and an appreciation of language growth and development.

SPECIFIC AIMS

First Year

The ability to read and comprehend simple Spanish

The ability to pronounce Spanish correctly

The ability to use Spanish orally within the limits of the class materials

Such knowledge of grammar as is necessary for reading with comprehension.

An interest in the life, characteristics, and history of the Spanish-speaking people of the world.

The ability to take a simple dictation in Spanish

Second Year

The ability to read and comprehend with ease and enjoyment plays, novels, history, periodicals, and newspapers in Spanish

A knowledge of grammar as an aid in writing letters or compositions in accurate Spanish

The ability to use actively common idioms and phrases found in intensive reading

An understanding and appreciation of what the Spanish-speaking countries have contributed to art, music, science, etc.

An increased understanding of the development and structure of English and other languages

Third Year

An increased ability to understand, speak, and write Spanish and a further development and increased range of reading

An increased attitude of tolerance toward other nations

An increased knowledge of the foreign people and their achievements in various fields of activity

An increased knowledge of the structure of English

UNITS OF EXPRESSION

What is a unit of expression? According to Huse it may be defined as a syllable or a group of syllables or of words that in a given usage is indivisible and that can be combined, added, or subtracted in sentences, paragraphs, and pages of connected discourse. All speech is putting together links in a kind of chain. If the exact links were known and their frequency established, then the order of learning would be definitely determined, and by experimentation the best means could be found for memorizing the list. Textbooks would no more differ in the order of presenting material than arithmetics, which must begin with digits. Language learning would be reduced largely to memorizing the units of expression.

Palmer and Jespersen are quoted by Huse in his discussion of semantic units as follows:

Just as a semantic unit may be represented by more than a word, a word may contain more than one semantic unit. Of the two elements in "hopeless" one is found separately in "hope" and the other in "helpless," "formless," etc., and the same is true of many other prefixes and suffixes.¹

The Latin *amat* is really two words as is its English equivalent, the final *t* being originally a pronoun signifying "he," "she," or "it." The really essential difference between *amat* and "he loves" is that in the former the pronominal element is expressed by a suffix, in the latter by a prefix.²

A pupil in an elementary class in Spanish in trying to write or say Spanish sentences by using a vocabulary in which single words are listed usually commits many errors. If he intends to write a question beginning with

¹ Palmer, H. E. The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages. London: Harrap. 1917. 371f.

² Jespersen, O. Language. London: George Allen and Unwin, 1934. 422.

"How much?" he is very likely to look up the words "how" and "much" and then write ¿Como mucho? which means "Do I eat much?" The Spanish unit of expression needed is "¿Cuanto?"

Phrases which form units can be classified as follows:

1. Type phrases in which other nouns, adjectives, etc., can be substituted. These phrases form patterns, and the pattern itself constitutes the unit: el edificio grande (la casa bonita); haber ballado (vivido, etc.); una tasa de leche (un vaso de agua); ver el tren (mirar el coche).

2. Combinations of words which do not equal the sum of their parts (counting only usual or conventional meanings): con tal que; hay que; en vez de; se dice.

3. Phrases involving words with variable meanings: poner la mesa, ponerse la camisa; en voz alta, en la mesa alta.

Some words can stand alone and represent fairly definite concrete objects, such as "hat" and "door." Others summarize an experience that a book would be required to explain, such as "evolution" and "materialism." Others may express an entire wish, command, or warning: "Help!" "Fire!" "Run!" Some stand for actions, some for things, some for nothing concrete at all, such as "anger" and "Fountain of Youth." Some stand neither for an object nor a sensation: "of," "and," "from."

The units which would require counting in the preparation of frequency lists are, therefore, phrases, words, and parts of words, i.e., *miologs* (stems, endings, prefixes, and suffixes).

The word lists of Buchanan and the idiom lists of

kenisten have been a great help to writers of Spanish textbooks and to teachers of Spanish, but they are based on the frequency of occurrence in literature and therefore many words and phrases of frequent use in practical daily conversation are either omitted or placed much further down the list than their proper position. The listing of the frequency of spellings is not enough. Semantic variations are a most important matter, since obviously without its meaning being known a word can neither be understood nor used. The word "get" has at least ten common semantic variations. Only one spelling is involved, but is "get" one word or ten? Should its numerous forms be counted as separate items? The German verb halten requires 28 French verbs to express its meanings in various phrases.

In an experiment by Edward L. Thorndike on the interpretation of shifts of function by a class of university students, the following results were obtained:

A list of 418 verbs used as nouns yielded 866 different meanings to the students. These meanings were classifiable into 134 types, plus 158 figurative uses. One imaginary usage, employed in an experiment, was given 42 different meanings. Of 20 nouns used as verbs none would mean the same to 50 individuals.¹

What is needed is a frequency list of units of expression as defined by Huse and it should include those of frequent practical use in everyday life, whether or not they are of frequent occurrence in literary Spanish. It would be well to have also separate lists of special words and units of expression used in Mexico, Colombia, Chile, etc. The preparation of such frequency lists would be a tremendous problem, but if units in relation to English could be established, the basic problem of what

¹ West, M. and Swenson, E. A Critical Examination of Basic English. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1934. 18.

to teach would be solved. It is not solved by the mere learning of individual words, although there is some merit in the teaching methods of both Gouin and Ollendorf.

Gouin considered the verb as the core of a language and advised their learning in groups according to related actions. Tenemos hambre. Deseamos comer. Comemos. Ollendorf considered nouns of the greatest importance. En el comedor veo una mesa, seis sillas, y un aparador.

In his description of the origin and development of the Cleveland Plan for the teaching of modern languages deSause says:

The fundamental vocabulary should be introduced not as detached words, but as a connected story. The unit in a language is the sentence. To require of a class to memorize a list of detached words is about as thrilling and as successful as learning a list of telephone numbers. Association is the fundamental law of memory. Since our aim is also to train the student to read, we must introduce him very early to a text that expresses thought and not to a haphazard collection of sentences that jump from the cow to the moon and create in the minds of the student the distinct impression that the new language is not capable of conveying thought, but only serves to illustrate grammatical relationship.¹

In April, 1946, Dr. Hobart Ryland, Head of the Department of Romance Languages of the University of Kentucky, stated that the classes there were using a text constructed by the faculty on the theory that the unit of a language is the sentence. A year later he stated that the plan had been abandoned because of insufficient results. The pupils had learned to say a large number of sentences, but were not able to continue advanced work satisfactorily. A return to the study of parts of sentences was necessary.

¹ deSause, E. B. The Cleveland Plan for Teaching Modern Languages. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co., 1931. 10

USE OF TEXTBOOKS

In the study of Spanish the adopted textbook, while not indispensable, is very important because each pupil is expected to buy a copy and use it for reading and study at home and at school. Some teachers prefer to use a brief grammar for the purpose of teaching the minimum essentials of inflection, conjugation, and arrangement of words, supplementing this by mimeographed work sheets and a large amount of oral practice and dictation exercises. They would prefer to use various other readers, papers, magazines, and samples of Spanish and Spanish-American literature for the purpose of reading. The majority of new textbooks, however, for high-school Spanish classes are huge books, such as *Fronteras*¹, or appear in two volumes of many pages. They include the authors' ideas of the necessary amounts of paradigms, word lists, exercises, and reading materials. They have the merit of economy of effort and combine many features in easily accessible form.

Because the texts now in use must serve for at least three more years and probably another five years after that under the system of book adoption in Louisville, the following proposed outline of materials is to some extent based on the arrangement appearing in these books. The semester is divided into periods of six weeks each. The elements of grammar are introduced very slowly at the rate of less than one per week. It would be a good thing for each pupil to have a copy of the following suggestions by Staubach, quoted here by special permission.

¹ Arjona, Doris K. *Fronteras*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1947. Pp. 480.

Summary of Suggestions for Individual Study

1. Active Practice

- (a) Train several nerve channels at once:
 - (1) Read and repeat aloud.
 - (2) Repeat in writing.
 - (3) Dramatize or visualize.
 - (4) Learn by rote when necessary
- (b) Apply these methods to:
 - (1) verbs
 - (2) vocabulary
 - (3) phrases
 - (4) idioms
 - (5) examples from lessons in grammar

2. Sense Groups

- (a) Learn to read and write in sense groups:
 - (1) phrases
 - (2) clauses
 - (3) others
- (b) Increase your skill by underlining sense groups in exercises.
- (c) Look for the value of a feeling for sense groups:
 - (1) in learning vocabulary
 - (2) in learning idioms
 - (3) in learning verbs
 - (4) in understanding grammar

3. Grammar

- (a) Look for ideas and relationships behind the rules.
- (b) Treat rules as guides to correct practice.
- (c) Make rules effective by practice with examples and drill material.

4. Verbs

- (a) Learn by active practice and dramatization.
- (b) Learn irregular verbs through key-forms and classifications
- (c) Acquire flexibility by drills with subject pronouns and with adverbs of time.

5. Vocabulary

- (a) Learn everyday words by active practice and dramatization.
- (b) Learn to recognize compounds, cognates, and derivatives.
- (c) Make lists of important classes of common words.
- (d) Master difficult words through the use of drill.

6. Reading

- (a) Learn the value and importance of the context.
- (b) List words looked up. Do not interline.
- (c) Master words or expressions which occur frequently in reading. ¹

¹ Staubach, Charles M. How to Study Languages. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1937. 23-24

PROPOSED OUTLINE OF MATERIALS

First Year, Semester I

First Six Weeks

Conversation

1. Useful Expressions of Courtesy
2. Classroom Expressions
3. Geographical Terms and Names of Spanish Origin
4. Numbers to One Hundred
5. Names of the Months and the Days of the Week

Grammar

1. Pronunciation. Sounds that do not Vary from English
2. Pronunciation. Sounds that Vary Somewhat from English
3. Nouns, Adjectives, Definite and Indefinite Articles
4. Possession
5. First and Third Person Forms of Present Indicative of Ser
6. First and Third Person Forms of Present Indicative of Regular -ar Verbs

Cultural Materials

1. Reasons for the Study of Spanish
2. The Relation of Spanish to English
3. Homeland of the Language
4. Other Countries Speaking Spanish
5. Spanish Words in Pupils' Vocabulary

Second Six Weeks

Conversation

1. Telling Time
2. The Human Body
3. Members of the Family and Friends
4. Animals
5. Buildings and Rooms

Grammar

1. Agreement of Adjectives with Nouns
2. Uses of Subject Pronouns
3. First and Third Person Forms of Present Indicative of Tener
4. Idioms with Tener
5. First and Third Person Forms of Present Indicative of Regular -er and -ir Verbs
6. Demonstrative Adjectives and Pronouns

Cultural Materials

1. Story of Spain from 711 A.D. to 1492 A.D.
2. Study of the People of Spain, Particularly the Castilians and Andalusians
3. Great Buildings and Great Persons of Spain

Third Six Weeks

Conversation

1. Clothing and Food
2. In the Market
3. In the Large Department Store
4. The Weather
5. Holidays

Grammar

1. Present Indicative of Estar and its Uses
2. Interrogative Sentences
3. Direct Object Pronouns and Their Position in the Sentence
4. Formation of Past Participles and Their Use with Haber
5. Radical-changing Verbs

Cultural Materials

1. Spain Comes to America
2. Early History of Mexico
3. Spanish Missionaries and the Indians
4. Short Stories of Mexican Life

First Year, Semester II First Six Weeks

Conversation

1. In the Office
2. The Automobile
3. A Trip to Mexico by Train
4. In the Hotel
5. The Names and Titles of Spanish-speaking Persons

Grammar

1. Present Indicative of Dar and Ir
2. Present Indicative of Poder and Venir
3. Present Subjunctive of Regular Verbs Used as Polite Commands and as Exclamations of Wish
4. Present Subjunctives of Irregular Verbs
5. Gerunds and Their Uses

Cultural Materials

1. Music, Dances, and Fiestas of Mexico
2. The Theater and the Moving Picture Show in Mexico
3. Sports
4. The Lottery

Second Six Weeks

Conversation

1. On a City Street
2. A Visit to the Farm
3. Occupations and Places of Business
4. The Radio
5. Polite Commands as Vocabulary

Grammar

1. Imperfect Indicative of Spanish Verbs and its Use
2. Indirect Object Pronouns
3. Pronouns Used as Objects of Prepositions
4. Future Indicative of Verbs, Regular and Irregular
5. Conditional Forms of Verbs, Regular and Irregular

Cultural Materials

1. Education in Mexico
2. Mexicans Who Do Not Speak Spanish
3. Study of the Aztecs
4. Products of Mexico
5. Mexico's Commercial and Political Relations with Us

Third Six Weeks

Conversation

1. The Metric System
2. Trees and Flowers
3. Fruits and Vegetables
4. In the Kitchen
5. In the Dining Room

Grammar

1. Comparison of Adjectives
2. Possessive Pronouns
3. Preterite Tense of Verbs Which are Regular
4. Preterite Tense of Verbs Which are Radical-changing
5. Preterite Tense of Verbs Which are Irregular
6. Past Perfect, Future Perfect, and Conditional Perfect

Cultural Materials

1. Readings in Spanish and in English about Spain's Contributions to American Culture
2. Study of Inter-American Relations in the Past
3. Study of Inter-American Relations in the Future

**Second Year, Semester I
First Six Weeks**

Conversation

1. Review of Most Frequently Used Expressions of Courtesy
2. Review of Classroom Expressions
3. The Pan-American Highway
4. Mexican Road Signs
5. Traveling in Mexico

Grammar

1. Study of Numbers
2. Review of Present Tense of Verbs of All Kinds
3. Polite Commands with Pronoun Objects
4. Review of Simple Past Tenses in the Indicative
5. Compound Tenses in the Indicative

Cultural Materials

1. Advertisements from Spanish or Spanish-American Papers
2. Traditional Courtesy of Spanish-speaking People
3. Spanish-American Nations and Their Capitals
4. The Spanish Conquerors in Mexico and Central America
5. Early Spanish Days in Our Own Country

Second Six Weeks

Conversation

1. The Army
2. The Navy
3. Aviation
4. Famous Men
5. Famous Books

Grammar

1. Familiar Commands
2. Mild Requests
3. Noun Object Clauses Requiring Subjunctive
4. Noun Subject Clauses Requiring Subjunctive
5. Review of Adjectives and Their Comparison

Cultural Materials

1. History of South America
2. Indians of South America
3. Legends of South America
4. Spanish-America's Participation in World War Two
5. Inter-American Relations

Third Six Weeks

Conversation

1. Letter-writing
2. In a Jewelry Store
3. In a Grocery Store
4. At a Baseball Game
5. At the Race Track

Grammar

1. Imperfect Subjunctive Forms
2. Past Perfect Subjunctive Forms
3. Sequence of Tenses
4. Suppositions Contrary-to-fact
5. Adverbial Clauses Requiring Subjunctive
6. Adjective Clauses Requiring Subjunctive

Cultural Materials

1. Hispaniola
2. Cuba
3. Puerto Rico
4. Brazil
5. Religion in Spanish-America

Second Year, Semester II First Six Weeks

Conversation

1. Using the Telephone
2. Factories and the Workers
3. Libraries and Museums
4. Schools and Churches
5. Parks

Grammar

1. Por and Para
2. Review and Drill on Uses of Subjunctive
3. Subjunctive of Exclamation of Wish
4. Softened Statements
5. Orthographic Changes in Verbs

Cultural Materials

1. Present Political Situation in Spain
2. Present Political Situation in Latin America
3. Present Attitude of Our People toward Latin America
4. Review of Geography of Spanish America

Second Six Weeks

Conversation

1. In the Post Office
2. In the Bank
3. In the Hospital
4. Monetary Units of Spain and Spanish America
5. Signs Seen in Spanish America

Grammar

1. Reflexive Used for Passive
2. Review of Subjunctives
3. Cognate Recognition
4. Menu Study
5. Drill on Object Pronouns

Cultural Materials

1. Comparison of Spanish and Portuguese
2. Colloquial Expressions of Mexico
3. Coins and History
4. President Truman's Visit to Mexico
5. President Aleman's Visit to the United States

Third Six Weeks

Conversation

1. Songs
2. The Panama Canal
3. Beauty-shop Words
4. Souvenirs from Latin America and Spain
5. Review of Idioms

Grammar

1. Review of High-frequency Words
2. Drill on Uses of Various Tenses
3. Drill on Sequence of Tenses
4. Additional Study of Letter-writing
5. Review of Important Points of Grammar

Cultural Materials

1. How Our Neighbors See Us
2. Plans for Further Study of Spanish
3. Plans for Further Study of Spanish-speaking People
4. Spanish Poetry
5. Sources of Additional Materials
6. Evaluation of Benefits of Two Years of Spanish

CONCLUSION

In a democratic nation the group exists for the welfare of the individual. To insure his own welfare, the individual must abide by certain rules and acquire certain habits designed to facilitate his living with others. Secondary education should seek to develop a willingness and an ability to abide by the rules of the group. It should likewise stimulate the acquisition of the attitudes, the habits, and the social skills essential to the well-being of the group. These desirable outcomes may be called the social purposes of secondary education. They are good citizenship, social efficiency, and a progressive social outlook. This outlook should not be confined within the borders of a person's own nation, but should be broadened to include a knowledge of and a sympathetic understanding of other peoples. One of the best means of helping a pupil acquire this broader outlook is giving him an opportunity to get acquainted with the other peoples' history, cultural inheritance, and language.

The following brief statement of a philosophy for the public school system of Louisville is quoted from the 30th Report of the Board of Education, 1940-41.

The public schools of Louisville seek to provide that kind of education which causes pupils to develop an understanding of their responsibilities, duties, and rights as citizens in a liberal democracy. Furthermore, they are pledged to give to each pupil the opportunity, under guidance, to develop his own abilities to the highest possible point, whether he be average, dull, or gifted.

This philosophy has been kept in mind in the selection of materials and procedures for the Proposed Course of Study in Elementary Spanish in Louisville High Schools. A review of the history of Spanish teaching in the United States

since 1928 has been made for the purpose of showing the many changes that have taken place since the time when the modern foreign languages were taught in the same manner as were Latin and Greek. The modern approach is quite different because the teacher is attempting to teach pupils instead of subject matter. The course is to be planned to fit the needs of the members of the classes instead of the old plan of selecting pupils who could be forced to fit into a certain pattern and sent on to college for more of the same treatment.

In spite of the continuation of the work of the Modern Foreign Language Study by the Committee on Foreign Language Teaching and the progress made by Dr. E.B. deSauzé in his plans for the improvement of instruction in the high schools of Cleveland, we have seen the decline in interest in the study of Spanish which took place between the years 1928 and 1940. The work of deSauzé was the fore-runner of much of the modern approach to the teaching of foreign languages. His philosophy was that teaching should be so organized as to draw out certain faculties of the mind and instill certain mental habits while endowing the pupil with certain fundamental skills which in time would enable him to read, write, speak and understand the foreign language being taught.

The revival of interest in foreign languages because of World War Two affected Spanish more than any other language and in recent years there is a trend in the direction of using some parts of the procedure employed by the armed forces in giving training in use of foreign languages. The high-school teacher, however, does not select the members of the Spanish classes as was done in the service. Equipment and time and motivation such as were present in the Army Specialized

Training Program are lacking in the high school program. The high school teacher is compelled to use simpler techniques, such as the Cleveland Plan, at least part of the time. The oral and aural approach to teaching of elementary Spanish received emphasis by deSaut long before the intensive method of the service schools attracted so much attention. He said that the best sequence of the learning process is orientation before specialization, hearing before speaking, speaking before writing and seeing. He placed the seeing of the unit as the final act, used to correct the pupils' writing it from dictation. He estimated that writing a unit five times attentively is as effective in fixing it in the mind as a hundred "seeings" of it.¹ He defines the unit of a language as the sentence, but a better definition of a psychological unit is given by Huse:

The units of a language are the elements that can be combined. A unit of thought may be a word, a pair of words, or a group of words.²

Regional conferences, such as those planned and sponsored by the National Education Association in 1944, and surveys, such as the Works Report in Louisville in 1943, have done much in recent years to standardize the teaching of modern languages and the high school teachers of Louisville have not been slow to adopt some of the recent suggestions, such as increased attention to conversational practice and use of visual and aural aids and realia when available.

¹ deSaut, E. B. The Cleveland Plan for the Teaching of Modern Languages. John C. Winston Co., 1924. 10.

² Huse, H. R. The Psychology of Foreign Language Study. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press. 1931. 187.

Recent interviews and correspondence with teachers of Spanish in Louisville with regard to their attitudes toward the intensive methods used in the Army Specialized Training Program brought out the fact that there is now an increase in the use of audio-visual aids in classrooms and in the use of the oral-aural approach to the language. The needs of the Army were specific and for a definite moment and the mechanistic process employed produced good results within the limits of the objectives set. For normal times, however, these objectives are too narrow and the teachers do not wish to surrender to practical needs alone. Much is yet to be done in founding the pupils in the cultural and humane values of the people who speak Spanish. Culture is that which remains when the subject-matter is forgotten.

Some improvement in recent months in the teaching of Spanish may be traced to suggestions of the Works Report. Examples of this are increased use of dictation exercises and increased use of realia in the classrooms. Two of the suggestions of the Works Report failed to meet with the approval of the Louisville teachers. These were the addition of General Language courses in the junior high schools and the addition of a Supervisor of Languages. The preliminary general course is considered as having neither prognostic nor intrinsic value. It is believed that the study of one language is more valuable.

More than half of the Louisville teachers of Spanish were active in selecting the books now being used in the first two years of high-school Spanish. Although the voting was not unanimous, there was no argument as to the type of

text desired. It was agreed that a high-school pupil should have a book which he could study without having somebody to explain to him what the learned author meant to say in his verbose comments and explanations. For this reason preference was given to books written by high-school teachers rather than by college professors. El Camino Real has pleased the teachers during the two years that it has been used. In addition to the simplicity of presentation of the essentials of elementary grammar and syntax there is the fact that there is so much material dealing with the Spanish-speaking peoples — about their countries, their history, literature, music, and everyday life.

Older texts were rejected by the teachers at once as being filled with tiresome study of dry grammar without motivation and without sufficient cultural materials. Of course the work of Louisville teachers of Spanish will never be uniform, but there is a tendency toward harmonious effort in the same direction and a surprising amount of agreement on psychological methods of approach. The authors of El Camino Real also had in mind the question of evaluation of results obtained. They prepared objective tests to accompany the text. For Book One, for instance, there are 38 chapter tests, a semester test, a final test, four tests of reading comprehension, and four tests of aural progress. Teachers may at times make use of standardized tests or ask for essays from the pupils of advanced standing on subjects which will reveal the social attitudes that have been developed. As suggested at the conclusion of the outline for the second year, it is a good thing to have discussions in class as to what evaluations the pupils themselves have made of the various benefits derived from the course.

One feature of the first-year book by Jarrett and McManus which pleased the teachers was the omission of a wearisome study of pronunciation at the beginning. Pronunciation, accentuation, and syllabication are presented gradually in connection with early lessons as the need for them arises. Correct pronunciation, however, is emphasized because language units are primarily sounds. The pupil acquires habits of pronouncing correctly or incorrectly even in silent reading. When the reader encounters an unfamiliar word, his response is laryngeal: a sub-vocal articulation of the word. The reader is unconsciously and subvocally pronouncing every word which he reads. One objection to the results announced by Burwell after his experiments with recording of eye-movements and eye-fixations of readers is the fact that the brain is not a teletype, receiving electrically silent impressions.

In the latter part of Book Two of El Camino Real is some practical instruction in the interpretation and writing of business letters. In many cases this will be the first real opportunity presented to the pupil for deciding whether or not he wishes to make the use of Spanish a part of his career. For those pupils who wish to study commercial correspondence, further opportunity is provided in the third year of high-school Spanish, which is not outlined in this suggested course because some of the Louisville schools do not have third-year classes.

The outline of Material in a general way follows the books adopted for use in the Louisville schools since each pupil is told to buy the text and since there is not enough library material in the schools to supply the large classes

of beginners. As the class advances there can be assigned outside readings and the teachers will at times hand out mimeographed materials. The units of work are made up of suggested topics of conversation, grammar, and cultural materials to be handled concurrently and covering periods of about six weeks each. The outline is meant to be flexible and teachers may choose to repeat some parts and omit others as the need arises. The main purpose throughout is to make the course both enjoyable and profitable. By drawing generously upon the rich treasures of Spanish and Spanish-American civilization the teacher can turn the business of language learning into a colorful and significant experience from which the pupils will draw permanent cultural values and satisfaction.

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